

DEVELOPING A RATIONALE FOR
OUTDOOR EDUCATION

Thesis for the Degree of Ed. D.
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Morris Wiener
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This is to certify that the
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DEVELOPING A RATIONALE FOR
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ABSTRACT

DEVELOPING A RATIONALE FOR OUTDOOR EDUCATION

by Morris Wiener

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to examine and analyze the historical development of the basis for outdoor education and to suggest a current rationale. The major objective was to develop consistent and comprehensive elements of a rationale that could serve as a reasonable basis for developing outdoor education programs and practices in the public schools. Subsidiary objectives were: (1) to trace the development of the present basis for outdoor education through a review of related studies and an analysis of the contributions of two key leaders in the outdoor education movement, and (2) to indicate implications that a current rationale may have for designing programs in outdoor education and for processes of developing such programs.

Method of Research

A historical-developmental approach was used in treating the problem. The general procedure included documentation, analysis, synthesis, and inductive reasoning. Library research procedures including personal

interviews and correspondence, were followed in documenting the development of the basis for outdoor education. Throughout the study, and especially in the development and interpretation of elements of the rationale, a research method that could be deemed philosophical was employed. For the purposes of developmental research in this study, philosophical was interpreted as projection through rational means employing accumulated evidence of past experience.

Summary

The present basis for outdoor education was identified through an examination of the careers and contributions of Lloyd B. Sharp and Julian W. Smith. Factors that may have influenced Sharp and Smith were presented and the present basis was interpreted from their writings. An analysis of this basis and its historical development indicated a need for constructing a current rationale for outdoor education.

Sources from which elements of a rationale for outdoor education should be selected were determined. General elements concerning values of society, the nature of society, the learner and learning, and objectives of education were presented along with implications for outdoor education. Specific elements of the rationale focused on the uniqueness of the outdoors as a setting for meaningful learning experiences.

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Specific elements of the rationale followed from a basic premise that recognized the unity of nature and man's place in that unity. The beauty, mystery, and power of the outdoors serves as a stimulation for questioning, examining, and exploring in seeking to gain personal understanding and commitment. The outdoor setting provides, in varying degrees, a learning environment in which discovery of personal meaning can result from direct involvement with physical reality in a broad context. The outdoors affords opportunities for experiences that are an integral part of a learning process that focuses on the development of rational powers and personal values.

Conclusions

1. "Rationale development" afforded an appropriate means for examining the basis of outdoor education and for building a logical foundation for outdoor education.
2. Identifying the present basis for outdoor education through the contributions of Sharp and Smith resulted in an understanding of their own interpretation of that basis.
3. Outdoor education is best conceived of as a process of utilizing the outdoors as an integral part of the school curriculum.

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4. The development of rational powers can serve as an acceptable criterion for determining priorities in outdoor education.

5. The uniqueness of the outdoors as a setting for learning experiences is basically an expression of the unity of the universe of which man is an integral part.

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By
Morris Wiener

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

For the past thirty years or so a number of individuals and groups have been working to further the concept of outdoor education in the public schools. Some educators have been striving for the incorporation of outdoor learning experiences in the general program of education while others have been promoting an array of specific outdoor experiences such as camping, conservation activities, and recreational activities. All of these pursuits are a part of an effort to gain wide recognition of the values of utilizing the outdoors for learning and of preparing individuals to make the most of the outdoors. The energy expended in this cause has come geographically from all parts of the country, professionally from many branches within the educational family, and historically from the leadership and direction of a few pioneering men and women. This concern for and with the outdoors has by no means been limited to educators nor to the time span of some thirty years, but it is within these bounds that this study examines the basis which supports and sustains the outdoor education movement as it is directed toward the public schools.

From its inception, outdoor education has relied

heavily upon the philosophical interpretations and principles of Lloyd B. Sharp, later accompanied by those of Julian W. Smith. In the development and spread of outdoor education, the concurrent thinking of these two individuals has been highly influential and today this thinking continues to stand out as the main source of significant concepts and principles which are basic to outdoor education. Their work for many years has been concerned with outdoor education, and each in his own particular life pattern has inspired many individuals who have come in contact with it either directly or vicariously through writings. Their prolific writings reflect to some degree the general tenor of outdoor education--what it has been and what it is today.

The significant leadership roles that Sharp and Smith have played place them in a position of authority in interpreting the nature of outdoor education. Their lives and their contributions, when viewed in historical retrospect, offer a meaningful point of view for examining the foundations of outdoor education.

Acknowledging the importance of the ideas and inspiration of Sharp and Smith, it becomes the task of those who would seek further to interpret the outdoor education concept to be not only its spokesmen but also its most severe and conscientious critics--to examine continually its basic

tenets and provide new insights. By pushing beyond the precepts and perceptions of these two individuals through a process of scientific inquiry and research, outdoor education becomes a more meaningful concept.

One direction that could aid in providing a current basis for outdoor education would be towards developing a rationale. Such a rationale should include an intelligible exposition of underlying reasons for outdoor education. The interrelated elements of a rationale should provide an explanation and interpretation for supporting and sustaining outdoor education programs and practices.

There have been several statements of the basis for outdoor education. These have been helpful to some degree in understanding the changing nature of the outdoor education concept and have supported the beliefs of those who have translated this concept into action. However, the extent to which examination of the basis has been continuous and expanding has been negligible. A rationale developed now with new perceptions could serve not only as a demonstration of the role that outdoor education may currently play, but may also demonstrate a process by which the basis for outdoor education could be continually examined in the future.

I. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The purpose of this study is to develop a rationale

for outdoor education that can serve as a basis for curriculum development in outdoor education in the public schools. Such a rationale should be broad, yet intensive, in laying out the essential elements for both the processes of curriculum development in outdoor education and curriculum design in outdoor education.

The study first traces historical developments that have led to a present basis for outdoor education. This involved the examination and analysis of significant factors in the beginning of the outdoor education movement and in its growth and progress. From analysis of the development of the present basis for outdoor education the need for constructing a more current rationale was indicated. Accordingly, an attempt was made to note refinements in the basis, and consideration was given to unresolved problems and issues. Special emphasis was given to presenting the ideas of key persons and their impact on the movement.

The next phase of this study seeks to answer the philosophical questions: (1) What should be the elements of a rationale for outdoor education, and (2) how should the elements be determined? Here, principles of curriculum development were used in determining criteria for the nature of the elements and their selection. Both elements from the past and those derived from new knowledge and insights were

considered in bringing together a consistent rationale.

The third phase of the study illuminates how the rationale may be used in curriculum design, in selecting and organizing outdoor learning experiences, in identifying critical issues, in preparing teachers, and in developing further research. The relationship of process and design was considered of importance also. Again, at this level, principles of curriculum development were emphasized in attacking these problems.

The specific aspects of the problem were designated by the following questions:

- I. What has been the basis for outdoor education and how was the concept developed?
 - A. What were early significant ideas and events and what contributions have leaders made?
 - B. What have been the significant factors of progress and growth?
 - C. What are the present shortcomings and critical issues?
- II. What should be the elements of a current rationale for outdoor education and how can they be determined?
 - A. What criteria should be used in selecting elements?

- B. How should elements be selected?
- C. What elements from the past and what new knowledge should be used as a consistent rationale?

III. What are the implications for developing programs and practices of outdoor education?

- A. How may processes of curriculum development be applied?
- B. What are the implications for designing curriculum in outdoor education and what is the relationship between process and design?
- C. What functions can such a rationale serve in selection and organization of outdoor learning experiences, in preparation of teachers, in development of further research, in identification of critical issues?

II. NEED FOR THE STUDY

The use of the outdoors as a teaching-learning environment has frequently been included in formal and informal educational programs in our society. It was not until the decade of the thirties, however, that a conscious awareness of the educational potentials in camping led to the rise of school camping and subsequently to present concepts of

outdoor education.

From a scattering of isolated leaders and programs there evolved a web of common concern built around the many ideas of how the use of the outdoors might help in achieving the goals of education. As the pattern of the web became clearer and more coherent, it became apparent that the binding force and inspiration centered in key places and programs and with key individuals. Strength and direction were being drawn from interrelated socio-cultural forces of the times, as well as from current thought in education and its underlying disciplines. Thus, the on-going rush of enthusiasm for "first hand experiences in real life situations" brought forth a loosely knit movement with outdoor learning as its main theme and school camping as its focal point.

As more programs identified with, or classified as, outdoor education got underway in the forties and early fifties, school camping still stood as the apex of the movement, although efforts were being made to give broader meaning to the term "outdoor education".

The areas of influence that outdoor education has had from its beginning down to the present time have been ever increasing; but, when viewed in light of the total impact on the schools, it still remains only a partial reality of fulfilling the dream of becoming a widely accepted

and valued concept in public education. As outdoor education has progressed, so, too, have all phases of the education profession. The changes in educational practice have moved swiftly along with the accelerated pace of our technological society and have led to many new emphases and innovations. Drawing from an ever growing accumulation of research, theory, and knowledge, education has responded to societal needs and demands in retaining that which is sound while discarding that which no longer has relevance.

In this arena of changing values, outdoor education has been a constant force attempting to demonstrate its value as a unique contributor to the programs and practices of our schools. At all levels, in practice as well as in theory, it has been confronted by those who would continue to support it, by those who would seek in some way to make it a part of the school's function, by those who would recognize but ignore it, and by those who would challenge its being. To the extent that outdoor education has been recognized as fulfilling a particular need has it been incorporated in individual school programs. In school camping a setting is provided for unique kinds of learning experiences, in advocating first hand experiences of discovery and exploration a method is encouraged for universal usage, and in emphasizing skills for outdoor activities broader programs are stressed.

As all phases of curriculum are brought under closer, more perceptive scrutiny of laymen and educators alike, supporters of outdoor education are being challenged continually to bring new and deeper meaning to its principles and practices. The "apparent goodness of outdoor living" as a wholesome activity for youth has been one idea advanced in support of outdoor education. This cannot serve adequately for developing educational programs in our current society. A more substantial and logical basis is needed if outdoor education is to move forward.

Reported research and professional literature attest to the fact that conscientious efforts have been made in developing outdoor education. A critical examination of such writings reveals that through descriptive accounts and status surveys ample attention has been given to aspects of administrative and program organization and content. Evidence concerning educational effectiveness has been presented chiefly in the form of opinions of educators and students who have been closely associated with outdoor programs of one kind or another. Little serious consideration has been given, however, to continuous rationale development. Many of the tenets that seemed adequate in the initial and developmental stages of outdoor education and school camping are still revered and spoken of as if they constitute

a finality for all that takes place in the name of outdoor education. In attempting to explain the outdoor education philosophy through school camping there has been a tendency to rely on emotional appeal. To the extent that this kind of position has been interpreted as a defensive posture, it has detracted from that which is basically sound in outdoor learning experiences.

Such effort as has been made in theory or rationale building has primarily taken the form of amplification and interpretation of early experimentalist-pragmatic thought. The growing body of new knowledge in the social sciences, as well as in education, has never been thoroughly utilized in continuous refinement of the basis which underlies outdoor education. Furthermore, the processes through which outdoor education becomes an accepted, integral part of the curriculum have been largely ignored except for widely scattered incidents. Such incidents have usually been reported through means of descriptive "how we did it" type accounts. No research studies have ever dealt directly with this vital topic of curriculum development processes applied to outdoor education.

The basis for outdoor education which was expounded by a few pioneers, and which focused primarily on concepts of school camping, still remains a dominant factor in current

thought. The fact that a broader application has been sought in recent years may have compounded any errors which existed in the conceptual foundation, or which appear to exist today in light of current conditions and new knowledge. The need for a coherent and sound basis for outdoor education in the schools seems warranted in light of possible weaknesses in the conceptual foundation. The realization that continuous rationale building is necessary to meet changing needs and demands provided the motivation for defining of the problem as previously stated.

III. STATEMENT OF SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS

- A. The concept examined is that of outdoor education as it is related to the public schools, although there may be implications that go beyond public education.
- B. The study is set within the time span of the lives and contributions of Lloyd B. Sharp and Julian W. Smith, concentrating mainly on their professional careers from 1930 to 1963.
- C. In examining the outdoor education movement, socio-cultural forces were not treated directly. The impact of such forces constitutes another study within itself.

- D. Rationale development as used in this study has the built-in limitation of relying on the perceptions and judgments of the writer in selecting and interpreting elements.
- E. This study seeks to provide guidelines, to indicate directions, to offer suggestions, and to document historical events. In this sense it is theoretical and no attempt is being made to test rigorously or measure phenomena for predictive purposes.

IV. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE PROBLEM

Some possible outcomes resulting from this study are that it may:

- A. Provide a guide for establishing priorities in outdoor education practices and programs.
- B. Promote understanding and cooperation among outdoor educators from various orientations as well as between outdoor educators and those persons in other areas of education.
- C. Help to indicate new directions for outdoor education and give impetus to further growth of present programs.
- D. Provide a means for aiding in the identification

and resolution of basic issues in outdoor education.

- E. Provide a pattern for continuous examination and evaluation of the basic tenets of outdoor education.
- F. Provide an account and interpretation of some of the historical developments in outdoor education.
- G. Provide a guide for, and indicate direction in, further research efforts in outdoor education.
- H. Provide a stimulus for other individuals and groups to seek higher levels of consistency in their awareness of the potentials and limitations of outdoor education.

V. ASSUMPTIONS

- A. Outdoor education is a significant and useful concept in American life and especially in programs and practices of the schools.
- B. Principles of curriculum development are applicable in the development of outdoor education programs and practices.
- C. The degree of success or failure of any movement in education is dependent in part on the soundness of the basic tenets which support it.

- D. Developing a rationale is one method of providing a basis through which individuals may gain insight into, and understanding of, the concept of outdoor education and thereby more discriminately judge its values and limitations for public education.
- E. In the process of developing a rationale the writer makes every effort to bring to conscious awareness his own biases and subjective feelings and acknowledges these factors in seeking a consistently high degree of respectability of work.

VI. METHODOLOGY AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This study may best be classified as a historical-developmental type of research. The general procedure included historical documentation, analysis, synthesis, and inductive reasoning in developing and interpreting a consistent set of statements that could serve as a rationale for outdoor education. Library research was used in documenting pertinent portions of the beginning, growth, and present status of the outdoor education movement, supplemented by personal interviews and correspondence with key individuals. Throughout the study, and especially in dealing with the synthesis of issues, implications, and interpretations, a research method that could be termed philosophical was

employed. For the purpose of developmental research as used in this study, philosophical was used to mean projection through rational means, employing accumulated evidence of past experience.

This study seeks to reflect a reasonable and sensible foundation for outdoor education. The idea that rationale development could result from a historical-developmental study came from inquiry into theory construction. In resolving some of the practical problems in outdoor education it seemed helpful to examine its conceptual framework through a process of formal logic. After examining this process and its potential outcomes, however, it was felt that such a narrow quest for authentic doctrine could not account for a more inclusive consideration of the human situation. What was needed was an approach which would reflect a broad scope of elements including an emphasis on human experience and interaction. In this way, the interdependence of theory and practice could be recognized as resulting from what people do as well as what they think, and subjective values and commitments could be more openly acknowledged as factors affecting the development of a basis. Awareness of personal judgments involved in a logical presentation of elements of a rationale could lessen the tendency to present an emotional justification for outdoor education. A rationale could

reflect sound educational thinking that may serve as a framework out of which significant programs might emerge.

Since reality is a function of the individual's own perception, it becomes the intent of this study to be as much concerned with how facts appear to the individual as with what appear to be objective facts. This perceptual orientation seemed to be congruent with a rationale development process. It necessitated approaching the study in terms of "reasonable and sensible" as viewed through the awarenesses and experiences of the writer.

The elements that constitute the rationale are recognized as being complex, interrelated units that together form a foundation for outdoor education. They were derived from theories and principles and can be used for guiding and directing action. Here the action proposed takes the form of programs and practices in outdoor education. Summarized briefly this may be stated as: The elements of a rationale are a basis for developing programs and practices in outdoor education. The conceptual framework is expressed in Figure 1 on page 17.

VII. DEFINITION OF TERMS

The terms used in this study fall into two categories: (1) those concerned with the conceptual framework, and

(2) those concerned more directly with the subject.

Terms Used in the Conceptual Framework

Rationale is an intelligible explanation of underlying reasons that account for something. In this study, a rationale for outdoor education is an explanation of fundamental reasons for outdoor education being an integral part of the public school curriculum.

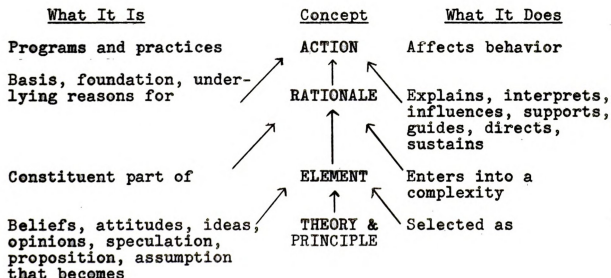


FIGURE 1

A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE STUDY

Element, as used in this study, refers to one of the constituent parts of the rationale, and is defined as one of the simplest units into which the rationale can be analyzed.

Theory is a more or less plausible or scientifically acceptable general principle; the analysis of a set of facts in their ideal relation to one another.

Principles refer to those ideas, opinions, or beliefs that are based on scientific fact and/or experience.

Action refers to the overt act of carrying out in practice that which is set forth in principle. Programs and practices reflecting the outdoor education concept constitute action as used in this study.

Defining Outdoor Education

"Outdoor education" has various connotations depending on the orientation of the reader. It may already be surmised from previous sections of this chapter that determining the meaning of outdoor education is one of the unresolved problems within the outdoor education movement. With changes in the movement, outdoor education, as a term, has also changed.

The definition as used in this study and stated below was derived from an analysis of previous statements by other writers. These statements are more fully explored in other chapters as the problem of definition is dealt with. The definition that follows is also elaborated upon later, but for the present purposes it only need be mentioned that a broad interpretation is being made rather than one representing a specific group, field, or subject matter area:

Outdoor education is the effective use of the outdoors ✓
as an integral part of the school curriculum.

Concept, as used in the term "outdoor education concept", includes all that is characteristically associated with, or suggested by, ideas that reflect or promote concrete action in outdoor programs and practices.

Movement, as used in the term "outdoor education movement", refers to the connected and long continued series of events that are associated with the goals of outdoor education. All that is carried out in the name of outdoor education is a part of the movement.

Other Terms Defined

School camping is an aspect of general education ✓
involving learning experiences that can best be achieved through a twenty-four hour group living situation in a camp-like setting. School camping is considered to be one phase of outdoor education. The terms "resident outdoor education" and "outdoor-school program" are synonymous with school camping.

Curriculum in this study refers to all of those experiences for which the school assumes responsibility.

Curriculum development is defined as any attempt to improve the present experience of those involved in education. The terms "curriculum improvement" and "curriculum change"

are used synonymously with curriculum development.

VIII. ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

In Chapter I, the problem has been presented along with those factors necessary as an orientation to the study. Chapter II provides a review of studies that are pertinent to the present basis for outdoor education. Interpretation and analysis of the historical development of the present basis is presented in Chapter III. Chapter IV is concerned with the development of a current rationale and its implications for programs and practices in outdoor education. A summary of the findings, and conclusions and recommendations constitute Chapter V.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED STUDIES

Historically, as outdoor education programs were initiated and expanded, the ideas and concepts supporting and defining the movement developed from several sources or points of view. The outdoor education movement, as it is known today, was at first not easily recognizable as "outdoor education" per se, but resulted from the work of people in such fields as camping, education, recreation, physical education, social welfare, natural science, and conservation.

Within the social and cultural setting of America in the late nineteen twenties and the nineteen thirties, the inception and development of a school camping movement took place. This was the primary form that outdoor education took at that time and was largely due to a recognition of the educational implications of summer camping programs. Thus, in the literature, some of the early studies from which a present basis for outdoor education evolved were concerned with the values of the summer camping experience. These early studies reflected an effort being made toward experimentation with camping in public education.

Later, studies were devoted directly to school camping and several texts on school camping were published

during the nineteen fifties. An attempt was underway to define the unique role of camping in public education as well as within the professional field of camping. The outdoor education concept at that time was more or less dormant while school camping¹ seemed to be gaining recognition and impetus. Some research studies viewed these terms as synonymous and used them interchangeably. There were, however, persons attempting to broaden the outdoor education concept to make it more encompassing. They contended that outdoor education included all educational activities that utilized the natural setting in the out-of-doors, including not only camping, but field trips, forestry and gardening activities, and the use of the school grounds for instruction, projects, and problem solving in many areas of study. This effort toward a broader interpretation gained prominence in more recent writings and research studies.

Because the present basis for outdoor education seemed so clearly related to concepts in school camping and its camping origins, studies in these areas were thought to be most pertinent to the present study. There have been studies in areas other than camping that have had an impact on the movement, but these were considered secondary in

¹Outdoor education was the term used primarily to describe the program carried on in a school camp setting.

light of the orientation of the two main exponents of outdoor education, L. B. Sharp and Julian W. Smith.

Along with research studies reported during the period included in this investigation, there was other relevant literature in the form of texts, articles, pamphlets, and newsletters. These, too, played an important role in determining the basis for outdoor education.

In this chapter, research related to the main task of the study, that of rationale development for outdoor education, is reviewed. No attempt is made to cite a vast number of studies from the total body of research in outdoor education. Such reviews have been previously presented in historical accounts, surveys, and status reports.²

The chapter is presented in two parts: (1) early studies in camping as education, and (2) studies in outdoor education and school camping.

I. EARLY STUDIES IN CAMPING AS EDUCATION

The studies reviewed in this section were undertaken prior to and following the depression of the nineteen thirties when there was an upsurge of concern for society and an

²Donald R. Hammerman, "A Historical Analysis of the Socio-Cultural Factors That Influenced the Development of Camping Education," (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania, 1961).

urgent desire to make education the means to a better life for all. Up until this period camping had been valued mainly for its recreational and health benefits. Now the philosophy of progressivism was changing educational goals and practices, and some camping leaders were examining the educational potentials of their own endeavors that were in keeping with the "new times." Attempts were being made to re-define the role of camping and to seek recognition from the progressive elements in education. Many persons during that time were serving in dual roles as educators and professional summer-camp leaders and so the relationship between the school's emerging objectives and those of the camp seemed to be a natural development.

One of the earliest studies to recognize the educational values in camping was that of Elwell at Harvard in 1925.³ Elwell attempted to show the differences between the summer camp that was primarily for amusement and the "School of the Open" that was the organized camp in which the aim was distinctly educational.⁴ He examined a number of factors in society including the school program and then built a

³Alcott F. Elwell, "The Summer Camp: A New Factor in Education," (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1925).

⁴Ibid., p. iv.

philosophical case for the "School of the Open" based on a camping program that fulfilled the objectives of the new social philosophy. His emphasis was on simple natural settings, actual experience, and cooperative group effort.

Arnold sought to determine the educational possibilities of the summer camp through a study of the choice and administration of the activities included in programs of private boys camps.⁵ From replies of camp directors to a questionnaire on camping objectives he formulated aims that were in harmony with a set of objectives for secondary education. He grouped these objectives into four major divisions: moral, physical, mental, and social. Arnold foresaw that the values inherent in the summer camp movement would be taken up by social, religious, and philanthropic organizations as well as by the public schools.⁶ He reported that "the public schools have begun to take an interest in educational possibilities of the summer camp and have established a few experimental camps."⁷

Dimock and Hendry's book, Camping and Character,⁸

⁵J. Shailer Arnold, "The Educational Possibilities of the Summer Camp Program" (unpublished Masters thesis, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, California, 1928).

⁶Ibid., p. 2.

⁷Ibid.

⁸Hedley S. Dimock and Charles E. Hendry, Camping and Character (New York: Association Press, 1929).

was one of the early studies that attempted to give experimental evidence of social and moral values in camping.

Recognizing the demand for reorganizing camping as an educational agency, they responded to the newer currents in educational theory by seeking to evaluate the changes that occur in boys' character traits during a period of summer camping. They used paper and pencil tests, behavior observation records, and a behavior frequency rating scale in appraising changes in attitudes and behavior. The results gave some indication of the ability of one particular camping program to develop certain attitudes and appreciations and, at the same time, contributed to the development of more adequate evaluative instruments. They, too, predicted that the schools would begin to recognize the values of camping:

The next decade will doubtless see schools extending their program through the summer to include the camping experience. Educators will increasingly become aware of the place of the camp in a complete year-long scheme of education.⁹

Included in this investigation were views on educational opportunities in camping and objectives of the summer camp. William H. Kilpatrick, in the foreword, outlined potential contributions of camping within the framework of a

⁹Ibid., p. 335.

broader concept of education that he was helping to popularize. This seemed to reflect a mood of educational experimentalism in which Dimock and Hendry's work was undertaken.

Mason¹⁰ used the concept of elemental wishes proposed by William I. Thomas¹¹ and Kilpatrick's approach to method¹² as a frame of reference for examining the summer camp experience. Through a structured interview technique, he secured the reactions and opinions of campers to the social and moral values of camping, camp leadership, the organization of the program, and the importance and popularity of various activities.¹³

Mason visualized the camp as a "society within itself as well as a fragment of a greater society".¹⁴ The camp could be characterized by the same fundamental phenomena which describes any society--subjected to the same laws, motivated by the same social forces, and controlled by the same social

¹⁰ Bernard S. Mason, "Camping and Education," (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, 1929).

¹¹ Thomas' four elemental wishes of mankind, as reported by Mason, were: new experience, security, recognition, and response.

¹² See Wm. H. Kilpatrick, Foundations of Method (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1925).

¹³ Benard S. Mason, Camping and Education (New York: The McCall Co., 1930).

¹⁴ Ibid., p. 236.

methods".¹⁵ He described the basic characteristic of youth as activity, or the desire for new experience, and pointed out the relationship of this striving for activity to children's interests. He further showed how this relationship could be capatilized on in the camp program. The conclusion he reached was that "any adequate approach to camping problems must rest upon an understanding of camper interests".¹⁶

Mason, a sociologist, won the Redbook Magazine's Camp Literature Prize Award for constructive and creative contribution to the theory and practice of organized camping, and his work was published the following year as Camping and Education. This study represented one of the earliest attempts to apply a sociological point of view to a research project on camping. Mason opposed the interpretation of camping as either recreation or education, and maintained that they were one and the same. He said that:

...the modern educational approach, centering around the element of interest in subject matter, comes very close to being a play approach. The 'educational camp' building its 'curriculum' upon interests becomes a 'recreational camp'. The distinction, it seems to me, is an unnecessary and poorly drawn one.¹⁷

¹⁵Ibid.

¹⁶Ibid.

¹⁷Ibid., p. 8.

L. B. Sharp's dissertation,¹⁸ undertaken at a time when he was involved in the transformation of a welfare camp from a fresh-air farm to an education enterprise, helped to lay out some of the broad aims and principles of educational camping. Sharp, like others, saw a relationship between the goals of education as outlined by Dewey and Kilpatrick and the possibilities inherent in the camp environment. Of the Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education¹⁹ he said, "These apply to the camping program as well as to education in general, and have aided in interpreting the aims and values of camping."²⁰ He sought to apply the "new educational philosophy" in analyzing a program of welfare agency camping and in making application and recommendations to that program during a four year experimental period. Sharp's concern at this point in his career was not for public education, but like many camping

¹⁸ Lloyd B. Sharp, "Education and the Summer Camp, An Experiment," (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1930).

¹⁹ The Cardinal Principles were part of a statement of objectives proposed by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association in 1918.

²⁰ Lloyd B. Sharp, Education and the Summer Camp, An Experiment in Contributions to Education Series, No. 390 (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930).

leaders of the time, he was trying to relate broad educational values to that program with which he was most immediately involved.²¹ Although in this early work Sharp made no reference to public school camping, he did acknowledge that "camping is a series of purposeful, related experiences in real life situations, and is therefore an educational process."²² He further stated that "the aims of education can act as a guide and an aid to the wider and fuller interpretation of camping."²³

Creative Camping,²⁴ published as a text in 1931, was in a sense a study of camping, and was one of many writings that emerged from a group work orientation. Lieberman stated that "the book was planned only as a description of our camp experience and not as a theoretical work."²⁵ But the description and the framework in which it was written helped to interpret more clearly the application of social

²¹Sharp applied his ideas of camping to public education later, and in 1947 an experiment in camping education was conducted at Life Camps which he directed.

²²Sharp, op. cit., p. 36.

²³Ibid.

²⁴Joshua Lieberman, Creative Camping (New York: Association Press, 1931).

²⁵Ibid., p. 232.

idealism to the camping movement. Hence, it is included in this review.

Lieberman was at the time of the study executive director of Pioneer Youth of America, a club and camping organization conducted by leaders in the progressive education and labor movements. William H. Kilpatrick was serving as educational advisor to Pioneer Youth and wrote the foreword to the text. In regard to the organization, he said:

It has built itself consciously and critically upon the best education it could find. When, therefore, it took up camping, it had already a considerable experience based on democracy and education of the 'whole child'. The camp simply brought the all day opportunity for living out its already proved methods and principles.²⁶

Lieberman directed the organization's National Experimental Camp from 1924 to 1929, and he listed the following as out-standing elements of the camp:

1. Co-education
2. Varied religious and national and racial groups
3. Democratically managed
4. Activities based on creative interests, not predetermined
5. Respect for the individual
6. Real responsibility
7. Opportunities for achievement and growth of a sense of personal worth.²⁷

²⁶Ibid., foreword.

²⁷Ibid., p. 234.

A few years following the publication of Creative Camping, Blumenthal's book, Group Work in Camping,²⁸ helped to crystalize the theoretical concepts and refine the application of principles that Lieberman illustrated. The aim of Blumenthal's work was to "examine the nature of groups in camp, how relationships in the group modify camper behavior, and how this group work process may become a constructive educational force in the group setting."²⁹ It was written with the hope that emphasis on the group would point to social process as a significant part of the camp program. Basic philosophical concepts of group work were examined as well as means of application in group functioning, social control, leadership, and the relationship of the individual to the group.

McAuliffe, in 1934, used examples from his own private camp in examining the contributions of summer camp to education.³⁰ His study was written as a running commentary and consisted mainly of opinion based on personal

²⁸Louis H. Blumenthal, Group Work in Camping (New York: The Association Press, 1937). This was first presented as a series of lectures.

²⁹Ibid., p. vii.

³⁰F. Joseph McAuliffe, "The Summer Camp: A Contribution to Education," (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Boston College, Boston, Massachusetts, 1934).

experience and advice to other camp directors. He saw as the aims of summer camping character building, intellectual advancement, and physical development, with character training as the unique educational outcome of camping.³¹

In contrast to McAuliffe's thesis, the study by Ward³² attempted to relate camping directly to the progressive education movement. Perhaps by 1935 there was enough firmament in camping, as well as in progressivism, to seek a stronger bond between the two movements. Ward presented a number of insights into the origin of summer camping and listed the following as contributing factors which prepared the way for camping:

1. Breaking away from conventional life by Thoreau and other lovers of the outdoors who popularized their experiences through writing.
2. Influences toward adventure and outdoor living that came from the Mexican and Civil Wars.
3. Rapid urbanization and industrialization which caused people to seek relief from cramped living and working conditions.
4. Increased wealth and improved transportation.
5. The school calendar which made no provision for summer months.³³

³¹Ibid., pp. 1-2.

³²Carlos W. Ward, Organized Camping and Progressive Education (Nashville, Tennessee: Cullum and Ghertner, 1935).

³³Ibid., pp. 7-8.

He traced the history of summer camping from its early beginnings and documented its growth from an outdoor vacation program to an educational program designed to fill the gap created by the school calendar's lack of provision for summer programs.

Ward recognized the beginnings of organized camping from 1880 to 1900 "as a part of the outdoor recreation movement . . . with no definite educational philosophy, just a vague purpose of a 'better life'."³⁴ He further postulated that summer camping had not sprung from any one source but "from varied ideas, impulses and efforts"³⁵ . . . that increasingly became recognized as an educational force."³⁶ He saw a danger in summer camping becoming academic, highly organized, and formalized as a result of the influences of testing and extrinsic awards in the nineteen twenties, but was assured that some camp directors sensed the importance of change and experimentation. He commented that they:

...came in contact with educators and psychologists who fired them with ideas of the possibilities of changed and less mechanized methods of dealing with boys and girls. They became critical minded and began to study, to experiment, and to evaluate their results. . . . Others caught this spirit of

³⁴Ibid., p. 7.

³⁵Ibid., p. 20.

³⁶Ibid., p. 38.

investigation and inquiry and began searching for ways of transforming the regimented academic camp curricula. A movement of free and unhampered progressive education may result.³⁷

A documented case history of one such experimental camping program comprised a major portion of the book. The approach used in the YMCA camp described was based on cooperative living, camper interests, democratic government and control, and personality enrichment.

Ward recognized as a danger that the new educational direction in camping could become mere verbiage rather than actual practice.

It is difficult to determine to what extent the trend toward a new philosophy of camping has become incorporated in actual practice. In times of transition there is a tendency for the phraseology and philosophy of a progressive movement to get acceptance and to run far ahead of the actual understanding and practice of the procedures.³⁸

In regard to the Progressive Education Association and the Camp Directors Association of America he had this to say:

Are not they destined to a realization that they have enough in common to make it worth while to form some bond of affiliation for the sharing of certain types of experience? Both seem to be seeking similar goals for their patrons and to be finding common

³⁷Ibid., p. 51.

³⁸Ibid., p. 160.

ground in educational methods, techniques and philosophies.³⁹

He acknowledged the fact that "the majority of camp directors have had teaching experience, and many of them are employed as teachers in schools and colleges for the major part of the year."⁴⁰ As for the future that these individuals might have in educational camping, he raised the following questions:

Will education take over camping and thus make the school calendar extend all year? Can public education become sufficiently progressive? Will camping be truly creative or will it become a trailer of educational philosophy?⁴¹

Summary

The early studies in camping as education that were produced during and following a period of depression, unemployment, and business failure were a small part of the awakening in society that looked forward to a brighter future for all. Those persons engaged in camping either full time or part time could not help but be aware of what was happening around them and respond in some way. A few camp

³⁹Ibid., p. 167.

⁴⁰Ibid., p. 169.

⁴¹Ibid.

leaders became swept up in the surging progressivism and responded to the newer social and educational philosophies in theses, dissertations, and texts, as well as in other writings. Although stemming from different backgrounds and interests, their ideas found expression in a common theme: summer camp and its new role in society.

The transition of camping objectives from recreational to educational seemed to occupy much of the effort of the writers of this period. Whether such a transition was similarly taking place in camping practices was difficult to discern, except for the few experimental programs reported. Also, a desire to gain recognition as well as direction from progressive education was a paramount interest of the times. Dimock and Hendry, whose work helped pave the way for others, warned that:

If the summer camp is to be a significant factor in progressive education, it is essential that its purposes be carefully re-examined and its objectives formulated more definitely and specifically.⁴²

This was the challenge that was being answered by Elwell, Arnold, McAuliffe, and Guggenheimer from a background of private camping experience. Mason's sociological orientation added another perspective of the nature of the camp

⁴²Dimock and Hendry, op. cit., p. 15.

society and was followed later by the group-work point of view of Lieberman and Blumenthal. A study by Osborne, closely related to these, was also completed during this period⁴³ and published in 1937 as Camping and Guidance.

Ward's text describing an agency camp's transition was noteworthy in its detailed description of the historical background of camping and the social and cultural setting in which it arose. Sharp's work in social welfare camping presented still another orientation. His study was particularly significant because of the importance attached to his continued role in outdoor education up to the time of his death in 1963.

The work carried on during this early period laid a foundation for studies in school camping that followed during the nineteen forties and fifties. Pertinent studies from that period will be reviewed in the following section.

II. STUDIES IN OUTDOOR EDUCATION AND SCHOOL CAMPING

Following the period of initial experimentation in educational summer camping, school camping began to gain

⁴³Ernest G. Osborne, "The Individualization of Large Group Camping," (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Teacher's College, Columbia University, New York City, 1936).

prominence. The studies concerning school camping were varied in nature; some preceded or were in conjunction with ongoing programs, while others were more philosophical. Still other studies evaluated actual programs and practices, and presented objective evidence, while some dealt with administrative and organizational problems. Many studies offered general proposals for implementing school camping or specific proposals for particular programs and communities. In 1961, Hammerman listed sixty-two completed theses and dissertations in school camping under the following six categories:

1. Values of School Camping
2. Administration and Organization of School Camping
3. Evaluative Studies
4. Proposals for Implementing Outdoor Education
5. Leadership Training and Teacher Preparation
6. General Studies⁴⁴

Several studies in school camping dealt with values, aims, objectives, and outcomes either totally or in part. Some were devoted almost entirely to a discourse intended to justify camping in the school program, while others accounted for the historical and philosophical basis of school camping in introductory chapters as a corollary of particular problems. In one sense, all of the school camping

⁴⁴Hammerman, loc. cit.

studies comprised a body of knowledge that helped form the present basis for outdoor education.⁴⁵ However, the task here was to review only the most pertinent studies available.

McKnight analyzed social, economic, cultural, psychological and educational factors, and trends in American living in order to indicate the need for school camping experiences.⁴⁶ She envisioned that such experiences would help prepare youth for the changes in modern living and contribute toward the growth and development of the individual child. She said that:

The emphasis throughout this study is mainly upon the possibilities of program development based on the best known educational concepts as they relate to educational camping, and upon the values which such a program may offer to the school and the individual.⁴⁷

The "best known educational concepts" that McKnight referred to were Thorndike's laws of learning and Kilpatrick's

⁴⁵Titles of studies are listed in: Bibliography of School Camping and Outdoor Education (Martinsville, Indiana: American Camping Association, 1962); and, "A Bibliography of Theses and Dissertation," (prepared for the Outdoor Education Project of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, May, 1962). (Mimeographed.)

⁴⁶Martha E. McKnight, "Contributions and Potentials of School Camping," (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 1952).

⁴⁷Ibid., pp. 9-10.

theme of learning through living. She presented arguments for school camping based on these sometimes conflicting orientations and illustrated how educational camping could become a part of the school curriculum. She emphasized the importance of the time factor in learning, the place of guidance, and the importance of clear objectives and definite direction. She also presented some basic considerations for the development of school camping programs, but they were primarily concerned with administrative arrangements.

McKnight's study, although not so labeled, constitutes a basis for school camping. It is therefore helpful in analyzing the historical relationship between outdoor education and school camping.

Hammerman saw a need for more extensive analysis of the socio-cultural forces influencing the development of camping education.⁴⁸ His study documented the rise and development of school camping and revealed transitional patterns and significant trends that led to its current status in education. Important conclusions based on the historical data gathered in this study follow:

1. The emergence of school camping as an integral part of American public education was socio-cultural in origin. Philosophical, social,

⁴⁸Hammerman, loc. cit.

- political and economic influences were instrumental in shaping the development of camping education.
2. Camping education was an expression of the pragmatic or experimentalist influences on education. It was an outgrowth of the broadened objectives of education, and the expanded function of the American public school.
 3. School camping developed as an extra-curricular innovation during the decade of the nineteen thirties. It became an integral part of many school curriculums during the Experimental Period of the nineteen forties.
 4. During the nineteen fifties school camping showed some tendency to become regimented, standardized, highly organized....⁴⁹

He recognized three important periods in the development of camping education that roughly corresponded to the decades of the thirties, forties and fifties. He named these the periods of Inception, Experimentation, and Standardization and described the characteristics and trends of each period.

Hammerman visualized camping education as a supplement to the curriculum and maintained that "the school camp conceived as an extension of the school facility whose purposes and aims are in keeping with the aims of education can be justified."⁵⁰

Moore was one of the first investigators to attempt

⁴⁹Ibid., p. 176.

⁵⁰Ibid., p. 178.

an objective appraisal of a school camping program.⁵¹ In examining a camp experiment during the summers of 1939 to 1942 she sought to measure improvements in the mental level, skills and knowledge, and social habits of the campers. The criteria she used for rating responses made by campers, parents, school agencies, counselors, and social workers were based on the Seven Cardinal Principles of Education. Results indicated by her measurements showed that large gains were made in many skills and understandings related to outdoor living. Positive changes also were made in undesirable social and personal habits and in health and eating habits.

As an early effort to objectify results rather than to rely solely on subjective judgment, Moore's study provided a response to the demand for justification of school camping at a time when experimentation was just getting underway.

Four years after Moore's study another similar but more extensive study was made in the New York City schools under the direction of L. B. Sharp.⁵² The Board of Education

⁵¹Harriet B. Moore, "A Plan for the Organization of Camps as an Integral Part of the Public School System of the City of New York," (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 1943).

⁵²New York City Board of Education, Extending Education Through Camping (New York: Life Camps, Inc., 1948).

in cooperation with Life Camps⁵³ undertook a controlled experiment to determine whether camping was an effective means for meeting educational objectives. The educational objectives used as a basis for the study were taken from those adopted by the New York City schools and listed under the following headings: (1) Character, (2) Our American Heritage, (3) Health, (4) Exploration, (5) Thinking, (6) Knowledge and Skills, (7) Appreciation and Expression, (8) Social Relationships, (9) Economic Relationships.⁵⁴

Two classes totalling sixty-two children attended camp for three weeks during the school term while two control groups remained in the classrooms and continued their regular program. Objective, semi-objective, and clinical data were gathered using a number of appraisal techniques. These included direct observations, interviews, paper and pencil tests, opinion surveys, interest inventories, and sociometric tests. In regard to the objective test results, the study concluded that there were indications of "initial and final superiority of the experimental group, with many of the differences in their favor being statistically significant."⁵⁵

⁵³Life Camps was a non-profit organization for which L. B. Sharp served as executive director.

⁵⁴New York City Board of Education, op. cit., pp. 47-53.

⁵⁵Ibid., p. 62.

However, positive conclusions are most marked in the semi-objective or clinical findings, mainly from the observations of the campers and individual interviews. These conclusions are supported by the opinions of the parents and educators.⁵⁶

A final general conclusion offered in light of the limitations of the study stated that "the implications from the data are that the experimental groups benefited to an extent not possible in the usual school-in-schoolhouse program."⁵⁷ It was emphasized, however, that further research and evaluation were needed to substantiate any positive results obtained from the data on the sample population used in the study.

Extending Education Through Camping, because of its timeliness and extensiveness, gave support and encouragement to educational camping endeavors. It further emphasized the values of resident experiences thus idealizing school camping as the "greater good" in a continuum of outdoor activities.

Irwin's study,⁵⁸ later published as The Theory of Camping, reported his experience in private and agency camps. It provided a background for examining the educational

⁵⁶Ibid., p. 100.

⁵⁷Ibid., pp. 100-101.

⁵⁸Frank L. Irwin, "Camping Education--Outline for College Course in Camping Education," (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, New York University, New York, 1948).

aspects of the summer camp, drawing together camping and educational materials to point out the educational nature of camping.⁵⁹ The book, a more refined version of earlier studies in camping as education, typically illustrated the "camping point of view" of school camping as opposed to a view more directly resulting from public education orientation and experience.⁶⁰ This distinction is perhaps most readily recognized in program development where, on the one hand, activities are primarily derived from the immediate setting, and on the other hand a more conscious attempt is made to relate activity to the ongoing program of the classroom. In both instances, however, the overall aims of education stated by the Educational Policies Commission seem to serve as a basic foundation.

Irwin emphasized a kind of outdoor education concept that was identified primarily with the programs in various types of camping. Many references used in developing the study were from L. B. Sharp's writings, and Sharp's ideas were incorporated either directly or implied throughout the chapter on public school camping. The book has been used

⁵⁹Frank L. Irwin, The Theory of Camping (New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1950), p. ix.

⁶⁰See George W. Donaldson, School Camping (New York: Association Press, 1952).

as a guide for summer camp leaders and as a text for camp leadership courses, but it has been used as a reference for school programs as well.

Clarke's descriptive study⁶¹ was published shortly following Irwin's text, thus adding another link in the growing body of school camping literature developed during the nineteen fifties.⁶² His book described the public school camping program of San Diego, giving a detailed account of the history of the program, administration, staff, and curriculum. In addition, an analysis of the values of camping as an extension of public education was presented, along with an appraisal of methods by which these values might be realized. The analysis was based on data obtained through opinion questionnaires given to teachers, pupils, and parents. Recommendations were offered as a guide to other communities contemplating beginning a

⁶¹James M. Clarke, Public School Camping (Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1951).

⁶²See: George W. Donaldson, School Camping (New York: Association Press, 1952); Helen Manley and M. F. Drury, Education Through School Camping (St. Louis: The C. V. Mosby Company, 1952); John W. Gilliland, School Camping, A Frontier of Curriculum Improvement (Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1954); Dorothy L. MacMillan, School Camping and Outdoor Education (Dubuque, Iowa: William G. Brown Co., 1956); and Julian W. Smith and Committee, Outdoor Education for American Youth (Washington, D. C.: American Association of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, 1957).

school camping program.

The San Diego pattern was one unique approach taken in school camping during the formative years of such programs. The description itself offered a kind of practical basis for others to use in developing programs and administrative organization. Camping "in toto" was seen as an educational enterprise and considered an acceptable part of the schools' broadened responsibilities. Clarke said that:

In 1940, organized recreation, organized camping and public education were like three men waiting to be introduced so they could go into business together. The artificial partitions between them had been broken down through the realization that under appropriate circumstances all experience is educational.⁶³

Many forms of camping were recognized as educational experience contributing to the welfare of society during this period. The role of camping in America was then being extended to become a part of public education. In the San Diego approach, an activity curriculum in a group living situation using the natural environment was considered to be a valuable component of education and a responsibility of the community under the leadership of the schools.

A number of studies were conducted to evaluate the

⁶³Clarke, op. cit., pp. 19-20.

effectiveness of school camping programs. Moore's study⁶⁴ in 1943 was one of the first to present objective evidence, and other studies followed seeking to determine results of programs in the areas of knowledge and skills, attitudes and social relationships.

A study similar to Clarke's evaluation was that of Rupff.⁶⁵ In comparing aspirations with achievements of a group of Michigan school camps, he used questionnaires to measure achievement as rated by campers, parents, and teachers. The close similarity between the major purposes of education stated by the Educational Policies Commission and those expressed by camping experts as objectives for camping was used as the basis for developing the instruments. Each questionnaire was designed and constructed on the basis of the four major goals of education with subdivisions under each goal. Clarke's norms were incorporated in the study wherever applicable, and also his format aided in the phrasing of questions.

Rupff acknowledged difficulty in obtaining valid data, possibly because a distinction between camping and educational

⁶⁴Moore, loc. cit.

⁶⁵Paul E. Rupff, "A Comparison of Aspirations with Achievements in a Group of Selected Michigan Public Schools," (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, East Lansing, 1957).

objectives was not clearly made. However, he stated that the broad objectives of education were being achieved to a reasonable degree. Even so, he was still unable to determine the importance of school camping in the school curriculum.

In 1960, Stack conducted a study to determine objectively the outcomes of school camping.⁶⁶ Her study was concerned with attitudes that campers had toward their classmates, school, teachers, school camping, self, and friends. Measurement was made of the changes occurring in the responses of eighty-eight children following a five day period at Clear Lake Camp, Michigan. A battery of objective tests was used along with interviews, case studies, and school records.

Stack stated several conclusions which indicated that the school camping experience resulted in positive social and attitudinal changes. In particular, she noted changes in friendship patterns, rapport between teacher and pupils, attitudes toward school, and interest in relationships regarding school, teacher, camping, and self.

Kranzer completed a study similar in design to

⁶⁶Genevieve C. Stack, "An Evaluation of Attitudinal Outcomes of Fifth and Sixth Grade Students Following a Period of School Camping," (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of Oklahoma, Norman, 1960).

Stack's in 1958 in which he also measured various effects of a five-day school camping experience on sixth graders.⁶⁷ Results from data on experimental and control groups indicated that desirable social and behavioral changes occurred in the experimental group beyond what might have occurred in the classroom.

One other example of an evaluative study was that conducted by Beker.⁶⁸ His research was undertaken to test whether the social and emotional growth of school campers over a given period of time could be shown to exceed that of an otherwise equivalent group of school children who had not had a school camping experience. Results from a battery of tests measuring self-concept, social relationships, and a comparison of social climate in thirteen groups suggested that school camping could have a marked positive impact on children's self-concept and, perhaps, on their social relationships as well. Beker cautioned that the precise nature and depth of this influence and its specific determinants,

⁶⁷Herman C. Kranzer, "Effects of School Camping on Selected Aspects of Pupil Behavior--An Experimental Study," (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles, 1958).

⁶⁸Jerome Beker, "The Relationship Between School Camping Social Climate and Change in Children's Self-Concepts and Patterns of Social Relationship," (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Teacher's College, Columbia University, New York, 1959).

however, remain obscure. Beker's study was exploratory in nature, but it suggested possibilities for further research to determine more exactly the values of school camping.

At a time when school camping was gaining momentum, Rogers saw a need for developing a guide that would define and explain the uses of outdoor education in the schools.⁶⁹ From an analysis of the literature from 1925 to 1954, he developed composite statements of definition, objectives, and principles of outdoor education. These were checked against the judgment of nine experts in outdoor education and school camping. The objectives were said to be consistent with objectives of general education derived from philosophies underlying "modern education". Illustrations of objectives and principles applied in practice were cited from a breadth of resources in the literature. Rogers' analysis resulted in defining outdoor education broadly as "a method of approaching educational objectives through guided, direct, real-life experiences in the out-of-doors, utilizing as learning materials the resources of the natural environment."⁷⁰ He listed twenty-one general objectives and

⁶⁹Martin Rogers, "Principles and Functions of Outdoor Education," (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York, 1955).

⁷⁰Ibid., p. 39.

forty-nine guiding principles.

Rogers' definition of outdoor education as a method, or process, applicable to the "whole child" in an integrated curriculum provided an interpretation that recognized not only school camping but also a broad scope of activities as outdoor education. However, school camping was still seen as the climax or ultimate goal to be sought. He stated that "even though the beginnings may be simple, the ultimate development of the outdoor education program consists of group living in an outdoor camping situation."⁷¹

Rogers' study was completed during a time when the debate on subject matter versus experience curriculum was in vogue. The pragmatic position concerning experience was evident throughout his development of a basis for objectives and principles. Outdoor education's potential contribution to general education was, within the elementary school, a central concern of the study. School camping, though put in the perspective of one aspect of outdoor education, played a major role both in principles formulated (thirteen of forty-nine principles pertained directly to school camping) and in illustrations cited as support for outdoor education principles.

⁷¹Ibid., p. 167.

Summary

Studies in outdoor education and school camping from 1943 through 1961 reviewed in this section indicate a trend away from viewing outdoor education as the process and content incorporated in school camping to a concept of school camping as one phase of outdoor education. Still, school camping played a central role, and most studies as well as texts during this period were directed toward examining camping's contribution to American education. In regard to goals, aims, objectives, and purposes, the statements of the Educational Policies Commission were used as a primary foundation for justifying camping's role in the school program. However, the exact nature of the public school's role and responsibilities in American society was either lightly treated or completely overlooked in the drive to incorporate camping in the curriculum. A professional camping orientation to school camping was presented, and only gradually did the emphasis shift toward a broad school program of outdoor education. The basis for outdoor education, growing out of a camping philosophy, was undergoing a transition.

Reports of the effectiveness of school camping programs, as well as the publication of a number of texts, seemed to have helped keep school camping programs at the

forefront during a period of some twenty years although there was a move underway to broaden the concept of outdoor education as revealed in Rogers' study.

The historical development of a basis for outdoor education cannot be fully visualized through research studies alone. Further presentation and analysis of this development will be made in the following chapter.

CHAPTER III

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF A BASIS FOR OUTDOOR EDUCATION

I. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENTS AND THE CAREERS OF TWO INDIVIDUALS

The studies reviewed in Chapter II provided insight into some of the influences that summer camping had on the origins of school camping and the development of a basis for outdoor education. Those persons involved in school camping looked to many sources for leadership both from within their own groups and from related areas such as conservation and social work. Some individuals were directly involved in formulating basic ideas and concepts, directing programs, and promoting the movement. Others gave indirect support and encouragement. Key spokesmen emerged in time and their contributions were recognized as being highly significant in giving strength and direction to outdoor education. Two such key individuals were Lloyd B. Sharp and Julian W. Smith. They, perhaps more than any other spokesmen, were most instrumental in giving national leadership to outdoor education.

Developments in L. B. Sharp's Career

Lloyd B. Sharp was one of the leaders of the nineteen thirties and forties who gave direction to organized camping.

He was actively involved in the inception of school camping and the training of leaders in camping and outdoor education. He became identified as "the father of the outdoor education movement" and his ideas and principles have been a basis for many outdoor education programs and practices throughout the country.

Sharp's early life and career. Lloyd B. Sharp was born in 1895 in Carbondale, Kansas, the youngest of four children. He grew up on a small farm near the edge of town and had a very warm and close family life. His parents were of pioneer stock who had come from a New Jersey farm with their parents in a covered wagon. His family had to struggle to make a living and his father farmed at various times between having a rural mail route and trying to sell insurance.¹

Sharp was described by close friends as "a creative farm lad who was very cognizant of his environment and who had a built-in awareness of things around him."² He enjoyed hunting rabbit, birds, and ducks as well as fishing and adventuring in the outdoors. He was a good student in

¹Information from Ann Brinley and Thomas J. Rillo, personal interview, June 27, 1964.

²Ibid.

school and quite active in sports, being especially outstanding in football and track. He worked at various part-time jobs during high school and after graduation in 1914 he taught for one year in a rural elementary school.

In the summer of 1915 Sharp enrolled at Kansas State Normal School at Emporia. He graduated with a bachelor of science in education in 1918 and enlisted in the navy that same summer. After serving as an ensign for three years he took a position in Michigan as field representative for the Playground and Recreation Association of America. Taking a leave of absence in February, 1923, he left that position to begin graduate study in physical education at Teachers College, Columbia University. Sharp received his master's degree in February, 1924 and immediately began doctoral study while serving part-time as an instructor in physical education at Teachers College.³

Growing up in mid-western rural America following the turn of the century seems to have had a lasting effect on Sharp's basic values, interests, and outlook on life. Although very little has been published about his early childhood and family life, it seems apparent that he later perceived his early environment as significant in his

³Information from Ann Brinley, letter, July 20, 1964.

professional career. In Camping Magazine he was quoted in reference to his start in camping:

...apparently it began just living on the farm and in the country--fishing, hunting, camping out somewhat like the Indians did.⁴

And in an address to a conference on outdoor teacher education one of his first remarks was:

I really got my Ph.D. on the farm in Kansas, and it took me about four years and a half at Columbia to convince them that I had it. The realism of education is the thing that I learned on the farm...⁵

The period from 1925 to 1952. In 1925, Sharp began a reorganization of the Life Fresh Air Fund. The Fund was organized in 1887 in New York City and its program was part of a welfare movement that sent underprivileged children to the country for summer vacations. Sharp examined the program and its underlying purposes and during a four year period he instituted changes that gave it a broader educational emphasis rather than one limited to health and welfare concerns. The basis for those changes, as well as

⁴Camping Magazine, "News of ACA," 36:7, January, 1964.

⁵Lloyd B. Sharp, "Administrators, Teachers, and the Out-of-Doors," Outdoor Teacher Education (DeKalb, Illinois: Northern Illinois University, 1961), p. 9.

an historical review of fresh-air work in New York City, were included as part of his doctoral field study.⁶

During that same four year period Sharp was working towards a doctoral degree and serving as an instructor in physical education at Teachers College and the Horace Mann School. Also, he was active in the New York City area in organized efforts to improve standards, programs, personnel, and conditions in welfare homes and camps. In 1929, he completed his doctoral program and continued as executive director of Life's Summer Camps on a part-time basis.

During the years at Teachers College, Sharp roomed with a philosophy major who later became a faculty member at Columbia University. He studied under John Dewey, William H. Kilpatrick, Frederick G. Bosner, and Elwell K. Fretwell. Jesse F. Williams, a highly regarded physical educator, served as chairman of his doctoral committee. The time spent in earning advanced degrees in physical education was important in shaping Sharp's future career. His working experiences and his exposure to the philosophies of outstanding educators through close association with faculty members helped to broaden and crystalize his thinking on education and camping. Teachers College had been

⁶ See Chapter II, p. 26.

the first institution to begin educational work with the camping movement in 1920 under the leadership of Fretwell, and Sharp assisted him from 1926 to 1929 in camp-leadership courses.

In the fall of 1929 Sharp became head of physical education in the Laboratory Schools, School of Education, University of Chicago, and remained there through the spring of 1933. He also continued as director of Life's Summer Camps and in 1936 he became full-time executive director as that organization changed its title to Life Camps, Incorporated.

Beginning in 1934, Sharp turned his attention towards the public schools. He conducted an experimental camping program with sixteen New York City drop-outs and examined over fifty school courses of study to determine what subject matter might be acquired by direct experience outside the classroom. In 1935, he presented plans for a school camp project to the New York City Board of Education, but it failed to be carried out.

During the nineteen thirties Life Camps' program expanded so that by 1938 three camps were serving some two hundred and fifty children each summer and a fourth tract of land was being developed in Sussex, New Jersey. Time Magazine reported that:

With stone and timber on the land, Dr. Sharp is building a village, erecting a year-round girls' camp and a center where camp leaders will be trained to spread the Sharp camping plan farther afield.⁷

A member of the New York City Board of Education, Johanna M. Lindlof, who was interested in camping, started a private fund for sending underprivileged children to Life Camps in the summers. This project, which began in 1939, continued for four years and the results were reported in 1943.⁸

In 1940, the New Jersey site was established as National Camp and became a leadership training facility for advanced study in outdoor education. The six-week summer sessions during the nineteen forties drew people from all over the country to acquaint themselves with Sharp's philosophy and to work on individual problems related to their own position or community. The usual procedure for each participant was to define a problem in the first few days, but then to participate directly in outdoor education for three weeks with the aid of Sharp and his staff. The last three weeks were then used primarily for completing

⁷Time, "New Frontier," 32:39, October 17, 1938.

⁸Johanna M. Lindlof Camp Committee for School Children, Adventures in Camping (10 Park Avenue, New York: published by the Committee, 1943).

the problem and turning in a written report.⁹ Credit was available through New York University and other co-operating institutions for those who desired it.

Hundreds of people went through that program and other workshops and clinics at National Camp from 1940 through 1953. Many of them, and others who served as staff members for the children's camps, helped to spread outdoor education widely. Many of the leaders today attribute a good part of their enthusiasm for and interest in, or their start in, outdoor education to the experiences they had with Sharp.

During World War II his activities continued although the camps were short of male staff and some programs had to be curtailed or modified. Following the war years, interest in outdoor education and school camping was renewed and a national conference was held at National Camp in the summer of 1946. The conference was called by Sharp to make an appraisal of the outdoor education movement and to develop guideposts for the future. Some twenty leaders representing colleges, government departments, youth organizations, and school systems studied the program of Life Camps and the

⁹Volumes of National Camp Problems from 1940 through 1953 are bound and kept at the office of the Outdoor Education Association, Inc., in Carbondale, Illinois.

leadership training program. Under the general chairmanship of Walter D. Cocking, editor of The School Executive, the group divided into three working committees to discuss basic issues. The reports from the committees dealt with the place of camping and outdoor education in American education and teacher education, and the development of public support.¹⁰

In 1947, Sharp's philosophy was the basis for an experimental project at Life Camp involving the New York City public schools.

Two classes, a fifth and seventh grade, were selected for the experiment to be conducted for one month in a camp setting. A control group was set up with a corresponding fifth and seventh grade in the city. The research technique was the matched pairs. Both groups were evaluated according to standard school achievement tests in many subject areas, both before and after the experiment.... The test results favored the experimental camp group with the measurements showing a significant gain over those who stayed in school.¹¹

The details of that experiment, along with a summary of

¹⁰ Walter D. Cocking, "How the Basic Issues in Outdoor Education Were Developed," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, 31:107-108, May, 1947.

¹¹ Lloyd B. Sharp, an address presented at the National Convention of the American Association of School Administrators, Atlantic City, New Jersey, February 19, 1963.

results and recommendations, were published in 1948.¹²

Sharp's focus during the nineteen forties was on camping, but toward the end of that period he and others were thinking about moving to a broader program in order to service all educational agencies and to carry out in practice the ideals that he held. At the suggestion of friends, the idea of a private, non-profit organization devoted to his philosophy developed in 1950. "Sharp was convinced that he couldn't stay just with the underprivileged groups".¹³ In 1951 with the help of friends, he established the Outdoor Education Association and by 1953 the corporate seal was signed.

Immediately prior to that period Life Magazine changed ownership and its new publishers were not interested in supporting Sharp's broadened program and interests. When financial support was about to be withdrawn, Jay B. Nash, Head of the Department of Physical Education and Recreation at New York University, made Ernest O. Melby, dean of the College of Education, aware of the situation. Melby had been a sympathetic supporter of outdoor education, and Nash

¹²New York City Board of Education, Extending Education Through Camping (New York: Life Camps, Incorporated, 1948).

¹³Information from Ann Brinley, personal interview, June 27, 1964.

sought to have Sharp join the staff of his department. Melby agreed and proposed that Life continue to subsidize the program over a ten-year period. Sharp, however, was only interested in a separate department responsible to the administration and not under physical education and recreation. Nash's program and philosophy were not in harmony with Sharp's ideas and Sharp "didn't want to lose his identity or compromise. He was beginning a national organization and didn't want to be swallowed up by a large university."¹⁴

With the loss of support from Life and with the arrangement at New York University unthinkable, Sharp was at a low point as he began the Outdoor Education Association through voluntary contributions, camp fees, and field services. The following year, however, brought new promise when he moved the program to Matamoras, Pennsylvania, to continue his mission of extending the benefits of learning in the out-of-doors. By 1951 outdoor education and school camping had gained noticeable recognition as a movement in public education, and Sharp's name was synonymous with it.

Sharp's early writings. Articles and other publications written by Sharp during the period when he served as director of Life Camps provide a source of ideas and concepts

¹⁴Ibid.

for analysis in determining the basis of outdoor education. A chronological survey of his writings indicates not only the many avenues through which his message was presented, but also affords an opportunity to examine growth, refinement, and change.

The field study written in 1929, as a part of doctoral work, provides a beginning point in examining early writings of Sharp. It appeared as a part of the Contributions to Education Series.¹⁵

Sharp's work with Life's fresh air program began in 1925 and provided a laboratory through which his ideas were tried and tested in practice. The study was in itself a report of change and development in Life's Fresh Air Program in which Sharp, as director, instituted and carried out revisions using an educational orientation as a basis for replacing a fresh-air farm relief program with camping.

The prime thesis asserted by Sharp was that camping should be viewed as an educational endeavor and should be based on educational principles.¹⁶ Thus, instead of, a program of relief work at fresh air farms, Life Camps became

¹⁵Lloyd B. Sharp, Education and the Summer Camp, An Experiment (in Contributions to Education Series, No. 390, New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930).

¹⁶Ibid., p. 2.

embodied with a framework that provided aims, objectives, and methods adapted from the progressive elements in education. Sharp looked to such men as Dewey, Kilpatrick, Bosner, McMurrery, and Williams for inspiration and guidelines. He stated that "the fundamental processes of learning go on in activities of the camp as they do in those of the school elsewhere."¹⁷ "It was logical to turn to the field of education and take advantage of its experience in curriculum making."¹⁸ The modification of McMurrery's principles of curriculum making served as a guide in developing the camp activity program.¹⁹ Also, principles adapted from Teachers College's Lincoln School were used in selecting and judging the activity program since much criteria were applicable for a camp-project type program similar to the "unit of work" concept employed at Lincoln School.²⁰

Viewing the camp as a favorable learning situation for accomplishing educational aims, Sharp was able to conduct a program for implementing the broadened objectives of education that he recognized. His concerns were with real life situations, interests and needs of children, democratic processes, self-reliance, social interaction, intrinsic

¹⁷Ibid., p. 40.

¹⁸Ibid.

¹⁹Ibid.

²⁰Ibid., p. 41.

motivation, total growth of the child, and the knowledge and appreciation of the outdoors as a way of life. His definition of camping as a series of purposeful related experiences in real life situations,²¹ and his adaptation of educational objectives and principles to complement that definition represented a significant early effort to identify the camp setting as a place for worthwhile learning experiences.

In 1933 Sharp wrote an article for Progressive Education in which he presented portions of his doctoral study.²² He emphasized the importance of intrinsic motivation, individual differences, and projects based on needs and wants of campers in building a camp program. He repeated verbatim from his study the list of principles for selecting activities and the considerations which make camping a desirable learning situation. Thus Sharp made available through a professional educational journal the philosophy which had guided his early work at Life Camps.

Also in 1933 Sharp wrote on the need for recreation during the period of depression.²³ He pointed out the

²¹Ibid., p. 36.

²²Lloyd B. Sharp, "Some Educational Considerations of a Camp Program," Progressive Education, 10:260-262, May, 1933.

²³Lloyd B. Sharp, "Need for Recreation in Times of Depression," Recreation, 27:193-195, July, 1933.

necessity for adapting family recreation patterns to the depressed times and elaborated on the values of recreational activities. Suggestions were offered for simple types of activities that could be carried on by families with little expense, including camping and other outdoor pursuits.

Two articles which appeared in March, 1935, indicated that Sharp was becoming more aware of the potential of camping programs under the sponsorship of the schools. In Clearing House he called for a community centered school which would meet the recreational needs of people.²⁴ As a part of a proposal for using the schools as recreational centers, and for schools assuming a leadership role in recreation, he recommended that:

Camping activities should be made a part of the regular school program. There is much of educational value in the camp which the school should utilize. Every school center should have its camps. These camps could operate the year round. The school program could be arranged on some stagger plan so that the school buildings and the camps, and the other facilities, would be in use at all times.²⁵

For The Camping Magazine Sharp elaborated on the role of public school camps and outlined ways of incorporating

²⁴Lloyd B. Sharp, "Health and Physical Education in a Community Centered School," Clearing House, 9:407-409, March, 1935.

²⁵Ibid., p. 409.

camping into the school program.²⁶ In that article Sharp presented to his fellow professional campers a hope for the future of camping in public education based on a philosophy and understanding of progressive education. By 1935 he had already experimented at Life Camp with sixteen "problem boys" from the New York City Schools. He felt that camping principles could be employed under the auspices of the schools for all children as well as with special groups.

Sharp expressed the need for integrating camping with the total school program so that it could make a unique contribution through a "totally different approach to and procedure in the education of the child."²⁷ He recommended that a careful and thorough analysis be made of the contributions that camping makes to children and how these are brought about. He believed that the values to be gained from such an experience must be arranged according to various levels of learning to match those of the school. It would also be necessary to study the curriculum of the schools at the various levels and fit their values into the life and activities of the camp.²⁸

²⁶Lloyd B. Sharp, "The Public School Camp," The Camping Magazine, 7:6-8, March, 1935.

²⁷Ibid., p. 6.

²⁸Ibid., p. 7.

Sharp interpreted the "experience method" as living.

It is life itself, and not merely preparation for life... One has to see and feel, and become a part of a happening in order to understand its full significance. When personality changes take place as a result of one or more desirable experiences, we call this education. Camping, therefore, represents more completely than anything I know this Experience Method of learning.²⁹

He concluded with some educational considerations based on sections of his doctoral study, emphasizing the nature of camping as a way of living in a real life situation and the values that might be derived from a camping experience.

In an address delivered to the 17th Annual Convention of the American Camping Association in January, 1940, Sharp explored the issue of highly centralized and specialized camping programs versus decentralized, small living group programs.³⁰ Defending decentralized camping with "camp-tivity procedures", a term he coined, he pointed out the values of the methods employed at Life Camps. One important concept mentioned concerned the source of camp programs.

A study of the struggles and living conditions of our early settlers gives us a basis for our camping program. They lived a life of daring and

²⁹ Ibid., pp. 7-8.

³⁰ Lloyd B. Sharp, "Give Camping Back to the Campers," The Camping Magazine, 12:5-7 and 21-22, March, 1940.

adventure. They were on their own as individuals and families. Out of their pattern of living was created our concept and form of democracy. It might be said that camping and democracy started together in this country.³¹

Sharp felt that decentralized camping resulted in a better implementation of democracy.

Sharp and Osborne reviewed school camping developments in 1940, for Progressive Education.³² They pointed out that more had been written about concern for the whole child and the providing of a continuum of experiences than had been carried out in practice. Examples of broadened curricula through camping experiences were cited and questions were raised concerning the future development of school camps:

How can the experiences of camps and of schools become more unified? Are there experiences possible in the camp which would be difficult to secure even in the school which is progressive and informal? Who should be the counselors in a camp run by the school--the teachers, or an entirely different group?³³

In "Growth of the Modern Camping Movement", Sharp

³¹Ibid., p. 6.

³²Lloyd B. Sharp and Ernest G. Osborne, "Schools and Camping," Progressive Education, 17:236-241, April, 1940.

³³Ibid., p. 239.

clarified and expanded some of his previous philosophical statements.³⁴ Camping as a way of life "refers to the broader conception of life or to a way of living and therefore relates to the way people lived and live close to nature in the open."³⁵ The way Indians, explorers, trappers, traders, and settlers lived showed that shelter, food, self-occupation, spiritual influence, group living, and community effort were basic elements in the development of this country.³⁶ Sharp maintained that these basic elements were as fundamental and necessary to present day living as they ever were, and that there was a better opportunity to experience them in a favorable camp situation.

In 1942 Sharp was called upon to relate the role of camping to the American heritage in a special issue of Camping Magazine.³⁷ He stressed the values gained from pioneer experiences in developing a deep understanding and appreciation of this land and the history of the people

³⁴Lloyd B. Sharp, "Growth of the Modern Camping Movement," The Commonwealth, 28:4-6, Jan.-Feb.-Mar., 1941.

³⁵Ibid., p. 4.

³⁶Ibid.

³⁷Lloyd B. Sharp, "The Role of Camping and Our American Heritage," Camping Magazine, 14:33-36 and 56-57, February, 1942.

who settled it. He described how, with moderation, Life Camps provided such direct experiences through living and exploring in the outdoors. In referring to the need for camping for all children, he emphasized the role of camping as an integral part of the school program. He said:

The school program is mostly indoors, studying about things. Camping education is primarily an outdoor program, working with things. That which ought and can best be learned in the classroom should there be taught, and that which can best be learned outside in direct contact with life situations and materials should there be learned through experience.³⁸

This appeared to be his first use of the phrase "camping education", and also the first time he expressed concisely the basis of his philosophy for school camping.

In 1943 Sharp wrote an article specifically directed toward the schools.³⁹ Analyzing the changes in society brought on by World War II and the needs of an urban population, he visualized curriculum changes and administrative leadership that would inaugurate a more realistic school program and provide more outdoor experiences in the schools. The community school plan was suggested as a proper vehicle

³⁸Ibid., p. 57.

³⁹Lloyd B. Sharp, "Outside the Classroom," The Educational Forum, 7:361-368, May, 1943.



for implementing such changes. Camping education as a part of the outdoor movement was shown to have many educational values and its basic thesis was similar to that expressed in 1942.⁴⁰

School leaders were urged to re-examine their curriculum and decide where would be the best place to learn the things that are educationally worthwhile. It was Sharp's belief that a far greater amount of the school time could be more profitably spent in the out-of-doors.⁴¹

The School Executive provided a medium through which Sharp was able to describe some of his experimental work with school children and with leadership training programs,⁴² and later to restate his basic point of view.⁴³ In the latter article Sharp used the term "outdoor education" in referring to the program of school camping. He emphasized

⁴⁰It is noted that the previous reference to Sharp's basic principle was used in 1942 for suggesting that camping become a part of the school program. This same principle was used to recommend camping education in 1943. In 1949 Sharp stated the principle in referring to outdoor education and camping education. Apparently, Sharp felt that even though the principle first applied to camping per se, it could serve as a basis for other outdoor experiences.

⁴¹Ibid., p. 364.

⁴²Lloyd B. Sharp, "Schools Go Out-of-Doors," The School Executive, 63:24-26, January, 1944.

⁴³Lloyd B. Sharp, "Out-of-Door Education--A Point of View," The School Executive, 64:56-57, February, 1945.

the need for learning through direct experience, the effects of urbanization, and the lack of real work experiences for youth. A plan was presented for developing outdoor education under five phases. First it would be necessary to decide which things could be learned outdoors in the community and in school camps. Then would follow the education of administrators and teachers in the philosophy of outdoor education. The next steps would be to establish a school camp and to start programs of day camping on or near the school grounds. The final phase would be interpreting the program to the public.⁴⁴

In the 1946 yearbook of American School and University, Sharp turned his attention to administrative aspects of outdoor education and camping.⁴⁵ He emphasized the administrator's role in basic planning, designing facilities, securing financial support, and operational procedures. He referred primarily to camping although he indicated that the outdoor program begins right outside the school building with the immediate environment. He stated as a basic principle that:

⁴⁴Ibid., p. 57.

⁴⁵Lloyd B. Sharp, "Basic Planning for Camping and Outdoor Education," American School and University, Yearbook, pp. 192-198, 1946.

The essence of outdoor education means taking the children to the original source of material wherever possible . . . subject matter should be divided on the basis of where it can best be learned--inside or outside.⁴⁶ It has been proved that children learn most through direct experience, learn faster, retain longer, and have a deeper appreciation and understanding of the things they experience.⁴⁷

In the May, 1947, issue of the National Education Association Journal Sharp presented to the educational profession his ideas on camping and outdoor education.⁴⁸ In that same month he and Partridge served as editors for The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals.⁴⁹ The Bulletin contained several articles on camping and outdoor education as well as the proceedings and results of the three day national conference held at National Camp in 1946.

Sharp and Partridge presented some historical backgrounds of camping in which they restated the same basic

⁴⁶Ibid., pp. 192-193.

⁴⁷Ibid., p. 192.

⁴⁸Lloyd B. Sharp, "Camping and Outdoor Education," The Journal of the National Education Association, 36:366-367, May, 1947.

⁴⁹Lloyd B. Sharp and E. DeAlton Partridge, editors, The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, Vol. 31, No. 147, May, 1947.

position that Sharp had previously taken on many occasions.⁵⁰ Noting the changes that had taken place in organized camping as well as in the country following the war, they called for the developing of a life philosophy based on "the ability and disposition to live peaceably with man and nature."⁵¹ They foresaw that the continuity of experience in camping would greatly help in providing such an outlook. Camping education was hailed as perhaps the most promising new development in education and as the direction of the future in the schools.⁵²

In another article in the Bulletin, Sharp stated his basic thesis for school camping, this time worded to apply to outdoor education and camping education.⁵³ On the one hand outdoor education referred to the utilization of the whole environment, while camping education referred to learning that took place in a favorable camp environment. Sharp presented basic considerations for each of these,

⁵⁰Lloyd B. Sharp and E. DeAlton Partridge, "Some Historical Backgrounds of Camping," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, 31: 15-20, May, 1947.

⁵¹Ibid., p. 20.

⁵²Ibid., p. 19.

⁵³Lloyd B. Sharp, "Basic Considerations in Outdoor and Camping Education," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, 31:43, May, 1947.

summarizing "the experience to date as a guide for those who want to make a serious and intelligent attempt to extend education out into the open for American youth."⁵⁴ Outdoor education, consisting of experiences on the school grounds, in parks, on field trips and excursions, and through day camping, seemed to provide a natural lead-up to the more preferred experience of school camping.

In 1948 a research project conducted at Life Camps was completed and the results published.⁵⁵ With the data as "evidence", Sharp seemed more convinced that his position was sound. In The Journal of Educational Sociology he cited the following as a basic reason for justifying outdoor and camping experiences as part of the curriculum:

It has been proven in educational research that we learn most through direct experience, we learn faster, the learnings are retained longer, and the appreciation is greater.⁵⁶

This argument is expressed similarly to the one used in 1946 (see footnote 47) and is found continually in Sharp's

⁵⁴Ibid., p. 38.

⁵⁵New York City Board of Education, Extending Education Through Camping (New York: Life Camps, Incorporated, 1948).

⁵⁶Lloyd B. Sharp, "Why Outdoor and Camping Education?", The Journal of Educational Sociology, 21:31, January, 1948.

writings after this time.

Sharp suggested that "a teacher in any subject matter at any level will find abundant material outside the classroom which can be learned through direct experiences."⁵⁷ He described the nature of the school community camp and gave special emphasis to the role of camping in developing self-reliance and understanding for both youth and teachers.

With the closing of Life Camps in 1951, a phase in Sharp's career was ended. During the time when his emphasis shifted from physical education and recreation to welfare agency camping, and then to camping and outdoor education in the schools, a philosophy was developed and refined. In a period of some twenty five years Sharp became recognized as the outstanding proponent of outdoor education; and his philosophy and ideas expressed in writing became the inspiration and guide for others throughout the country. His interpretation of realism in education through direct experience in the outdoors had been repeated in numerous professional journals.

Sharp's writings often contained objectives, methodology, and program content. Though he referred to educational

⁵⁷ Ibid., p. 315.

research for evidence on learning, he never provided references or sources other than the results of the Life Camps experiment; nor did he ever write for research journals. His style was simple and direct, in language that practitioners could easily understand. While he tended to tailor his presentations with special emphasis on some particular part of his philosophy, the primary message always seemed to come through.

The Outdoor Education Association, Incorporated.

With the same offices that were used for Life Camps in New York City and with a program at Matamoras, Pennsylvania, Sharp continued his efforts in 1951 under the title of The Outdoor Education Association. The Pennsylvania site was already being used for Pole Bridge Camp, a program for older boys. Under the new organization it became a co-educational camp while National Camp for leadership training also operated on the same 750 acres.

In 1953, the association was incorporated and two years later a membership program was inaugurated to help support its work. The activities of the association included:

Promotion of living and learning in the out-of-doors as an integral part of education and organization programs.

Dissemination of information through materials, publications and films.

Training of leaders at National Camp in summer sessions, short institutes, pilot and demonstration projects and workshops.

Research and study of problems and new frontiers in the operation of children's camps and related projects.

Field service and consultant assistance--to communities, agencies, and institutions--on program surveys, plans for camp layout, leadership training programs, and study groups.⁵⁸

For ten years Sharp struggled to keep the organization going with the aid of friends, an advisory board, and financial assistance from memberships, donations, consultant services, and camp fees. He continued as a prominent national figure while directing the only national organization devoted exclusively to the promotion of outdoor education.

In 1959, Sharp was invited to Southern Illinois University as a guest faculty member to teach and lecture, and also to develop plans for an outdoor education center. He stayed on through the 1959-1960 school year and then joined the faculty on a half-time basis while devoting half-time to the Outdoor Education Association. In 1961, the offices of the association were moved to Carbondale, and

⁵⁸The Outdoor Education Association, Inc., Living and Learning in the Out-of-Doors (Carbondale, Illinois: The Association, undated brochure).

the following year equipment was also moved there from Pennsylvania. It was with this arrangement that Sharp carried on until the time of his death in December, 1963.

During the time from the early nineteen fifties to 1963, Sharp's philosophical position remained essentially the same as it had for the previous twenty years. He continued to defend the concept of direct experience as the best kind of learning, although at one time he acknowledged that "there may be some room for debate in the areas where one deals only with ideas and concepts."⁵⁹ He emphasized the values of extended periods of time in the outdoors where teachers and students together explore the interrelatedness of nature. He said that:

Outdoor education forces the issue of integration in the curriculum, to study and experience things in their total relationship--one thing to the other.⁶⁰

Sharp also continued to clarify terminology and interpret outdoor education and school camping in light of changing conditions. Camping, which for so long a time had

⁵⁹Lloyd B. Sharp, "The Place of Outdoor Education in the Education of Children," Education, 73:23, September, 1952.

⁶⁰Lloyd B. Sharp, "What is Outdoor Education?," The School Executive, 71:20-21, August, 1952.

been his main concern, still was prominent in his writings, although he viewed it as only one aspect of outdoor education. In 1952 Sharp stated that "camping stands out at the very peak of outdoor education..."⁶¹, and he went so far as to suggest that "if all of the units of learning that can best be handled out-of-doors were organized around certain fixed periods of school camping, the mounting cost of education could be materially reduced."⁶²

He proposed that camping experiences be added to the curriculum, and felt that such additions benefited children through a sharpening and deepening of all of their learning.⁶³ A few years later he said:

While school camping is not synonymous by definition with outdoor education, it rests on the same premises and is recognized as one of the forerunners in its development. It furnished the laboratory in which testing could be done, processes refined, leadership identified. Experiments were conducted which related camp learnings to the progress of the camper in school.⁶⁴

⁶¹Ibid., p. 25.

⁶²Ibid., p. 22.

⁶³Ibid.

⁶⁴Julian W. Smith, chairman, Outdoor Education for American Youth (Washington, D. C.: American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, 1957). (Introduction by Lloyd B. Sharp).

And in another instance he stated:

There is the belief that school camping and outdoor education are one and the same. However, outdoor education comprises all of that learning at all levels in all areas that can best be acquired through direct experience outside the classroom. Therefore school camping is only one aspect of the larger concept.⁶⁵

Sharp seemed to realize by the latter part of the nineteen fifties that the emphasis on school camping had begun to detract from his main thesis of outdoor education. In many instances outdoor education had come to mean a school camping program involving children at the fifth and sixth grade levels. And too, it was not the kind of camping program that he had once envisioned. "If we could define camping the way I would like to define it and live it, we could use the term, but for all practical purposes, it is not 'camping' that we are promoting".⁶⁶ "From 1958 on, Sharp seemed to have changed quite a bit and was emphasizing utilization of the schoolyard because he had seen failures in school camping programs."⁶⁷ He urged the development of

⁶⁵Lloyd B. Sharp, Outdoor Education Center (Carbondale, Illinois: The Educational Council of 100, Inc., 1961), p. 11.

⁶⁶Lloyd B. Sharp, "Administrators, Teachers and the Out-of-Doors," Outdoor Teacher Education (DeKalb, Illinois: Northern Illinois University, 1960), p. 10.

⁶⁷Information from Thomas B. Goodkind, personal interview, February 20, 1964.

a broader application of outdoor education, including resident experiences, through a study of the curriculum and a reorganization of the total school program.⁵⁸

By 1961, Sharp was attempting to avoid using the word "camping" and stated that he had "always thought of it (school camping) as a resident outdoor education experience arising out of the classroom."⁶⁹ In that same year, at the annual meeting of the association, he said:

We are not concerned with a camping program. It is 'Living and Learning in the Out-of-Doors', that we are concerned with... The whole idea should emanate from the classroom and be carried on by the teacher, basically. Anybody else involved with the program is resource or assistant.⁷⁰

A master plan for the outdoor education program for Southern Illinois' Outdoor Education Center was published in 1961. In it, Sharp envisioned experiences in the outdoors for all grade levels.⁷¹ Sharp explained the nature of the program at the annual meeting, showing how a mobile trailer unit

⁶⁸Lloyd B. Sharp, "Outdoor Education," Illinois Journal of Education, 52:9, October, 1961.

⁶⁹Ibid., p. 8.

⁷⁰Lloyd B. Sharp, "Outdoor Education is Off the Pad," Extending Education, Vol. VI, No. 1 (Carbondale, Illinois: The Outdoor Education Association, Inc., September, 1961).

⁷¹Sharp, op. cit., Outdoor Education Center, pp. 16-21.

which he had experimented with for a number of years could be utilized to give education more mobility.

Along with the need for more mobility, he saw a need for using more land for education. "Land for Learning" was the theme he was working with in 1962 and 1963,⁷² and the Outdoor Education Center was visualized as a pilot demonstration project in which the concept could be tested out in practice. At the time of his death he was involved in this undertaking as well as carrying on several field service commitments.

Sharp was described recently as a man who was carrying the load of five men. Under great pressure he had a heavy work load, almost always putting in sixteen hours a day, seven days a week. He had so much to do to accomplish his mission.⁷³ He was described by Melby as "a peculiar kind of a man, a visionary, a loner, not an 'organization man'; but a person with a sound philosophy and integrated thinking."⁷⁴ The soundness of his ideals has been demonstrated not only in tributes paid him, but also in the

⁷²The Outdoor Education Association, Inc., Land for Learning (Carbondale, Illinois: Southern Illinois University in co-operation with the Association, undated brochure).

⁷³Information from Ann Brinley, personal interview, June 27, 1964.

⁷⁴Information from Ernest O. Melby, personal interview, July 23, 1963.

continuation of the "Land for Learning" project and the emerging development of the Outdoor Education Center by the Association and Southern Illinois University, with the assistance of the Education Council of 100.⁷⁵

Developments in Julian W. Smith's Career

Julian W. Smith has been instrumental in the development of school camping programs and the outdoor education concept. From an active role in Michigan outdoor education, he became prominent on a national level in giving leadership to the outdoor education movement. Hammerman stated that he "probably contributed more to the expression and dissemination of the school camping and outdoor education idea than any other single person."⁷⁶ He has helped to broaden the scope of outdoor education through continuous examination of changes in society and through a broad interpretation of the role and function of the public schools.

Smith's early life and public school career. Julian Smith was born in Leslie, Michigan, in 1901. He was reared

⁷⁵Sharp, Outdoor Education Center, op. cit.

⁷⁶Donald R. Hammerman, "A Historical Analysis of the Socio-Cultural Factors that Influenced the Development of Camping Education," (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania, 1961).

on a twelve-acre fruit and vegetable farm and attended rural school in Barry County, Michigan. His youth was that of a farm boy, helping with the chores and work, and participating with his father in outdoor activities such as fishing, hunting, and trapping.⁷⁷ After graduating from high school he attended normal school and then at the age of nineteen began teaching in a rural school. Two years later he completed work for a life certificate and was appointed principal and coach of the high school at Woodland.

In 1928, after completing an A.B. degree in education at the University of Michigan, Smith became principal of Lakeview High School in Battle Creek. He continued there as principal for fourteen years, in the meantime completing his master's degree in 1936.

In 1940 Lakeview High School was one of three schools that participated in the first year-round school camping program conducted at Clear Lake Camp under the sponsorship of the W. K. Kellogg Foundation. The story of the early developments at Clear Lake Camp and the role that the Kellogg Foundation played in the development of school camping and outdoor education have been well-documented by

⁷⁷Information from Julian W. Smith, personal interview, August 20, 1963.

Smith and others.⁷⁸ Portions of that history will be discussed in other sections of this chapter.

Also during those years at Lakeview, Smith was active in the Michigan High School Athletic Association and served as vice-president of its Representative Council's Executive Committee in 1940 and 1941. It was from this activity that he gained temporary appointment as State Director of Athletics in the Department of Public Instruction the following year.

The period from 1942 to 1955. For three years after leaving Lakeview High School, Smith served as the state director of high school athletics. This period brought him new insights into the Michigan education picture. He had the opportunity to assume a statewide leadership role, coming in contact with many individuals, working with committees, schools, Department of Public Instruction personnel, as well as handling voluminous administrative details and serving as editor of a monthly bulletin.⁷⁹

In 1945 Smith's temporary position ended and he was

⁷⁸ Julian W. Smith, et al., Outdoor Education (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1963).

⁷⁹ Julian W. Smith, "Three Years in Retrospect," Michigan High School Athletic Association Bulletin, 22:4-5, August, 1945.

then appointed director of a new project in the Department of Public Instruction concerned with health, physical education, recreation, school camping, and outdoor education. It was this project that launched Smith more directly into a career of outdoor education.

In August of 1946 the Michigan Department of Public Instruction and the Department of Conservation, in co-operation with the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, joined in an experimental program of camping and outdoor education. The general purpose was to improve the processes of education and the more complete development of the natural resources of the state, with special emphasis on school camping.⁸⁰

This project, under the direction of Smith, continued for seven years during which time great strides were made in Michigan and the impact was felt throughout the country. Some of the activities of the project and its director included: (1) a national conference on community school camping in 1949, (2) materials published and widely distributed, (3) representation and participation at state and national meetings, workshops, institutes, and conferences, (4) an experimental work-learn camp for school drop-outs, (5) a pilot school camping program for high school youth, (6) an outdoor education workshop for teacher education in

⁸⁰ Michigan Department of Public Instruction, Education in Michigan's Out-of-Doors 1946-1953 (Lansing, Michigan: The Department, 1953).

1953, (7) prolific publication in professional journals, and (8) consultant services in school systems, state departments, youth agencies, colleges, and universities throughout the nation.⁸¹

In the summer of 1953 the project was completed. During that spring, Lee J. Thurston stepped down as Superintendent of Public Instruction to accept appointment as Head of the new School of Education, Michigan State College. Smith was asked to join him on the faculty to help carry on the task of leadership training and further promotion of outdoor education. Just before Thurston was to take office he was called to serve as U. S. Commissioner of Education, but died that summer before leaving for Washington. Smith, under a new dean, attempted to move forward with plans previously made, but due to the changes in administration, progress was slow. Even though he was still very active in 1954 on the state and national scene, he was unable to progress wholeheartedly at the college. The following year, however, he began a new phase in his career when the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation initiated an Outdoor Education Project and asked Smith to serve as its director.

⁸¹Ibid.

Smith's early writings. Smith's three years as director of athletics in Michigan ended in the summer of 1945 and the project in the Department of Public Instruction was to commence that fall. In the August, 1945, issue of the Michigan High School Athletic Association Bulletin he devoted attention to the forthcoming project.⁸² It was also in that last issue edited by Smith that some of his first published statements on camping and outdoor education were found. He referred to outdoor education as pertaining to activities that cut across the curriculum when using natural resources. School camping was suggested as a means of providing all children with a camping experience. Camping was said to be "an educational process, built on sound principles...a way of living...made up of life situations."⁸³

Smith suggested that the camp program provided learning experiences and development of children that could not be attained in the classroom. Consequently, he envisioned that a unique program would grow out of an examination of the school curriculum, providing those things that could be better learned in a camping situation. Six general areas of learning experiences in camp were listed and described:

⁸²Smith, op. cit., p. 3.

⁸³Ibid., p. 47.

work experience, health and fitness, social living, training for citizenship, leisure-time activities, and other more specific experiences.⁸⁴

In 1947 Smith, in conjunction with Eugene B. Elliott, Superintendent of Public Instruction, described the nature of the Michigan camping and outdoor education program in a bulletin edited by Sharp and Partridge.⁸⁵ Attention was called to the fact that the DPI project was a co-operative endeavor in outdoor education with special emphasis given to camping and conservation. Several patterns of school camping were described along with outdoor activities at school forests, on school sites, through travel and excursions, in clubs and special activities, and through extended field work and trips.

Smith again described the Michigan pattern in 1948 and gave this simple explanation for using the outdoors, especially the camp site:

The outdoors was once man's school, and his home. It seems only reasonable that the outdoors, filled with real things, surrounded by beauty, fresh air, and sunshine should be used to provide

⁸⁴Ibid., pp. 47-49.

⁸⁵Eugene B. Elliott and Julian W. Smith, "The Michigan Program in Action," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, 31:60-74, May, 1947.

simple and direct learning experience for boys and girls.⁸⁶

He went on to say that:

Outdoor education and camping are not frills to be scalloped around the curriculum. In the woods, fields, and streams children can see, feel, hear; they can even smell and taste. Here reality, with all its vividness, becomes both motivation and method for learning. Here too youth may experience the discipline of living results. Here is real life, with its simplicity and wholesomeness, yet with its shroud of mystery and unexplored realms of truth.⁸⁷

Another opportunity for explaining the Michigan program was provided in The National Elementary Principal in 1949.⁸⁸ Following an account of how camps have been organized and administered, Smith concluded with the following reasons for incorporating camping into the school program:

There, out-of-doors, the children experience reality and learn by doing. It gives them roots in the land, which will be expressed later in the best use of our resources. It offers balance to an age of city dwellers. It may be the only safety valve to modern living.⁸⁹

⁸⁶Julian W. Smith, "Education Goes Camping," The School Executive, 68:45, September, 1948.

⁸⁷Ibid., p. 46.

⁸⁸Julian W. Smith, "An Overview of School Camping in Michigan," The National Elementary Principal, 28:6-10, February, 1949.

⁸⁹Ibid., p. 10.

In that same year Smith interpreted societal changes as further justification for providing children with real and direct experiences in the schools, community, and camp.⁹⁰ Rapid changes from a simple to a more complex society, people removed from the soil, crowded urban living conditions, and mass production were cited as having serious repercussions manifested in a lack of appreciation for resources and emotional strain in modern living. A simple four-step plan for initiating a camping and outdoor education program was offered with the admonition that a willingness and desire to do something were the only prerequisites.⁹¹

By 1950, the "Michigan Story" had been told many times and to many audiences. With the project five years old, Smith gave another concise account of history and progress in Michigan school camping.⁹² On that occasion he acknowledged the contributions of Hugh B. Masters of the Kellogg Foundation in giving leadership to significant concepts and programs of school camping. He presented patterns of camping and outdoor

⁹⁰Julian W. Smith, "Camping and Outdoor Education," The School Executive, 68:60-61, April, 1949.

⁹¹Ibid., p. 61.

⁹²Julian W. Smith, "The Michigan Story of Camping and Outdoor Education," The Journal of Educational Sociology, 25:508-515, May, 1950.

education operations and gave the following optimistic view of the future:

Camping and outdoor education takes youth back to the land where, in the presence of natural resources, the learner finds his place in natural interrelationships. Camping belongs to the whole community school--it is a part of general education. It will grow and find increased support as the public sees the results... The goal for camping and outdoor education in Michigan is for every child to have a week or more of camping as a part of public education.⁹³

Another publication in 1950 provided an elaboration on learning experiences for older youth in camping.⁹⁴

Smith said that:

Some of these learnings grow out of the school curriculum--others are unique because they cannot be achieved successfully in the formal classroom. While campers may take to the woods to obtain specific educational objectives, a multitude of new learning situations arise which have many implications for the classroom.⁹⁵

A detailed listing and description of activities were presented under the following five headings: social living; healthful living; purposeful work activities; recreational living; and outdoor education. Outdoor educa-

⁹³Ibid., p. 515.

⁹⁴Julian W. Smith, Youth Love "Thy Woods and Temples Hills" (Lansing, Michigan: The Michigan Department of Public Instruction, 1950).

⁹⁵Ibid., p. 4.

tion in this instance referred to activities related directly to the school curriculum. Thus, subject matter was related to reality through activities in science, social studies, language communication, mathematics, shop, homemaking, music, art, and dramatics.⁹⁶

Two bulletins dealing with community school camping, edited by Smith, were published by the DPI in 1951.^{97, 98} They offered a more complete and detailed account of the Michigan philosophy, program, and organization of school camping than anything previously written. In Community School Camping emphasis was given to the co-operation and teamwork of many agencies and departments, with schools assuming major responsibility for developing school camping, and to the implications of school camping for teacher education. Community School Camps presented a comprehensive discussion of the relationship of outdoor education and school camping to the curriculum; the values of a camping program; and the organization and planning necessary for

⁹⁶Ibid., p. 4-10.

⁹⁷Julian W. Smith, editor, Community School Camping (Lansing, Michigan: The Michigan Department of Public Instruction, 1951).

⁹⁸Julian W. Smith, editor, Community School Camps (Lansing, Michigan: The Michigan Department of Public Instruction, 1951).

facilities and program. Both of these bulletins were widely distributed throughout Michigan and other states to serve as guides for future development.

Writing for the health, physical education, and recreation fields, Smith listed three general objectives of camping and outdoor education:

...(1) learning to live happily and healthfully in the out-of-doors; (2) gaining a better understanding of the physical environment and how to use natural resources wisely; and (3) finding opportunities to participate in democratic living.⁹⁹

The pattern of a particular program depended on local needs, facilities, and interests. Although many schools start with field trips and day camps, the ultimate hope was to establish a resident camping program.¹⁰⁰ In evaluating the growth of the school camping movement Smith said that "this rapid growth must be largely attributed to the goodness of the program and the apparent results in the lives and interests of boys and girls."¹⁰¹

In interpreting the implications of school camping

⁹⁹Julian W. Smith, "Community School Camping," Journal of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, 22:5, June, 1951.

¹⁰⁰Ibid.

¹⁰¹Ibid., p. 6.

and outdoor education he pointed out that:

Not only do the objectives of school camping and outdoor education fall in the scope of these fields, but the instructional methods used more nearly approach those found in good programs of health education, physical education, and recreation. This is because the center of attention is on the individual, with primary concern about his growth and development and with little emphasis placed on subject matter and abstract learning.¹⁰²

Smith's primary interest in school camping continued in 1952 as was revealed in two articles published in educational journals. From the early beginnings he had visualized that, ideally, the proper setting for such programs should be within the framework of the community school philosophy. In Education he outlined procedures for developing a community school camping program¹⁰³ and in The National Elementary School Principal he explained the relationship between camping and education in light of that same ideal:

Community school camping is considered an integral part of the educational program... The camping program is as much an integral part of the curriculum of the entire school as is any other educational experience that takes place in or out of the classroom. Those learnings which can best be achieved in the out-of-doors, or can best be practiced in round-the-clock group living, find their

¹⁰²Ibid., p. 5.

¹⁰³Julian W. Smith, "Planning for Community School Camping," Education, 73:50-58, September, 1952.

place in the camp program. It may be said that school camping is an experimental curriculum, which provides a direct and simple learning experience for children. It is based on the best we know about how human beings learn--by doing and seeing.¹⁰⁴

Later that same year he wrote an article for Camping Magazine which seemed to indicate a change toward a broader application of the concept of outdoor education.¹⁰⁵ He defined it as simply education in the out-of-doors, and described various facilities and methods used in outdoor education. Even individuals and families that just go out to enjoy the outdoors on their own initiative were included as participants in outdoor education. Programs sponsored by local, state and national organizations, both public and private, all had a stake in the future of the movement, but Smith cautioned that to provide the greatest opportunities for all those who desire to participate in some form of outdoor programs would necessitate a maximum amount of cooperation and coordination of effort.¹⁰⁶

In 1953 Smith left the DPI with Thurston to go to Michigan State College. While there in 1954 he contributed

¹⁰⁴Julian W. Smith, "Outdoor Schools," The National Elementary School Principal, 31:31, April, 1952.

¹⁰⁵Julian W. Smith, "Outdoor Education--Fad or Fundamental?," Camping Magazine, 25:10-12, December, 1953.

¹⁰⁶Ibid., p. 12.

chapters on school camping to two yearbooks and a textbook.

For The National Elementary Principal's bulletin on guidance he emphasized the role of camping in developing the rapport and relationship between students and teachers that would offer "new avenues for real guidance."¹⁰⁷ Smith illustrated this point and then asked:

Where in the school's educational offerings can guidance function more simply and more directly than in the round-the-clock program in a camp setting?¹⁰⁸

He suggested that the camp setting had great potential for democratic group living and the practicing of the best in human relations.¹⁰⁹

In Children in Focus, Smith described the modern curriculum as "developmental in nature and...based on real experiences that meet child needs in learning to live in a democracy and in the achievement of self-realization, human relationships, and civic responsibility."¹¹⁰ He related

¹⁰⁷Julian W. Smith, "Guidance Values in School Camping," The National Elementary School Principal, 34:198-204, September, 1954.

¹⁰⁸Ibid., p. 198.

¹⁰⁹Ibid., p. 204.

¹¹⁰Julian W. Smith, "Community School Camping," Children in Focus, Yearbook (Washington, D. C.: The American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, 1954), p. 197.

how community school camping served this concept, giving special attention to the implications for health, physical education, and recreation. Physical and recreational activities were said to be an important part of the school camping program and a part of general education that provides opportunities for "the development of skills, attitudes, and appreciations for learning and living in the out-of-doors."¹¹¹

Smith's chapter in School and Community clearly put school camping in the context of the community school concept.¹¹² Presented as a part of general education for all children and teachers, school camping was shown to be a "natural and logical aspect of the community school." He believed that the outdoor environment provides added resources for learning opportunities and also "stimulates interest and concern for the protection and wise use of the many natural resources of the community."¹¹³

August, 1955, brought a change to Smith's position and title. While continuing part-time on the faculty of

¹¹¹Ibid., p. 200.

¹¹²Edward G. Olsen and others, School and Community, Chapter 10, "School Camping" (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954), pp. 277-304.

¹¹³Ibid., p. 200.

Michigan State University, he assumed directorship of a newly created project sponsored by the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation¹¹⁴ and embarked on a nationwide mission of promoting outdoor education.

Prior to the Outdoor Education Project, in June, 1955, Smith published an article which seemed to indicate a change also in his interest and major emphasis.¹¹⁵ Whereas school camping had been the chief concern for the past ten years, his attention now was focused on a somewhat newer and broader interpretation of outdoor education. He recognized that learning activities which develop skill and appreciation for satisfaction in leisure time were as essential in the total outdoor education program as school camping. Instead of a concern for the goals of education being accomplished in a camp setting, he now suggested the use of many outdoor areas and facilities in a community and the use of an interdisciplinary approach. "No single department, subject matter, field, or individual interest has a corner on outdoor education."¹¹⁶ The social, philosophical, and

¹¹⁴Referred to hereafter as the AAHPER.

¹¹⁵Julian W. Smith, "Adventure in Outdoor Education," Journal of Health-Physical Education-Recreation, Vol. XXVI, pp. 7-8, May-June, 1955.

¹¹⁶Ibid., p. 8.

psychological basis that supported school camping now provided Smith with a foundation for a broadly conceived outdoor education program.

The Outdoor Education Project of AAHPER. The long-time interest of AAHPER in outdoor education resulted in a project designed to intensify and speed up the outdoor education programs of schools and colleges. An awareness of the role that such an organization might play had been maturing for some time, and by the early part of 1955 planning was under way to bring the project to reality. That summer it was about ready to be launched, and Smith, while in Washington, was asked to examine the proposed plans. It was then that he was first requested to serve as director of the project.

Smith took a quarter load with Michigan State University in order to devote time to the project. He began to organize workshops throughout the country with the co-operation of many groups and organizations. He continued to teach part time while gaining national stature and prestige with the expanding program of the project. From 1955 until the present time, Smith has been heavily involved in the work of the project and the activities of AAHPER. During this period he has continually modified his interpretation of outdoor education and his emphasis on programs and practices.

In September, 1955, an outdoor education newsletter, which Smith began in 1954, was jointly published by Michigan State University and the Outdoor Education Project.¹¹⁷ Smith presented a basic point of view which incorporated his concern for broad objectives of education including worthy use of leisure time and self-realization:

Like the outdoors itself, outdoor education is an adventure experimental in character and not circumscribed by tradition. The activities that can take place outdoors are varied and whether labeled 'educational' or 'recreational', can fulfill individual needs and desires. The challenge to schools and colleges in the use of the outdoors is to design learning experiences that will help to achieve objectives of education and the specific purposes of the school curriculum.¹¹⁸

In 1956, Smith gave an interpretation of the broad concept of outdoor learning, stating that "some kind of outdoor education is possible in every school even if it has to take place on the playground."¹¹⁹ He cited the need for schools to prepare students for increased leisure time

¹¹⁷The newsletter has been published, usually semi-annually, and provides one means of tracing modifications in Smith's concept of outdoor education.

¹¹⁸Julian W. Smith, Outdoor Education, newsletter, Vol. III, No. 1 (East Lansing, Michigan: Outdoor Education Project, College of Education, Michigan State University, September, 1955).

¹¹⁹Julian W. Smith, "Adventures in Outdoor Learning," NEA Journal, 45:156, March, 1956.

in later life and explained the purposes of the project in promoting outdoor education. He noted that:

...the project will place special emphasis on casting and fishing, shooting and hunting, boating, and camping. Various other activities such as conservation, school camping, outing clubs, and winter sports will be stressed since they are related to outdoor living.¹²⁰

Elsewhere he described outdoor education as "primarily the use of the outdoors as a learning laboratory and the teaching of skills, attitudes, and appreciations for the use of leisure time in the outdoors."¹²¹ In a report of the project's first year, a review of activities was presented and the purposes were listed:

- (1) Leadership training for outdoor education through workshops and clinics.
- (2) Interpretation of outdoor education and its implications for school and college programs.
- (3) Preparation and distribution of needed instructional materials in outdoor education.¹²²

Also in 1956, Smith presented his interpretation of

¹²⁰Ibid., p. 158.

¹²¹American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, The Outdoor Education Project (Washington, D. C.: AAHPER, 1956). (brochure)

¹²²Julian W. Smith, "The Outdoor Education Project's First Year," Journal of Health-Physical Education-Recreation, 27:14-15, October, 1956.

outdoor education for classroom teachers.¹²³ He discussed reasons for including outdoor education in the elementary program under the following five topical headings:

1. Learning takes place most effectively through direct experience--beginning with concrete activities and letting useful abstractions follow.
2. Outdoor education provides a setting that makes teaching more creative.
3. Some objectives of the curriculum can be achieved more effectively outside the classroom in an outdoor situation.
4. The out-of-doors is a community resource for education and should be used to the best advantage in the school program.
5. Modern conditions of living have increased the need for outdoor education.¹²⁴

In describing the contributions of outdoor education to fitness, Smith envisioned outdoor education as a "climate for learning" and said that it "may also be considered as an emphasis in the achievement of skills, attitudes, and appreciations that are essential for fitness in this age."¹²⁵

By 1957 Smith was using the expression "education in and for the outdoors" in defining outdoor education. The

¹²³Julian W. Smith, Outdoor Education (Washington, D. C.: AAHPER, 1956). (pamphlet)

¹²⁴Ibid., pp. 6-8.

¹²⁵Julian W. Smith, "What is Outdoor Education?," Fitness for Secondary School Youth, Yearbook (Washington, D. C.: AAHPER, 1956), p. 9.

first part of this phrase referred to use of the outdoors as a laboratory and the latter referred to the use of the outdoors for maximum participation in outdoor pursuits.¹²⁶ This concept was further clarified and attention was given to its interpretation in three successive yearbooks of the AAHPER. "Maximum participation in outdoor pursuits" was changed to "acquisition of knowledge, attitudes, and skills for wiser use of the outdoors and natural resources" in 1960.¹²⁷ In 1961, it was for "the intelligent use of the outdoors,"¹²⁸ and in 1962 it was for "a wiser use of the outdoors for the enrichment of living."¹²⁹ Also in 1961, Smith described education for the outdoors as "acquisition of skills and appreciations for creative and satisfying free-time outdoor pursuits".¹³⁰

¹²⁶ Julian W. Smith, Outdoor Education, newsletter, Vol. IV, No. 2 (East Lansing, Michigan: Outdoor Education Project, College of Education, Michigan State University, August, 1957).

¹²⁷ Julian W. Smith, "The Scope of Outdoor Education," Current Administrative Problems, Yearbook (Washington, D. C.: AAHPER, 1960), p. 156.

¹²⁸ Julian W. Smith, "Outdoor Education," Leisure and the Schools, Yearbook (Washington, D. C.: AAHPER, 1961), p. 119.

¹²⁹ Julian W. Smith, "Outdoor Education," The Growing Years--Adolescence, Yearbook (Washington, D. C.: AAHPER, 1962), p. 252.

¹³⁰ Julian W. Smith, "The Meaning and Purpose of Outdoor Education," Illinois Journal of Education, 52:5, October, 1961.

Thus, while still using a philosophical and psychological basis for outdoor learning similar to that developed earlier in Michigan, he continued to give more attention to societal changes and to outdoor activities for leisure time.

The first five or six years of the project helped to make Smith's broad interpretation of outdoor education widely known. He was very active on the national scene, and the period was highlighted by numerous state and regional workshops, the publication of Outdoor Education for American Youth,¹³¹ and a conference in 1958 that brought together many leaders in outdoor education.¹³²

In 1961, Smith began preparing a report for the Outdoor Recreation Review Commission on developments in education that affect outdoor recreational resources.¹³³ In that same year he also began preparation for a second national conference to review developments in outdoor

¹³¹Julian W. Smith and Committee, Outdoor Education for American Youth (Washington, D. C.: AAHPER, 1957).

¹³²Julian W. Smith, "First National Conference on Outdoor Education," Journal of Health-Physical Education-Recreation, 29:8-10, October, 1958.

¹³³Julian W. Smith, "Developments in the Field of Education Affecting Outdoor Recreation Resources," Trends in American Living and Outdoor Recreation, ORRRC Study Report #22 (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1962).

education and suggest directions for the future. Elsewhere that year he said that "one of the important next steps of the project should be to give greater emphasis now to outdoor recreation".¹³⁴ He felt that the AAHPER should have a major responsibility for that phase of outdoor education.

The ORRRC summary report¹³⁵ was published the following year and the national conference, held in May, 1962, devoted a good deal of attention to the report and its implications for the future.¹³⁶ In the May-June issue of the Journal of AAHPER, Smith's editorial examined changes in patterns of modern living and foresaw the need to recapture some of the values of outdoor living and outdoor recreation. He said that "the band wagon for outdoor recreation in the United States has begun to roll", and raised the question as to whether schools and colleges would meet the new challenge of education for worthy use of leisure--an

¹³⁴Julian W. Smith, "A Look at the Activities and Accomplishments of the Outdoor Education Project, 1955-1961," (East Lansing, Michigan: The Outdoor Education Project, 1961).. (mimeographed)

¹³⁵Outdoor Recreation for America, a report to the President and to the Congress by the Outdoor Recreation Review Commission (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, January, 1962).

¹³⁶American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, Education in and For the Outdoors (Washington, D. C.: AAHPER, 1963).

important part of which is learning and living in the outdoors.¹³⁷ In stating a philosophy of recreation in 1962, Smith began by acknowledging that "the changing scene of living makes it necessary to translate time-used concepts into ideas and words that fit into the context of our current society."¹³⁸ He presented a broad interpretation of recreation emphasizing the need for creative living, and the role of recreation and education in helping to provide for such living.

In 1963, in a report on the project, Smith outlined the work that had been completed in eight years and listed priorities for the future. Whereas "outdoor education and school camping" had been a commonly used phrase in the past, "outdoor education and outdoor recreation" seemed to be the dominant emphasis in the nineteen sixties. His interest and effort had shifted more directly to the worthy use of leisure time in a changed society and to the role that AAHPER might play in giving direction to programs of outdoor activity and recreational skills, and leadership preparation.

¹³⁷ Julian W. Smith, "Learning and Living in the Outdoors," Journal of Health-Physical Education-Recreation, 33:16, May-June, 1962.

¹³⁸ Julian W. Smith, "My Philosophy of Recreation," Recreation, 55:7 and 38, January, 1962.

A highlight of 1963 was the publication of the text, Outdoor Education.¹³⁹ Smith, as senior author, brought to fruition a long-time desire to be able to incorporate in one volume the philosophy, ideas, and experience that had been a part of his professional career. The first section of the book presented the philosophy and historical development of his broad concept of outdoor education, including diagrams of how outdoor education fits into the curriculum and cuts across all grade levels and subject matter areas.¹⁴⁰ Much of the book goes beyond the public schools in a look at community-centered outdoor education and its implications for future developments of programs and practices.

Smith's recent activities have continued at a national level in outdoor recreation and in the reinterpretation of outdoor education to fit the changing times. Though still involved with the schools, he has gone beyond them in his understanding and concern for the future physical, mental, and spiritual life of all people in the community.

The Relationship Between Sharp's and Smith's Careers

Having examined developments that centered around

¹³⁹Julian W. Smith, et al., Outdoor Education (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963).

¹⁴⁰Ibid., pp. 17 and 20.

Sharp and Smith separately, it would seem helpful now to look briefly at the relationship between their lives and careers. There were apparently many similarities in their lives, yet individual differences--personal, geographical, educational, vocational, and professional--stand out and influenced the development of the basis for outdoor education.

Chronologically, Sharp and Smith may be considered as contemporaries, both growing up in a rural family life in the early part of the twentieth century. Being close to the land with its hardships, mysteries, and pleasures shaped their values which included respect, appreciation, and concern for the natural environment. They also gained spiritual and recreational satisfactions in the outdoors. Thus "outdoor living" was a part of a way of life that continued in their private and professional lives in varying degrees.

Sharp's higher education took him from Kansas to New York where, by the age of thirty-four, he had earned a doctoral degree, and had followed his interest in sports with professional preparation in physical education. He had personally come in contact with some of the outstanding educational thinkers of his day. His interest in the outdoors, coupled with experiences at Teachers College and in

welfare agency camping, started him on a career in outdoor education that became his one pursuit for over thirty years.

On the other hand, Smith stayed in Michigan and after Normal School began a career in public education that continued while he worked toward degrees in education and educational administration. At the age of forty-one he had completed a master's degree and twenty three years of public school service as teacher, principal, and coach. After Sharp had already gained a reputation in school camping and outdoor education in the nineteen forties, Smith moved to the state level of educational activities in Michigan and for the next ten years progressed concurrently with Sharp in school camping, while gaining a broad perspective of educational developments in Michigan and around the country.

In the nineteen fifties, each man was able to alter his career somewhat within the outdoor education movement. Sharp, after closing Life Camps, formed an independent association and, although struggling for existence, he then could more fully put into practice the ideals which he had been advocating. Not until he joined the faculty at Southern Illinois University and moved the Outdoor Education Association to Carbondale did he become involved in a co-operative arrangement. It was then, at the age of sixty-five, that he began to implement his philosophy in a new phase of activity.

With broader emphasis on the total curriculum of the classroom at all grade levels, he developed plans for a new outdoor education center.

Smith moved to the university setting in 1953 and two years later became director of the Outdoor Education Project for AAHPER. It was then that he started to develop more clearly his own concepts of what outdoor education should and could do. As the Project matured, Smith turned more to a concern for leisure time and the role of physical education and recreation in outdoor education. Although the Project has brought him in close association with the physical education and recreation fields, he has continually emphasized the interdisciplinary nature of outdoor education and its application to all phases of curriculum. "From its inception, the Project interpreted outdoor education in its broadest sense and has been concerned with general education."¹⁴¹

Both at the state and national levels, Smith's work involved him in co-operative ventures. The Michigan program brought together education and conservation fields in conjunction with the Kellogg Foundation. The Outdoor Education

¹⁴¹Julian W. Smith, The Outdoor Education Project of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation (undated). (mimeographed)

Project is jointly sponsored by business, industry, and education.

Sharp and Smith developed spheres of influence that in many instances cut across and complemented each other. Sharp's influence was felt much earlier and it was in later developments that their differences in interpretation and approach became more noticeable. Sharp had always been more the idealist and philosopher with a missionary zeal, who would rather suffer than compromise his convictions. Smith was more the seasoned schoolman who was involved with administration and promotion in public education at various levels, and who looked more to contemporaries for guidance and direction. Both, however, recognized the need to train and develop leadership in order to further outdoor education.

Sharp was directly involved a good deal of his life in living in the outdoors and teaching in somewhat primitive conditions using small group processes while still carrying on the other programs of the Outdoor Education Association and participating on a national level. Smith has been more involved than was Sharp in organizational and administrative matters. He has spent less time in actual outdoor living and teaching than in recreational activities.

While Sharp and Smith each followed a different life pattern, they both were recognized by various segments of

society and by the educational community as leaders who made significant contributions to the outdoor education movement and to education in general. Historically, Sharp stands out as one of the early leaders who devoted his life to one goal. Smith, after public school experience, joined in the movement and moved rapidly to a position of leadership.

Harold Benjamin, in a consideration of comparative education, stated as a law of diminishing reform that "any development in education will have less effect the further away from the origin".¹⁴² Considering Sharp and his work in New York as the source of one approach to outdoor education, it seems reasonable that his particular approach would not necessarily be as successful in Michigan as it was in New York. One might also conclude that those persons most closely associated with Sharp would recognize his approach as the most ideal one to follow, and other approaches as less desirable.

Benjamin also stated as a principle of comparative education that "once a people start along a particular educational road nothing ever turns them aside except another educational road".¹⁴³ The inference drawn in making an

¹⁴²Lecture by Harold Benjamin, Nashville, Tennessee, June 20, 1958.

¹⁴³Ibid.

analogy to "the people in outdoor education" is that the leaders have not only been able to influence their own followers, but in some instances the followers have looked from one leader to another; and, too, the leaders have gained new insights from particular followers as well as from each other. Thus it seems that as Sharp's and Smith's "educational roads" developed, modifications may have resulted not only from their own personal awareness of the changing times, but also from association with other leaders and followers and from each other as well.

Both leaders shared an interest in many of the same professional organizations and agencies concerned with camping, education, conservation, and recreation. Also, Sharp was associated with the Progressive Education Association in the beginning and later was influential with the American Association of School Administrators. Smith has been closely associated with the Society of State Directors of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, and through the AAHPER has been involved with many facets of the National Education Association and more recently with the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation of the United States Department of the Interior.

After the nineteen forties, Sharp and Smith had many opportunities for close association in committee work, at conferences and workshops, and with other professional

programs. It appears that each had a high regard for the other's contribution regardless of their differences. In 1961, Sharp said: "We will always owe a great debt of thanks to people in Michigan. Julian Smith became active in that program and took over from Lee Thurston who turned over the first spadefuls".¹⁴⁴ Following Sharp's death in 1963, Smith said:

His life and work have inspired many of us to give professional leadership to camping and outdoor education and he will live in the hearts and efforts of countless numbers who, in their own situations, will help make outdoor education a reality in the lives of children and youth.¹⁴⁵

The figure on the following page presents a graphical comparison of the chronological development of periods and events in the careers of Sharp and Smith.

Factors That Influenced Sharp and Smith

The progressive education movement. The progressive education movement, an expression of progressivism, was so

¹⁴⁴Lloyd B. Sharp, "Outdoor Education is Off the Pad," Extending Education, Vol. VI, No. 1 (Carbondale, Illinois: The Outdoor Education Association, Inc., September, 1961).

¹⁴⁵Julian W. Smith, Outdoor Education, newsletter, Vol. IX, No. 2 (East Lansing, Michigan: Outdoor Education Project, College of Education, Michigan State University, Spring, 1964).

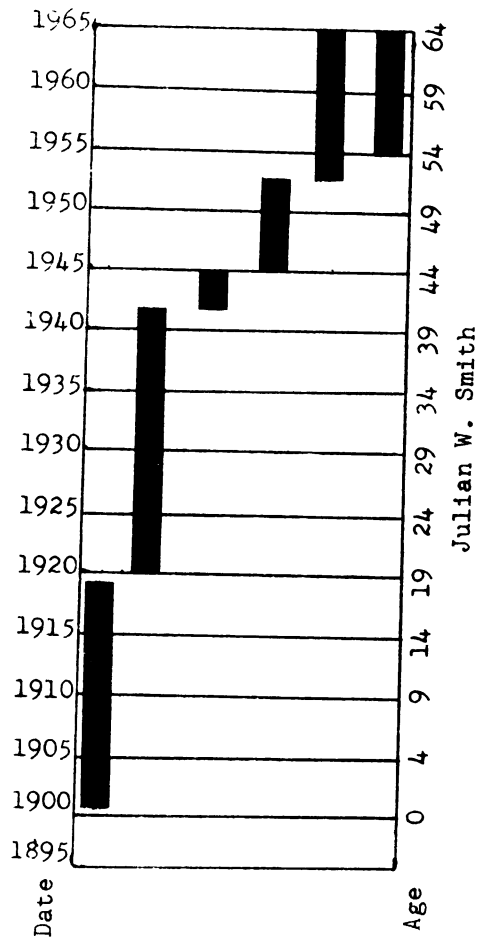
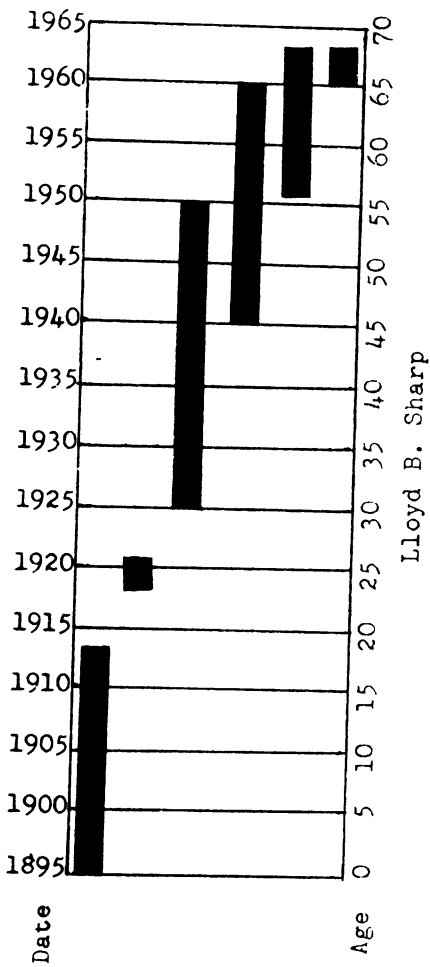


FIGURE 2
A COMPARISON OF SHARP'S AND SMITH'S CAREERS

wide spread that it would be reasonable to say that the majority of educators in the nineteen twenties and nineteen thirties were influenced in some way by the thinking of its many advocates. That was a period described by Cremin as "an age of reform in education"¹⁴⁶ in which an effort was made to adapt the school to the circumstances, needs, and opportunities of a growing industrial civilization.

Although the active phase of the movement has now passed, much of what it stood for has been accepted as part of the "conventional wisdom" in education. The fact that organized camping was receptive to its influence has been well documented, and the broadening of the program and function of the schools to include activities such as camping and physical education may well have been a direct result of the progressive philosophy. Analysis and interpretation of the movement has been continuous and recently Cremin treated the subject in both depth and detail.¹⁴⁷

Sharp not only was on the staff of the University of Chicago Laboratory School, founded by Dewey and his wife, but he also studied with Dewey and Kilpatrick at Teachers College, Columbia University. Undoubtedly Columbia, "the

¹⁴⁶Lawrence A. Cremin, The Transformation of the School (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1962), p. 291.

¹⁴⁷Ibid.

center of progressive education and the intellectual cross-roads of the movement",¹⁴⁸ had a profound effect on Sharp's thinking. Benjamin's law of diminishing reform¹⁴⁹ may well explain the zeal with which Sharp adopted portions of the progressive philosophy to a camping philosophy and applied it in the New York area. It was apparent in Sharp's writings that he was attempting to carry out progressive ideals and on several occasions he acknowledged the contributions of Dewey to his own work. In 1940, he was a member of a committee appointed by the president of the Progressive Education Association to "survey the status of co-operation between schools and summer camps and to develop a program that would explore the ways in which development of closer working relationships might take place".¹⁵⁰

Smith's contact with advocates of progressive education in Michigan may well have had an influence on his thinking. Though not actively involved in the Progressive Education Association, he was working in an environment that was permeated by elements of progressive philosophy that found expression in a state curriculum program, in

¹⁴⁸Ibid., pp. 175-176.

¹⁴⁹Benjamin, op. cit.

¹⁵⁰Editor, Progressive Education, 17:236, April, 1940 (editors note).

the implementation of the recommendations of the Eight Year Study, and in the development of community schools. Smith acknowledged the influence and encouragement of leaders in these activities in helping him develop his own ideas and convictions.¹⁵¹

Sharp and Smith, each in his own way, responded to the anti-formalism of the progressive education movement as they sought to extend the functions of the schools. Progressive ideas may have supported views which they already held or may have helped them in examining the relationship between outdoor activities and the total school program. The concern of progressive education for human growth and development and the processes of learning may have helped to focus attention on the outdoor setting as an effective environment in which children can participate in worthwhile experiences. Since progressive education was much less rooted in the notion that learning and learning activities must be confined to the classroom, it seems likely that Sharp and Smith visualized these elements of progressive thought as part of a framework for experimentation in camping. Sharp, very early in his career, emphasized the importance of direct learning experiences and continued to do so

¹⁵¹Information from Julian W. Smith, personal interview, July 14, 1963.

throughout his lifetime. It seems apparent also that some progressive ideas were later recognized by Sharp and Smith as they formulated broader concepts of outdoor education and emphasized a broader range of outdoor activities.

Progressive education focused on the individual learner within a democratic society during the twenty years prior to World War II. This focus seemed to help provide Sharp and Smith with a basis that would in effect make camping a necessary part of the school program. It was apparent that the school camp was conceived as a miniature democratic community for all children.

Following the war, school camping continued to flourish as attacks on the schools and particularly on "progressive education" led to the decline of the progressive education movement. In the early 1950's the Progressive Education Association disbanded, but outdoor education programs continued to expand as the outdoor education concept was given new meaning in relation to the need for gaining understanding, self-reliance, and fitness.

The organized camping movement. That camping and education were of mutual concern to many persons prior to 1900 has been substantiated in early studies reviewed in Chapter II, and in the camping literature as well. Professional journals have been the vehicle for voicing fact and

opinion, and for reporting research on the camping-education relationship. The following list of articles taken from Camping Magazine from 1930 through 1960 gives a partial indication of that relationship:

What Entitles a Summer Camp to a Place in the
Progressive Education Association?

Education and the Camp

The Educational Program of a Camp

Camping and Education

The Contributions of Camping to Democracy

Where Do We Stand in Education?

The Role of Camping in Education Today

The Role of the School in Camping

Camping is Education

Educational Leadership in School Camping

School Camp--Outdoor Laboratory for Enriched Learning

Sharp's association with many of the early recognized leaders in summer camping seems likely to have helped him in formulating or modifying some of his ideas on school camping. He acknowledged the contributions of organized camping in the formulation of plans for reorganizing Life Camps, and camping was an interest of some of his associates at Teachers College. Also, it may be assumed that he was continually aware of camping practices and familiar with the professional

literature.

Sharp was active in professional camping organizations early in his career, and served as vice-president of the American Camping Association. He was a contributor to Camping Magazine, served on camping committees, and participated in camping programs and conferences throughout the country. In the early nineteen forties, he was a participant in the series of American Camping Association workshops, co-sponsored by the Kellogg Foundation, that developed camp standards¹⁵² and examined the role of camping in America.¹⁵³

Smith's involvement in camping dates from the beginnings of school camping at Clear Lake Camp in Michigan in 1940. He has been a member of the American Camping Association, serving as chairman of its school camping committee and has been a contributor to Camping Magazine. He, too, has participated in numerous camping workshops and conferences. As school camping progressed, Smith, as well as others, came to feel that "the voice of school camping" should be within the field of education rather than within organized camping.

¹⁵²American Camping Association, Marks of Good Camping (New York: Association Press, 1941). (pamphlet)

¹⁵³The Camping Magazine, Vol. XIV, No. 2, February, 1942. (special issue)

Sharp, and later Smith, were both active spokesmen in the American Camping Association and they were influential at various times among its members. Later, however, they apparently withdrew from participation at the policy making level as their own interests moved in other directions.

It would be extremely difficult to assess the extent of influence that the organized camping movement had on Sharp and Smith. Camping had gained public acceptance over a number of years and was generally felt to be a good experience for youth. Therefore, it provided an expedient way for interpreting the outdoor education concept. It seems reasonable that Sharp would have had more opportunities for direct contact with persons actively involved in all types of camping, while Smith's contacts were limited more to indirect associations, except in school camping, and with key staff and officers of the American Camping Association. From such direct and indirect associations, new insights and ideas could have possibly been gained and been of help in the development of a basis for outdoor education.

Specifically, the organized camping movement may have provided Sharp and Smith with ideas about: (1) how camping experiences could serve as a partial fulfillment of the broad objectives of education, (2) how camping could be used as a framework for providing outdoor learning experiences

related to the school program, and (3) how direct experiences might best be employed outdoors with groups of children. Each man in his own way moved away from organized camping as his own satisfactions within the movement lessened and as his own interests and insights developed sufficiently to move beyond the level of the camping movement itself.

Recreation, play, and physical education movements.

The early growth of the three closely related movements--recreation, play, and physical education--has been documented in texts, articles, and dissertations. It is obvious from a broad sampling of these sources that: (1) many of their leaders were one and the same, (2) a number of their advocates were engaged in summer camping, or recognized it as a part of one or more of the movements, (3) there was a desire by some leaders to have camping incorporated in the school program and other community programs, and (4) much of their philosophy and many of their programs were an expression of progressivism.

As these movements were becoming more solidified and gaining recognition in the schools and community, professional fields were becoming more clearly drawn. This served as a means for identifying more sharply similarities and differences of opinion and interest. The professional

organizations that also developed further provided for group identity and, co-operatively as well as competitively, they sought to assume responsibility for leadership in camping.

Sharp's training and early experiences were directly involved in these developments and, while continuing to maintain working relationships with the physical education and recreation fields throughout his life, his interest in these aspects of the school program diminished as he moved more from school camping to a broader school program of outdoor education.

In contrast, Smith's early training and experience kept him on the periphery of recreation and physical education until he was past forty years old. It was then as State Athletic Director and later as a staff member in the Department of Public Instruction that he became professionally involved in health, physical education, and recreation. With the advent of the Outdoor Education Project he entered the main stream of national affairs becoming one of the major spokesmen for outdoor education in the AAHPER. Recently, his broad interpretation of outdoor education, including a concern for leisure time, has resulted in more involvement with the expanding program of outdoor recreation. Thus it seems that Sharp moved away from the physical education and recreation areas while Smith moved towards them.

In the process, both seemed to have broadened their interpretation of outdoor education.

Physical education provided Sharp with a stimulus to pursue professional preparation through the doctoral level and also served as part of a framework for conducting camping programs. The endorsement of camping by physical education and recreation groups lent support to his early efforts at making camping a part of the school program and helped him in emphasizing the role of camping in developing physical and recreational skills. Later physical education and recreation seemed to act as a thorn in his side as he shifted towards more of a concern for outdoor learning experiences with classroom academic subject matter. Smith's long association with health, physical education, and recreation provided him with ideas on the nature of fitness and leisure and the role of camping and outdoor education in meeting fitness and leisure-time needs.

Physical education and recreation groups have served both Sharp and Smith with a market place for sharing ideas on outdoor education. As sponsors of outdoor activities, such groups have brought together many persons from various fields for meetings, conferences, workshops, and task forces. Thus Sharp and Smith have had many opportunities for not only voicing their own philosophy, but for sampling the

thoughts and reactions of others who share some of their same concerns.

The community school movement. The community school movement, with its emphasis on the relation of the school program to community living and the use of the community as a laboratory for learning, has served as a catalyst for outdoor education. It emphasizes the major areas and problems of the community as a source of direction for the curriculum and the utilization of community resources for improving human welfare. It provides a framework in which teachers can leave the classroom and move outdoors for enriched learning experiences.

Hart's social interpretation of education helped to give impetus to the community school.¹⁵⁴ The yearbook of the National Association for the Study of Education was twice devoted to the community school^{155, 156} and Olson provided a detailed treatment of the community school concept

¹⁵⁴Joseph K. Hart, A Social Interpretation of Education (New York: Holt and Co., 1929).

¹⁵⁵National Society for the Study of Education, The Community School, Yearbook, No. 52, Part II (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953).

¹⁵⁶National Society for the Study of Education, Community Education, Yearbook, No. 58, Part I (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1959).

in 1954.¹⁵⁷

Sharp, it seems, gave little recognition to the community school in his writings on outdoor education. However, in examining his ideas and programs, it was evident that these could be interpreted as an expression of that concept. On the other hand, Smith was involved in school camping and outdoor education as a part of community school development in Michigan. As chairman of the planning committee for the 1957 bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals on outdoor education, he called upon G. Robert Koopman to relate the theory of the community school to outdoor education. In the 1963 text, Outdoor Education, he devoted several pages to the community school in tracing the development of outdoor education.¹⁵⁸

The community school movement seems to have provided Sharp and Smith with two kinds of ideas that were adaptable to their own concerns. To extend learning beyond the classroom into the outdoors required a reasonable basis. While the concept of direct experience offered one element of that basis, the notion of using the community as a resource for such experiences provided another. Much of the community

¹⁵⁷Edward G. Olsen and others, School and Community (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954).

¹⁵⁸Smith, et al., op. cit., pp. 32-36.

was made up of natural phenomena, and the out-of-doors was in some way a part of daily living for most people. The two elements seemed to complement each other and were closely associated with the progressive education movement's effort to broaden the functions of the school.

The school camp was conceived as a community apart from the larger community. Both Sharp and Smith recognized the near ideal situation of the camp setting as a children's community for democratic living. In their later interpretations of outdoor education, community school camping remained an important goal for schools, but other outdoor activities were also acknowledged as part of an on-going community school program. Smith particularly advocated outdoor education for leisure time as a part of the community school program.

The conservation movement. It would seem natural that educators interested in outdoor learning would also be concerned with conservation. Such has been the case with many individuals and groups involved in outdoor education and so it was with the leaders in the outdoor education movement.

Both Sharp and Smith developed an awareness and appreciation of natural resources in their youth and the

wise use of the outdoors was very much a part of the outdoor education concept that each advocated. Sharp, as a teacher, was himself an example worth emulating in his knowledge and skill in the outdoors. The setting he taught in for many years was rustic and primitive and the subject matter he dealt with was primarily native and natural. Smith, as a participant in outdoor activities, was concerned with the tremendous use being made of the outdoors for leisure-time pursuits and the need for educating for wise use of resources in satisfying the increasing demand placed on outdoor areas and facilities.

Sharp and Smith had broad associations with persons identified as professional conservationists and conservation educators. Sharp had outstanding conservation teachers on his staff at National Camp while Smith worked closely with the State Department of Conservation in Michigan. They both envisioned conservation not as a separate subject, but rather as being integrated with many kinds of learning experiences in camping and in the school curriculum.

The conservation movement seemed to provide Sharp and Smith with a continually deepening appreciation and understanding of the outdoors as they attempted to interpret the importance of the outdoors in the school program and in the lives of people everywhere. Their own personal concern for

wise use of the outdoors may have served as a motivation for seeking further insight into the sociological and economic aspects of using the outdoors. Such insights seem to have aided them in giving meaning to outdoor education programs and practices that provide satisfactions for many diverse purposes and interests.

Educational philosophy and psychology. It has already been shown in examining other influences on Sharp and Smith that elements of progressive education philosophy helped to form a basis for camping, recreation, physical education, and the community school movements. It is also apparent that elements in these interrelated movements, along with conservation, were significant in the development of a basis for outdoor education.

In conjunction with the philosophical position of progressive education were psychological concepts and educational methodology which emphasized the emotional and social needs of the individual, learning by experience, creative self-expression, pupil interests, and co-operative planning and problem solving.

Sharp's life was devoted to implementing the democratic ideals implicit in progressive education. Through a program of camping he attempted to prove that democratic educational goals could be met, capitalizing on first hand

experiences. Later he used the same basic principle in promoting outdoor learning for the classroom.

Smith was concerned with essentially the same principle of direct learning, but his own convictions and experiences led him away from Sharp's concept of camping toward a broader application in many areas of the school program.

Both Sharp and Smith seemed to rely heavily on the concept of direct experience, but without providing clear insight into the quality of such experience or its relationship to other forms of learning. They each made reference to authorities that supported their views, but seemed to feel little need for presenting a detailed examination and analysis of the process of learning.

The goals of education stated by the Educational Policies Commission in 1938 seemed to be accepted by Smith as a reflection of philosophy that could serve as a baseline for interpreting outdoor education. Sharp, too, relied on these educational objectives, but neither man provided a comprehensive discourse on the application of educational philosophy to outdoor education.

Thus it seems that Sharp and Smith chose carefully from the broad body of philosophical and psychological literature those elements which they recognized as lending support to their efforts, and which in some instances were

popular positions taken by many leading educators during the early period of school camping. Whereas Sharp looked primarily to some of the basic pronouncements of Dewey and Kilpatrick, Smith relied more on interpretations from contemporary sources in gaining an understanding of the development of school curriculum, the nature of the learner, and the process of learning.

Socio-cultural factors. Just as the changing character of society has influenced all educational endeavors so too its impact has been felt in the development of outdoor education. Historically, events and conditions over the past fifty years have in some way influenced the thinking of many educational leaders resulting in proposals for change and modification in the school program. Political, economic, and social factors were recognized and led to certain innovations and emphases. Thus, the Civilian Conservation Corps grew out of events surrounding the depression era, fitness programs became important following periods of conflict, and camping grew out of the social and economic stress of the nineteen twenties and thirties. The philosophical basis that supported early camping efforts has been discussed separately, but may also be included as a part of a combination of causal factors that influenced outdoor education. In 1961, Hammerman analyzed socio-cultural

factors that influenced the development of camping education and concluded that the development was a result of the natural outgrowth of socio-cultural forces in the American society.¹⁵⁹

As Sharp and Smith developed the outdoor education concept it was apparent that they were sensitive to the changing times and responded with modifications in both philosophy and programs. It may well have been that in the nineteen fifties, at a time when "progressive education" was rapidly falling out of vogue, a shift away from school camping was partly due to a recognition by Sharp and Smith of changing socio-cultural conditions as well as to the immediate situation in which they found themselves. During that time Sharp and Smith were establishing new organizational patterns under the Outdoor Education Association and the Outdoor Education Project respectively.

Later, Sharp's program for preparation of classroom teachers at all grade levels and Smith's concern with outdoor recreation may have resulted from their recognition of a need for change of emphasis because of recognized changes in society. During the years immediately preceding Sharp's

¹⁵⁹Donald R. Hammerman, "An Historical Analysis of the Socio-Cultural Factors that Influenced the Development of Camping Education," (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania, 1961).

death, he seemed to be responding to a general concern for quality in education and a growing emphasis on efficiency and excellence in intellectual development. Smith, meanwhile, seemed to have focused on the complex problems growing out of the increase in leisure time available to many people in urban areas.

Curriculum and curriculum development. Just as those persons involved in camping were able to establish a professional field with professional organizations, individuals involved in curriculum improvement became identified and represented in professional organizations. Principals' and administrators' associations have noted the rise of school camping and outdoor education and in many instances have given support and leadership. The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development also has shown an interest in the movement at various times. Van Til explored the possibilities of school camping in the 1944 yearbook,¹⁶⁰ and in 1951 a concern for experiencing reality first hand resulted in a proposal for extending the school year through camping.¹⁶¹

¹⁶⁰William Van Til, "Schools and Camping," Toward a New Curriculum, Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Chapter 7 (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1944), pp. 92-104.

¹⁶¹Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Action for Curriculum Improvement, Yearbook of the Association (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1951).

By 1954, ASCD gave recognition to school camping as a promising frontier in school improvement,¹⁶² but since that time there have been no further publications.¹⁶³

During the approximately thirty-year time span which has encompassed Sharp's and Smith's efforts in outdoor education, the concept of curriculum change has itself been modified. In 1930, Sharp referred to Cocking¹⁶⁴ and Bosner¹⁶⁵ who had proposed administrative and organizational procedures for curriculum making and curriculum construction. The curriculum seemingly was printed on paper and specialists were responsible for its improvement. Thirty-three years later Smith discussed curriculum improvement in relation to the "initiation of outdoor education activities and programs in a community,"¹⁶⁶ and cited as a reference the 1962 ASCD yearbook which was concerned with underlying

¹⁶²John W. Gilliland, School Camping (Washington, D. C.: ASCD, 1954).

¹⁶³Margaret Gill, Executive Secretary of ASCD, letter to author, February 13, 1964.

¹⁶⁴Walter D. Cocking, Administrative Procedures in Curriculum Making for Public Schools (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928).

¹⁶⁵Frederick G. Bosner, The Elementary School Curriculum (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1922).

¹⁶⁶Smith, et al., op. cit., p. 287.

principles for affecting change in behavior. Curriculum was envisioned as learning experiences that the school assumes responsibility for, and the teacher was conceived as the agent most directly responsible for improved curriculum. In 1961, Sharp emphasized the role of the teacher in developing outdoor education when he said that "the whole idea should emanate from the classroom and be carried on by the teacher, basically. The concept of outdoor education still emanates from the classroom as basic curriculum".¹⁶⁷ Smith, too, argued that school camping and outdoor education were a part of the curriculum and not something added on.¹⁶⁸

As the concept of curriculum underwent changes Sharp and Smith seemed to recognize that a broader interpretation would more readily encompass the kinds of outdoor activities they had been proposing, and also would open the way for further programs and practices outside the classroom. They often referred to outdoor education as a curriculum innovation and evidently saw the value of having outdoor education adapted as part of curriculum improvement endeavors.

¹⁶⁷Lloyd B. Sharp, "Outdoor Education is Off the Pad," Extending Education (Carbondale, Illinois: The Outdoor Education Association, Vol. VI, No. 1, 1961).

¹⁶⁸Smith, loc. cit.

On several occasions both leaders outlined plans for developing outdoor education programs. However, their writings revealed little discussion in depth of the underlying principles and procedures for affecting change in behavior necessary to improve curriculum.

Contributions of individuals. Movements and organizations can be used effectively as a framework for describing historical developments; but another approach may be made through an examination of people who individually and in groups work toward the achievement of recognized goals. In retrospect these people can be categorized impersonally as part of particular historical events, but they can also be approached through an examination of the human elements, the personal nature of events, and the interaction between individuals. To paraphrase Allport, there are many instances where individuality is of no concern, but when there is an interest in transcending the limitations of averages and the generalized human mind, we then become concerned with a more adequate account of personal growth.¹⁶⁹

Neither time nor purpose permits a detailed account of the personal relationship between Sharp and Smith and their relationship with countless other individuals

¹⁶⁹Gordon W. Allport, Becoming (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1955).

associated with the outdoor education movement. However, an example to illustrate the importance of such personal relationships described above seems worthy of inclusion in this section dealing with influential factors.

At the time that Ernest O. Melby was at Northwestern University he was involved in professional activities that brought him in contact with Sharp, who was for a time at the University of Chicago.¹⁷⁰ In 1945, Melby went to New York University to become Dean of the College of Education. The University had already been offering credit for participation in Sharp's leadership training program for a number of years and Melby was a participant in the 1946 conference on outdoor education held at National Camp. When Sharp was about to lose support from Life, it was Jay B. Nash, head of the recreation department, who arranged for Sharp to seek Melby's help. The result of the events that occurred at that period were described by Melby as "one of my worst failures at New York University".¹⁷¹

Also, while Melby was at Northwestern University, a faculty member suggested bringing Hugh B. Masters from North Texas State College to teach a summer guidance course. When

¹⁷⁰Information from Ernest O. Melby, personal interview, July 23, 1963.

¹⁷¹Ibid.

the Kellogg Foundation was looking for an assistant educational director in 1937 it was Melby that recommended Masters for the position. Masters took the position, came to know Sharp and his work, and began to work closely with Smith. He was instrumental in giving impetus to school camping on a year-round basis. His vision of the role of the outdoors in education and his inspirational leadership have been appreciated by others in the outdoor education movement.

In 1952, Melby wrote the introduction to Donaldson's book in which he championed school camping programs under competent leadership as a valuable contribution to education.¹⁷² Donaldson was exposed to Sharp's philosophy and program in the nineteen forties,¹⁷³ and later went to Michigan where he worked closely with Masters and Smith before moving on to Tyler, Texas.

As Smith got involved in the Michigan program in the nineteen forties, he came to know Masters and Donaldson quite well and also Sharp and Melby in New York. When Melby retired from New York University in 1955, he joined the faculty at Michigan State University where Smith was already

¹⁷²George W. Donaldson, School Camping (New York: Association Press, 1952).

¹⁷³George W. Donaldson, "Living and Learning Outdoors," The School Executive, 64:65-66, February, 1945.

a member.

In 1962, the Outdoor Education Project sponsored a national conference on outdoor education. All of the men previously mentioned were participants--Smith was chairman of the planning committee, Masters delivered one of the keynote addresses, and Melby spoke at the conclusion.¹⁷⁴

Smith related an example of a similar nature in describing early developments centered around Clear Lake Camp.¹⁷⁵ Arrangements had been made with Sharp to recount other such events, but his death occurred during the time the writer was planning for a personal interview with him.

The role that Melby has played in the development of a basis for outdoor education might be described as one of facilitator and supporter. To that extent he, like many others, has been a part of the outdoor education movement. Though the impact of his thinking may not be as readily identified as that of John Dewey or of Earl C. Kelley of Wayne State University, his contributions have been significant in his serving as a catalyst and in his voicing support.

The number of persons who were in some way influential

¹⁷⁴American Association of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, Education in and For the Outdoors (Washington, D. C.: AAHPER, 1963).

¹⁷⁵Smith, et al., op. cit., pp. 98-99.

in the lives and careers of Sharp and Smith would be almost endless and the contributions that each made to either one or both of them would constitute a study within itself. However, a partial list of some persons recognized by Smith, friends of Sharp, and the writer may provide additional insights.

Smith recently acknowledged the contributions of Kelley, Masters, Thurston, Hoffmaster, Koopman, and Nash.¹⁷⁶ One could add to this group Sharp, Donaldson, Troester, Carlson, and several figures in education, physical education, recreation, and conservation.

Sharp gained much from Dewey and Kilpatrick.¹⁷⁷ His close working relationship with Fretwell, and later Vinal, Partridge, and other staff members of National Camp may have been significant. Cocking, Cooper, and Morris were important catalysts.

II. THE PRESENT BASIS FOR OUTDOOR EDUCATION

Sources of the Basis for Outdoor Education

In the historical development of the outdoor education

¹⁷⁶Information from Julian W. Smith, personal interview, June 23, 1964.

¹⁷⁷Information from Ann Brinley and Thomas J. Rillo, personal interview, June 27, 1964.

concept there have been key individuals who devoted themselves to the task of interpreting and promoting outdoor education programs and practices. It has been suggested that Sharp and Smith were the two most outstanding figures in this development and that a basis for outdoor education can be attributed to their philosophy and thought. Analysis of the developments centered around their lives and careers has provided a background for stating the nature of that basis which was established and modified during a period of some thirty years.

The sources of the basis might be viewed in several ways. First, it is recognized that all things verbalized by Sharp and Smith were not necessarily original with them. The interrelatedness of both personal and impersonal factors that were influential in their lives has been previously acknowledged. The contention here is that the contributions of these two individuals have been the most significant in interpreting the outdoor education concept, and that it has been their leadership roles which have been recognized as outstanding in the development of the movement.

In another sense, the sources of the basis, whether interpreted originally by Sharp and Smith, or by other spokesmen in the movement, are multidimensional and are traceable to a number of historical events, to the thoughts

and ideas of many other individuals, and to the particular set of personal circumstances that may have occurred at any given time.

Finally, the sources used in describing the nature of the basis can be found in the writings of Sharp and Smith, or in other writings referred to by them as supportive of their position.

The Nature of the Basis for Outdoor Education

Some type of organizational framework seems necessary to describe the characteristics of the basis for outdoor education. Rather than presenting a detailed exposition, the nature of the basis will be stated under the following headings:

The definition of outdoor education

The nature of society and its cultural values

The learner and learning

The role and function of the school

Processes of developing programs and practices

Although reference will be made to Sharp's and Smith's contributions, no attempt will be made to present two bases. It is reasonable to assume that Sharp's early leadership has been duly acknowledged in previous sections of this chapter. The purpose here is to state briefly what is and

not who did.

The definition of outdoor education. In examining the literature, three fairly distinctive outdoor education concepts were found. These can be classified chronologically according to:

- a. The period when the outdoor education concept was called school camping or camping education as part of a school camping movement.
- b. The period when the outdoor education concept was part of a school camping and outdoor education movement.
- c. The period when the outdoor education concept was part of an outdoor education movement.

(This classification also implies that there were changes in the school camping and camping education concepts as well.) Thus it becomes necessary to give meaning to each concept within each period.

As organized summer camping became more of an established movement, its emphasis changed from "recreation and play" to "education". There was experimentation with educational camping in agency, welfare, and private camps, and in a few private and public school programs. Beginning in the mid-nineteen thirties and steadily increasing over a period of approximately ten years, a number of school camping programs developed. The term "outdoor education" was rarely

in the literature during this time, but rather the concept of "camping" or "camping education" was used in describing learning experiences in a camp setting or in outdoor activities that served as a lead-up to school camping.

By the mid-nineteen forties, and from then until the mid-nineteen fifties, outdoor education became a concept used at first to describe certain "curriculum experiences" in camp and later to designate a number of outdoor learning experiences and areas. It was during this period, when the outdoor education concept became more widely accepted, that the movement became one of school camping and outdoor education.

For approximately the past ten years, school camping has gradually become relegated to one aspect of an outdoor education movement as the concept of outdoor education has become broader, encompassing a wider range of learning experiences. Camping education now refers only to those experiences that take place in a camp setting, or "resident outdoor education" facility.

This change in terminology might be more easily understood if visualized diagrammatically. For purposes of illustration, Figure 3 on page 153 has definite dates assigned to each period. In actuality, there are no clear delineations and, therefore, the dates should be interpreted as

representative approximations.

In the past few years, outdoor education, as applied to the school program, has come to mean "all of that learning included in the curriculum in any area at any level that can best be learned outside the classroom".¹⁷⁸

<u>Period*</u>	<u>Movement</u>	<u>Primary Concept</u>	<u>Secondary Concept</u>
1880-1935	Organized Summer Camping	Camping	Outing
1935-1945	School Camping	Camping or School Camping	Camping Education
1945-1955	School Camping and Outdoor Education	School Camping or Camping Education	Outdoor Education
1955-1964	Outdoor Education	Outdoor Education	Camping Education or Resident Outdoor Education

*Dates are representative approximations.

FIGURE 3

CHANGES IN OUTDOOR EDUCATION TERMINOLOGY

This implies not only a wide variety of learning experiences in various outdoor settings, but also the development of

¹⁷⁸Lloyd B. Sharp, Outdoor Education Center (Carbondale, Illinois: The Educational Council of 100, Inc., 1961), p. 10.

skills, appreciations, and attitudes needed for gaining maximum satisfaction in outdoor pursuits. Outdoor education, therefore, is sometimes simply stated as "learning in and for the outdoors".¹⁷⁹

The above definition differs from those stated during the school camping movement when outdoor education was described as a common sense method of learning through direct experience or thought of as the subject matter of the curriculum that could best be learned in a camp setting.

No definition suffices without detailed explanation, and the current one can be amplified by citing functional definitions that have been provided by Sharp and Smith throughout the past thirty years.

Some of the definitive expressions used in describing outdoor education were also used at times in describing camping education and school camping. Therefore, the reader is cautioned to refer to the periods and terminology in Figure 3 as a reference point.

Sharp stated the basic thesis for outdoor education many times and in many ways:

That which can best be learned inside the classroom should be learned there; and that which can

¹⁷⁹Smith, et al., op. cit.

best be learned through direct experience outside the classroom, in contact with native materials and life situations, should there be learned.¹⁸⁰

In the literature from 1945 to 1963*, he further stated that outdoor education:

1. ...places the main emphasis on learning through direct experience.
2. ...is the wedge that can open that interesting door to realism, adventure, and other values.
3. ...means taking the children to the original source material whenever possible.
4. ...is the utilization of the whole environmental area commencing with the school yard and extending outward as far as the students care to walk or the school authorities care to transport them.
5. ...forces the issue of integration in the curriculum, to study and experience things in their total relationships--one thing to the other.
6. ...provides children with "the experience of natural living as a means of sharpening and deepening all of their learning.
7. ...is normal; it is plain, direct, and simple.
8. ...has to come in a flow of experience and discovery.
9. ...is a total interrelationship of all kinds of experiences.

¹⁸⁰Lloyd B. Sharp, "Basic Considerations in Outdoor and Camping Education," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, 31:43, May, 1947.

*Reference sources are listed chronologically in Appendix A.

10. ...includes all the curriculum, all areas of learning at any level.
11. ...is living and learning in the out-of-doors.
12. ...provides many opportunities for action which in turn produces a change in behavior.

Smith also provided numerous interpretations of the outdoor education concept during the same period.* He said that outdoor education:

1. ...cuts across the school's curriculum offerings through the sciences, arts, music, outdoor sports, and many other activities.
2. ...involves the use of the out-of-doors as an experiential curriculum in which some of the needs of children and youth can be fulfilled.
3. ...includes activities related directly to the school curriculum.
4. ...presents opportunities for relating subject matter to reality rather than using a new method to meet old subject matter objectives.
5. ...is 'those learnings that can be achieved best outside of the classroom'.
6. ...is an integral part of the community school curriculum and an essential in general education.
7. ...is more conducive to direct experience and lends itself to a maximum amount of co-operative planning.
8. ...means education in the outdoors.
9. ...deals directly with the natural resources

*Reference sources are listed chronologically in Appendix B.

and life situations that are found in outdoor settings.

10. ...consists of those direct learning experiences that involve enjoying, interpreting, and wisely using the natural environment in achieving, at least in part, the objectives of education.
11. ...constitutes a setting for learning and a way of living.
12. ...is a means of curriculum enrichment.

The nature of society and its cultural values. It is reasonable to assume that leaders in outdoor education have been aware of many of the facets of society and values held by different segments of the culture. Filtered through a personal value system, a person gains insights and impressions of what is happening around him and attributes special importance to those particular aspects of societal values and changes as it fits his own needs and interests and his perception of the needs and interests of others.

In light of the above, it seems that in outdoor education, a leader's personal awareness of himself and society becomes translated into a social basis for action. As a spokesman for the outdoor education movement, he reveals his interpretation of the basis for outdoor education verbally both in speech and writing.

From an examination of Sharp's and Smith's recent writings there was found to be due recognition given to the

impact of industrialization and to needs growing out of changing patterns of living. As population increased and shifted from a rural society to an urban society with less than ten percent of the people still living on farms, a frenzied tempo of modern living has resulted. Urbanization has deprived children from close contact with the land, automation and mechanization have dulled creative energy while leaving more free time available, and people have become more sedentary. While a high standard of living has brought material advantages, man has also harnessed a force that is capable of mass destruction.

In America, people have more time to engage in activities of their own choice, and there has been a parallel increase of interest in and use of the outdoors for release, relaxation, and stabilization of body and mind. However, there is a wide-spread lack of appreciation and skill for participation in creative living.

Modern society has created the need for mental and physical fitness, for regaining contact with basic realities found in nature, for a more creative living, and for spiritual satisfactions. Man has the need to live peaceably with man and with nature and to develop tolerance, self-reliance, and understanding.

One very important value held for a democracy such as

ours is the demand for literate people who will preserve and extend freedom, and who can grasp basic human values, and the basic realities of life. Our natural heritage of outdoor living in the frontier tradition and our concern for the wise use of natural resources are two very significant aspects of our cultural values.

A free public education for all children is important in society and the school acts as an agent for developing each individual to his fullest potential as well as for instilling democratic values and passing on the cultural heritage.

The learner and learning. It is believed that the nature of man is such that basically he has a need for non-artificial environment and cannot be separated from it, for to separate him causes continuous pressures. Therefore, there will always be a need to get back to the soil in which man has his roots. Man is totally dependent upon the natural resources for food, clothing, and shelter, and this condition will always exist. Man basically needs to identify with something larger than self and strives for spiritual uplift. He is by nature a social animal and seeks to have pleasure in life.

Children and youth can be described as adventurous, exploratory minded, active, energetic, and curious. They

possess a natural yearning for the vigorous outdoor life and respond readily and happily to it.

Outdoor education is predicated on the principle of learning through direct experiences. This implies that there is multisensory learning in which the learner is actively involved with concrete, physical reality. "Learning by doing," as this principle is sometimes commonly called, also implies that the learner is involved as a total organism.

The methods used in outdoor education are said to provide intrinsic motivation. The outdoors is approached through discovery, exploration, adventure, and research in which there is intense interest in activities that are natural to children and problem solving is used in the context of the natural setting.

Outdoor education provides for integration of learning in a setting that makes teaching more creative, and also is directed toward the acquisition of specific skills and knowledge. There is a permissive atmosphere which develops teacher-pupil rapport and allows students to become actively involved in planning with the teacher for learning experiences.

The role and function of the school. When education is broadly defined as living and the objective is preparation for living at its best, the goals for general education become spelled out in the detailed aims formulated by the

Educational Policies Commission.¹⁸¹ The implementation of these aims in the community school setting means that public education has as part of its responsibility the providing for:

(1) a background for citizenship through opportunities to experience democratic processes and to develop appreciation and respect for the country.

(2) the preservation of a heritage of outdoor living and the development of the ability to live safely and happily in the outdoors.

(3) experiences in realistic and purposeful living which include practice in living together in a manner that would bring about the best total personality growth and understanding of all groups, creeds, and races.

(4) an enrichment of spiritual life.

(5) the use of the outdoors as a laboratory to supplement classroom learning.

(6) instilling love, appreciation, understanding, and wise use of the outdoors and all of its resources and beauty.

¹⁸¹Educational Policies Commission, The Purposes of Education in American Democracy (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1938). The aims were stated under the headings of self-realization, human relationship, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility.

(7) experiences relating to fitness and safety.

(8) development of skills, attitudes, and appreciations that result in happy and constructive use of leisure time.

Processes of developing programs and practices. Both Sharp and Smith recognized the need for preparing leadership and were actively involved in teaching courses, conducting workshops and institutes, and speaking before many audiences throughout the country. As consultants they served a key role in the initiation and development of a number of programs, pilot projects, and experimental ventures. Sharp's own participation in primitive outdoor living and Smith's interest in outdoor recreational activities served as living examples of the philosophy they promoted. In the literature, they offered advice, inspiration, and encouragement as well as precepts and specific information on procedures for initiating and developing programs. They emphasized the need for co-operative effort through an interdisciplinary approach at all levels--local, state, and national.

Efforts Towards Refining the Basis for Outdoor Education

In the past few years there has been an increasing awareness by Smith of the importance of outdoor recreational activities in various segments of society. He has become

more active at the national level in encouraging the expansion of outdoor recreation programs, facilities, and resources, and has given more time to the reinterpretation of the outdoor education concept in light of these developments. In the process, depth and breadth have been given to the meaning of the outdoor education concept. It is interesting to note that outdoor education was at one time thought of as being jointly a movement with school camping whereas now, in the literature, it is used in the phrase "outdoor education and outdoor recreation". Thus there are indications that a new movement is in the making with modifications in the basis for outdoor education.

Sharp, on the other hand, was aware of another characteristic in society more closely concerned with the conventional role of the school. The general shift in education in the past few years towards "excellence" and efficiency in learning provided the opportunity for Sharp, a short time before his death, to give more attention to land areas for enriched learning and to interpret the "academic soundness" of outdoor education. In 1963 he said that "as long as the program (of outdoor education) is based on efficiency of learning and is an integral part of the curriculum, rapid progress will be made."¹⁸²

¹⁸²Lloyd B. Sharp, address presented at the National Convention of the American Association of School Administrators, Atlantic City, New Jersey, February 19, 1963.

Intellectual efficiency through outdoor learning was also emphasized by Hammerman and Hammerman in 1964.¹⁸³

A basis does not evolve apart from experience and involvement of those who are part of the movement. Through the activities and concerns for leadership, there seems to be a continuous recognition of changes resulting in ideas and concepts that become part of the basis for outdoor education.

Problems and Issues

At one time a major issue in outdoor education was whether school camping programs should be "camping oriented" or "school oriented."¹⁸⁴ There have been a number of occasions when this and other basic issues were debated at national conferences, in special committees, within the structure of organizations, and between individuals. In interpreting outdoor education and the direction it should take, the primary concern seemed to be not so much with the soundness of the basis, but with the form taken in programs and practices. In 1958, Donaldson suggested as an urgent

¹⁸³Donald R. Hammerman and William M. Hammerman, Teaching in the Outdoors (Minneapolis, Minnesota: Burgess Publishing Company, 1964).

¹⁸⁴Robert P. Brimm, "What are the Issues in Camping and Outdoor Education?," Camping Magazine, 31:14-15, January, 1959.

need:

...that a body of well-thought-out, well stated philosophical literature be developed least outdoor education, which has been called this century's greatest contribution to education, go the way other movements which were long on enthusiastic deers and short on rationale.¹⁸⁵

There have been efforts made to develop such a body of literature, yet there still seem to be apparent problems that remain unresolved. The writer's own experience and his extensive survey of historical developments suggest a need for continuous examination of the basis for outdoor education. In the opinion of the writer, the following needs must be faced in the next stages of developing a basis for outdoor education:

1. To give precise meaning to the definition of outdoor education and such concepts as reality, experience, and curriculum.
2. To define outdoor experiences in qualitative terms.
3. To determine the validity of the proposition that man is inherently attached to the land.
4. To define the teaching-learning process in the

¹⁸⁵George Donaldson and Louise Donaldson, "Outdoor Education--A Bibliography," (Washington, D. C.: AAHPER, May, 1958). (mimeographed)

outdoors more fully in relation to continuity, growth, perception, and personal meaning.

5. To examine the relationship between direct and vicarious experience and between concretions and abstractions.

6. To determine the role of outdoor education in the continuity and balance of the curriculum, kindergarten through high school.

7. To determine priority needs of society and the role of outdoor education in meeting those needs within the framework of public education.

8. To develop a more adequate concept of the process of change in developing programs and practices in outdoor education.

9. To develop awareness of the image that outdoor education communicates to various people.

10. To provide a more adequate concept of program development for local needs and interests, and individual teacher ability.

11. To resolve inconsistencies between elements of the basis.

12. To make assumptions more explicit at all levels.

III. ANALYSIS OF THE DEVELOPMENT AND STATUS OF THE BASIS FOR OUTDOOR EDUCATION

Living and learning in the outdoors is as old as man himself. History of modern civilization is replete with examples of using the outdoors for education. Philosophers and educators such as Rousseau in the 18th century and Dewey in the 20th century endorsed first-hand experiences in the outdoors as a part of their concept of education.

However, it was not until the middle nineteen forties that the concept "outdoor education" as it is known today began to emerge out of school camping and other related movements. In the process, all previous historical and philosophical developments have come to be considered as a part of an expanding outdoor education movement.

It has been shown that both the concept and the movement were closely associated with the careers of Sharp and Smith, and that through an analysis of their lives and writings the historical development of the basis for outdoor education could be traced.

The Life-space Concept in Analyzing Developments

Thoughts and ideas, as well as dates, periods, and events, constitute a body of information that can be useful in gaining historical perspective. Also, the lives and

relationships of people afford further insight and understanding. An attempt will be made here to show how "life-space", a term used by Lewin in exploring psychological freedom and responsibility, might serve equally well as a concept for describing the personal relationships of individuals involved in the development of a basis for outdoor education.

Lewin described the kind of psychological life-space needed by children in attaining a high level of reality necessary for making responsible decisions.¹⁸⁶ Life-space in this sense could be used as a model for describing and analyzing the contributions of learning experiences in the outdoors to responsible decision making. But at this point in the study another meaning is being given to the concept of life-space as the development of a basis for outdoor education is being considered. Here, life-space is used to describe the patterns of interaction that occurred in the relationships of persons associated with the outdoor education movement.

The experiences, both personal and professional, included in each individual's life-space have been as much a part of the development of the basis for outdoor education

¹⁸⁶Kurt Lewin, A Dynamic Theory of Personality (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1935).

as the philosophical positions that have been verbalized orally and in print.

An example of life-space in outdoor education was briefly cited in developments centered around Melby.¹⁸⁷ This may be viewed as complex interrelations of persons involved in those events. However, instead of a pattern similar to that diagrammed in a sociogram, the pattern of life-space represents the personal associations that Melby, Masters, Sharp, Smith, and Donaldson had with each other.

The extent and quality of their relationships could hardly be diagrammed, nor would it be possible to represent the entire life-space of all those persons involved in the outdoor education movement. But, the life-space of each person does exist in time and place, and has had a significant impact on the basis for outdoor education.

Sharp and Smith's early life-space on the farm would seemingly instill values quite different from those acquired by a boy growing up now in the heart of a large metropolis, or an equally large suburbia. The life-space surrounding developments at Life Camps was certainly different from that in the Michigan Department of Public Instruction and both are different from the life-space of the world today as

¹⁸⁷See page 145.

compared with then.

Where the term life-space has been suggested as a concept for giving meaning to the healthy development of children, it seems that it might also be appropriately used in giving meaning to the human development of outdoor education.

The Status and Effectiveness of the Present Basis

The basis for outdoor education, in one sense, exists in the general body of literature that supports all education. But in order to be useful in furthering the outdoor education movement, it must be extracted and interpreted through the perceptions of people concerned with outdoor education. Therefore what has been spoken and written over a period of some thirty years by persons in outdoor education constitutes a recognizable source for determining the basis that has evolved.

The outdoor education concept has been interpreted and promoted by many persons among whom Sharp and Smith stand out as the most prominent in giving it wide national recognition. Their writings, both past and present, have been a key source for identifying the basis for outdoor education and have been augmented by those who share many of their values and convictions.

In passing through developmental stages, the basis

has changed from a vague awareness of related factors to a more consciously thought-out body of ideas and philosophy, and from narrowness to breadth in its application to educational activities in the school program.

Specifically, this has meant a change from a concept of outdoor education as subject matter taught in a camp setting to the present concept of outdoor education as the utilization of the outdoors as an integral part of the curriculum. This change has been in a sense a reflection of changes in a cultural pattern from simple rural life, where the outdoors was a part of the everyday experiences of people, to a highly complex mode of urban living in which the outdoors is alien to many people who still depend on it for basic necessities as well as for leisure time pursuits.

The role of the public school has changed from that of primarily providing intellectual learning for the few going on to higher education to a comprehensive program geared to make a maximum contribution to the total development of all people. As the schools have sought to improve themselves and society, there has been a tendency to focus alternately on the learner and on what is to be learned. In the process, overall gains have resulted in balanced progress. During a period of some thirty years the increased amount of knowledge about the learner has been used effectively

in determining educational programs; also new insights into the nature of the process of learning have had an impact on the quality of learning. This in turn has heightened concern for direct experience and the relationship of direct experience to other learnings.

The process of developing new programs and practices has changed from that of administrative expediency in which the end goals were extolled and provided the sanction for issuing decrees at the top level, to that of a deep concern for the means by which changes become reflected in desirable behavioral outcomes. This in turn has heightened an interest in the process of change and in the need for competent professional leadership. Such concern is reflected in effective decision making where leaders assume responsibility for improvement in the school program through outdoor education.

The effectiveness of the basis for outdoor education must be determined in relation to some acceptable criteria. One yardstick could be the results obtained from outdoor education programs as revealed in behavioral outcomes. Such criteria would indicate specific changes of behavior in the areas of: (1) information and knowledge about the outdoors, (2) attitudes and appreciations, (3) competency in outdoor skills, (4) development of outdoor interests, and (5)

participation in outdoor pursuits.

Attempts at determining behavioral changes resulting from outdoor education programs have been extremely limited. However, a few research studies reported in Chapter II offer some indication of the effectiveness of school camping programs.

Another indication of effectiveness might be found in quantitative and qualitative information concerning:

1. The initiation or modification of programs and practices in schools and in leadership preparation programs.

2. The involvement of teachers and administrators in outdoor education.

3. The degree to which the outdoor education concept has penetrated organized groups such as professional associations and governmental agencies.

4. The enactment of legislation which facilitates outdoor learning resulting in part from the efforts of outdoor educators.

5. The publication of books, theses and dissertations, pamphlets, articles, and other literature.

6. The accomplishments of the Outdoor Education Association and the Outdoor Education Project.

To compile and present all available evidence is not the purpose of this study, but insight gained from examining

some of the kinds of evidence suggested leads to the conclusion that:

1. The outdoor education concept has been accepted: (a) in pilot projects, experimental programs, and isolated cases of state and local programs; (b) in the recognition to some degree of the meaning and value of outdoor learning experiences; (c) in the close contact persons have had with leaders in the movement or with those who have had leadership training; and (d) in organizations and agencies to the degree of personal and direct association with key leaders.

2. The volume of outdoor education literature has declined since the late nineteen fifties, but more complete and comprehensive texts have been published since that time.

3. Nationally, the impact of the concept on programs and practices has only within the past five to ten years begun to reach beyond efforts limited to school camping.

4. Although the "goodness" ascribed to outdoor education has been theoretically presented, it has not been substantially confirmed through evaluation of behavioral changes.

5. The Outdoor Education Association and the Outdoor Education Project have played key roles in promoting and interpreting outdoor education and disseminating general information and specific knowledge of practices.

The Need for Developing a Current Rationale for Outdoor Education

Sharp was always enthusiastically optimistic about the progress in outdoor education. In 1961, he said:

I just hope to share the thrill and the really deep satisfaction to find that, as I really think, the concept of outdoor education is off the pad. It may go a little irregular now and then, but a very substantial and powerful influence in American education and life is on the way. It's had a long festering period and if anybody can find any fault with it, basically, they should have said so a long time ago.¹⁸⁸

Smith believed that "outdoor education is no longer in the catagory of 'desired objectives' of education--it is a necessity which is now urgent because of the rapid changes in the American pattern of living".¹⁸⁹

As Sharp and Smith were primary spokesmen for the movement, their enthusiasm and urgency is understandable. Their broadened interpretation of the outdoor education concept in the past few years provided an opportunity to reach more people while at the same time programs and practices already being carried on began to receive more attention.

¹⁸⁸Lloyd B. Sharp, "Outdoor Education is Off the Pad," Extending Education (Carbondale, Illinois: The Outdoor Education Association, Inc., Vol. VI, No. 1, September, 1961).

¹⁸⁹Julian W. Smith, Outdoor Education, newsletter, Vol. VIII, No. 2 (East Lansing, Michigan: The Outdoor Education Project, Spring, 1963).

The outdoor education movement has had an impact on many segments of education. In passing from an inception period to one of ripening maturity, it has taken new directions and has changed in its emphasis. However, along with whatever progress has been made there still remains much that could be accomplished in improving school programs and teaching practices. For outdoor education to meet the needs of a rapidly changing society and the demands for quality education, the continuous task of building a sound basis is necessary.

The enthusiasm for outdoor living that is reflected in the lives and careers of leaders in outdoor education has been interwoven in the present basis. To go beyond the level of justification for outdoor education programs seems to be the next logical step in the improvement of that basis. The development of a current rationale would help to strengthen the basis for outdoor education by giving serious consideration to the underlying reasons for using the outdoors as a setting for meaningful learning experiences in the school curriculum.

The Role of Principles of Curriculum Development

Outdoor education has been referred to at various times as a curriculum frontier, innovation, and development. It has also been described as an integral part of the

curriculum or a curriculum supplement that enriches, facilitates, enhances, and vitalizes learning. A "climate for learning" and "an emphasis in learning" are qualities that have been attributed to the use of the outdoors as a laboratory or as an extension of the classroom.

Such grandiose expressions in one paragraph are almost overwhelming. But there is an implied assumption that the outdoor education concept has value for the schools. This assumption leads to another--that if outdoor education is to be incorporated in the curriculum it must be recognized as a means of meeting certain objectives in a given situation. This recognition is dependent in part on the meaning derived from its basis and the process by which the basis is constructed and weighed.

It has been suggested that if outdoor education is to make its maximum contribution to schools, a continuous examination and strengthening of its basis is essential. Those persons responsible for education are continually judging the value of proposed innovations and modifications and it is through such persons that changes occur in the curriculum.

Change is a concern of much of society today and no less of one to those involved in continuous improvement of the school curriculum. Out of this concern for change and improvement has grown a body of knowledge that reflects

principles for curriculum development. Such principles would seem to be a reasonable guide for developing an outdoor education rationale and would also provide direction for translating the rationale into action.

IV. SUMMARY

In this chapter an account of historical developments in the lives and careers of Lloyd B. Sharp and Julian W. Smith was presented, citing pertinent facts and ideas which seemed to have had an important effect in shaping the basis for outdoor education. Attention was called to the relationship between Sharp's and Smith's careers, and several forces that served as a stimulus for new ideas and insights were discussed in relation to the kinds of significant impact they may have had on the thinking of the two men.

The nature of the basis for outdoor education was presented, indicating its sources, efforts at refinement, and some of the problems and issues that have resulted. In analyzing the development and status of the basis, the role that relationships and interaction of people played in the rise of the outdoor education movement was emphasized.

Conclusions reached in evaluating the effectiveness of the basis for outdoor education indicated that although

outdoor education has had a significant influence on American education, there is a need for continuous improvement. It was suggested that for outdoor education to become more effective in the years ahead its basis needs to be continually examined and strengthened. Development of a current rationale using principles of curriculum development was proposed as a possible next step towards improvement of the basis for outdoor education which in turn would hopefully result in more effective programs and practices.

The following questions seem to suggest direction that needs to be taken in considering elements for a current rationale:

How are elements of a rationale determined?

What are the sources of elements for a rationale?

Who is involved in developing and utilizing a rationale, and what processes should be used?

Which elements from the present basis for outdoor education should be incorporated in a current rationale, and which elements need to be scrutinized and strengthened?

What elements can be derived from new insights and new knowledge?

CHAPTER IV

DEVELOPING A CURRENT RATIONALE FOR OUTDOOR EDUCATION

I. DETERMINING THE ELEMENTS OF A RATIONALE FOR OUTDOOR EDUCATION

Rationale development, one fundamental step in improving school programs and practices, is viewed as a part of a curriculum development process. Tyler stated that in the improvement of curriculum "the purpose of the rationale is to give a view of the elements that are involved in a program of instruction and their necessary interrelations."¹ A rationale may not necessarily be the starting point for curriculum study but it does become an important aspect as educational objectives are examined in relationship to proposed changes. Taba viewed the rationale in conjunction with objectives in the following way:

An organized statement of objectives should be more than a mere grouping of individual objectives. It should also convey the fundamental rationale on which the very conception of objectives is based. This rationale should indicate what is important in education and where the subsidiary values lie.²

¹Ralph W. Tyler, Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1950), p. 83.

²Hilda Taba, Curriculum Development Theory and Practice (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1962), p. 211.

Whether outdoor education is defined as an integral part of the curriculum or is viewed as an innovation in the curriculum, it seems reasonable to assume that curriculum development processes, including rationale development, would be applicable to outdoor education.

The direction and scope that a rationale for outdoor education might take is partly dependent on the needs and insights of a particular person or group in relation to his or their own problems and concerns. However, elements that become incorporated in a rationale should be selected on the basis of valid criteria and, in order that the elements be reasonable, they should result from an intelligent examination of past experience as well as from new knowledge.

Conditions that warrant curriculum improvement serve as a basis for determining which general elements should be included in a rationale. These conditions are recognized as valid reasons for change when one believes that education should help people to live better lives and build better societies.

If our instructional program is to consist only of knowledge that is of tested worth to man everywhere, little reason exists for changing the program except as some new knowledge proves itself worthier than some older knowledge.

But if the schools' curriculum is to be derived

from an analysis of society and of students' personal-social needs as these are related to broad social problems and conditions, then the curriculum will change as the major currents of society change.³

A rationale for outdoor education must then reflect an understanding of the conditions affecting the total educational program as well as present the unique contributions that the outdoors can make to education.

Determining General Elements for Public Education

There have been several points of view concerning factors that should be considered in determining the nature of the school curriculum. McNally and Passow stated that educational leadership:

...must take account of the values of the society the curriculum is to serve, the needs of the children who are part of that society, and the practical realities of time, place, and circumstance that exist in the educational system in which they work.⁴

They went on to say that "there is no essential conflict between 'eternal' values and the constant adaptation and

³Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Action for Curriculum Improvement, Yearbook (Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1951), p. 19.

⁴Harold J. McNally and A. Harry Passow, Improving the Quality of Public School Programs (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1960), p.5.

improvement of curriculum".⁵

Anderson discussed the following factors that affect decisions regarding curriculum policy and practice: (1) the teacher's orientation, (2) the culture and community values, (3) democratic principles, (4) learning principles, and (5) human growth and development.⁶

Smith, Stanley, and Shores cited as the first significant aspect of curriculum development the determination of educational directions.⁷ Such direction, they said, is related to educational objectives that must be validated on the basis of five criteria: (1) social adequacy, (2) basic human needs, (3) democratic ideals, (4) consistency and non-contradiction, and (5) behavioristic interpretation.

Tyler, in suggesting a means of arriving at educational objectives, discussed sources for getting information that would be helpful in making wise choices. He felt that no one source would suffice and he gave consideration to the following for selecting objectives: (1) studies of the learners, (2) studies of contemporary life outside the

⁵Ibid.

⁶Vernon E. Anderson, Principles and Procedures of Curriculum Improvement (New York: The Roland Press, 1956).

⁷B. Othanel Smith, William O. Stanley, and J. Harlan Shores, Fundamentals of Curriculum Development (Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Company, 1950).

school, (3) suggestions from subject matter specialists, (4) the use of philosophy, and (5) the use of the psychology of learning.⁸

Krug stated that solving problems in the schools "depend on philosophy, objectives, values, fundamental directions".⁹ He pointed out that:

...these cannot be arrived at without a consideration of the nature of our society and the nature of human personality, leading to some conception of children and youth needs in our culture, within the framework of certain philosophical values.¹⁰

Taba suggested the analysis of society, culture, learning, the learning process, and the nature of knowledge in order to determine the purposes of the school and the nature of the curriculum.¹¹

There seems to be common agreement in the curriculum literature reviewed that the nature of society, the learner and learning, and the role of the school are three broad areas that need to be considered in any curriculum development effort. Recent major changes in cultural values and

⁸Tyler, op. cit.

⁹Edward A. Krug, Curriculum Planning (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950), p. 31.

¹⁰Ibid.

¹¹Taba, op. cit., p. 10.

conditions should be recognized as social realities, knowledge about the learner and learning needs to be carefully analyzed, and the role and function of the public schools need to be clearly defined. Since outdoor education is considered an integral part of the total education program, all three of these interrelated factors should be considered as sources for deriving general elements for an outdoor education rationale. Also, basic values and beliefs must be considered while at the same time new meaning is being given to such values. Although the primary group of values for our society, democratic principles and ideals, appear to be somewhat vague, continuous sharpening and clarifying of these values can result in democratic practices reaching higher levels of consistency.

While these ideals are always growing and being reinterpreted as conditions change, a certain degree of continuity of meaning is always present. They therefore supply the most reliable guideposts by which the profession can tell whether or not it is serving the total public good.¹²

General elements of a rationale for outdoor education cannot be derived from any one source. The rationale must be based on multiple, interrelated sources and must be consistent with the basic values held by our society. It must

¹²Smith, Stanley, and Shores, op. cit., p. 653.

grow out of an understanding of the culture, the nature of the learner and learning, and the functions of the public schools.

There must be both internal consistency and comprehensiveness in presenting elements that will lead to more effective outdoor education programs and practices.

Determining Specific Elements for Outdoor Education

The specific elements of a rationale for outdoor education should follow from the general elements and be in accord with them. Specific elements should be validated on the basis of broad human experience with the natural environment as well as substantiating evidence from principles and theories. Special attention should be given to the unique qualities of the outdoor setting that can be utilized as an integral part of the school curriculum.

A statement of belief about the natural environment and the human organism's relation to it should form a basic premise upon which a position can be taken. Intellectual and aesthetic notions about the qualities which are inherent in the outdoors should be expressed. Qualities which can make learning more effective and meaningful need to be recognized and the relationship between such qualities and the educational program of the school should be made apparent.

The effect that the outdoors can have on the individual

and the group should be indicated along with an explanation of opportunities that outdoor settings offer for learning experiences. An explanation of how such experiences fit into a learning sequence and how they contribute to the learner's acquiring personal meaning should also be presented.

The role of the teacher in outdoor situations should be considered, indicating how outdoor experiences can be carried out as a part of the on-going curriculum. The teaching-learning process in the outdoors should be in agreement with democratic values and should contribute to objectives of education, especially to its central purpose.

II. A RATIONALE FOR OUTDOOR EDUCATION

The elements of a rationale form a basis for developing programs and practices. The elements of this rationale for outdoor education are presented under five main headings: (1) Cultural values of society, (2) Contemporary conditions in society, (3) The learner and learning, (4) Objectives of education, and (5) The outdoors as a setting for education.

General Elements of a Rationale for Outdoor Education

Cultural values of society. The basic core of cultural values is expressed in the democratic values of our society. When such values are applied not only to political action but

to a way of living they embrace all human behavior. They provide a set of guidelines for carrying out in practice goals that are professed to be those of a free society.

Democratic values can be stated briefly as: (1) the expression of faith in and the respect for all individuals, (2) the concern for the welfare of others and one's own actions, (3) the participation in the making and carrying out of decisions, and (4) the use of intelligence in solving problems. These ideals reflect ethical and moral principles that can be used for determining direction in which a program of the public schools should move.

When democracy is interpreted as a way of life--a means as well as an end--its basic principles must be applied to all phases of life and opportunities must be provided for the development of individuals who will live by these principles. As an institution created by society, the public schools help to serve that function. The schools must then reflect democratic principles not only in their goals, but in their programs and practices as well, to insure the preservation and continuous growth of our democratic society.

A belief in the worth and dignity of the individual means that each person must have an opportunity for developing his potentials to the fullest extent. Respect for the individual implies that differences, uniqueness, creativeness,

autonomy, independent thinking, and equality of opportunity must be cherished. Every individual must have the opportunity for maximum personal growth not only intellectually, but socially, physically, and emotionally as well.

The task of developing citizens who will have concern for the welfare of others requires opportunities for individuals to grow in their own sense of security, to become sensitive to the needs and problems of their fellow men, to develop empathy with other human beings, and to work cooperatively for the common good. Experiences in working together to solve common problems must be provided. Individuals need to examine the meaning of their experiences, examine their own values and beliefs, develop appreciation for the beauty in life, and gain the knowledge and understanding necessary for living in a scientific age.

In arriving at solutions to problems that affect both the individual and the group, facts must be utilized. A method of intelligence must be employed by persons who have the self-discipline to accept freedom and the responsibility for their own actions.

Democratic values require that action must be taken and that such action be based on understanding and sound thinking. Through such understanding problems can be solved intelligently. Experiences that will help to build the

generalizations necessary for understanding are essential. Such experiences must involve contact with and participation in various kinds of situations that call for sound choice and further action.

The school serves as the primary agent of society charged with the responsibility for developing democratic values in all children and youth. Outdoor education, as an integral part of the school curriculum, must be in harmony with democratic principles and must incorporate democratic practices as a part of any proposed curriculum development involving the use of the outdoors.

Contemporary conditions in society. The most prominent features of the world today are: (1) the vast amount of change taking place and (2) the rate at which some changes are occurring. "Today, change is taking place so rapidly in every aspect of life that this quality has become the most outstanding characteristic of the mid-twentieth century."¹³ In our own country we are continuously faced with complex and far-reaching problems that are created by technological progress. These problems have not just sprung up over night, but have been with us for some time. However, as one

¹³Lavone Hanna, "Meeting the Challenge," What Are the Sources of the Curriculum (Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1962), p. 53.



sociologist says:

The spread of technological change in the 20th century has startled the laymen, but the direction of those changes has always seemed clear. Both literary and scientific prophets have outlined these changes for us over the past half century. We are surprised primarily because the prophecies come true so quickly. That they do in fact come about, however, surprises few people.¹⁴

The direction of change has been noticeable both in our rising standard of living and in our patterns of living. We point with pride to the spread of industry over the past fifty years. The growth of the economic sector of our society has brought great material abundance. The means of production has steadily moved to higher levels of efficiency through automation and specialization, and has resulted in increased quantity and quality of consumer goods. Transportation has become more rapid and comfortable, communication has advanced to new frontiers of satellite relay systems, and space exploration has begun to take us to the outer reaches of the universe. Advances in all areas of science have been at the forefront of public attention. People, on the whole, are better educated, have more cultural opportunities, and have more leisure time than they had a

¹⁴William J. Goode, "Outdoor Recreation and the Family to the Year 2000," Trends in American Living and Outdoor Recreation, ORRRC Study Report #22 (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1962), p. 102.

generation ago.

On the other hand, we are faced with social problems that affect a majority of the people in some way. Poverty, inadequate housing, racial strife, moral and spiritual apathy, family breakdown, mental illness, intergroup tensions, job unemployment and displacement, depletion of natural resources, concerns for world peace, and ideological competition with communism are some of the broad categories into which these problems fall. Within each there are numerous and complex facets which defy easy solution. Some of these problems have resulted from a population increase and from a shift of population to urban and suburban areas, but essentially they concern all people regardless of geographical location. They will continue to press upon us both in the immediate future and in the lifetime of future generations.

The outdoors has played a particularly important role in a growing industrial society such as ours. The relationship of people to the natural environment has been historically one of struggle to live in harmony with the basic sources of primary physical needs--food, clothing, and shelter. The depletion of natural resources remains a national concern as the cultural pattern of living in close association with nature gradually becomes a heritage of the past. Shifts in population to urban areas have put a large

majority of people out of direct contact with the more natural areas in their everyday living. This in turn has created a greater need for gaining knowledge and understanding of the dimensions and potentials of the outdoors.

A reinterpretation of our outdoor heritage is being made as, individually and collectively, man learns how to utilize natural resources more effectively and to control the harmful effects of natural phenomena. Newer patterns of urban living are rapidly spreading in all areas of the country causing people to seek relief from living in an artificial environment. The use of the outdoors for gaining physical and emotional well-being is becoming an increasingly important part of modern living, and, therefore, an adjunct of our outdoor heritage.¹⁵

In order to meet the challenges of modern living, it is essential that all citizens be capable of participating in the changes that are going on around them. Such participation should be the result of critical thinking and should be directed toward improving the conditions of our society as well as of all mankind. This calls for the development of healthy individuals who are capable of self-direction and who are willing to assume intelligent respon-

¹⁵Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission, Outdoor Recreation for America (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1962).

sibility for themselves and for the welfare of others. It should be the task of the schools to help develop the kinds of people who cannot only live productively in present society, but who will participate in making the world a better place in which to live. Part of this task involves preparation for making wise choices in the utilization of natural resources and in the selection of outdoor pursuits that contribute to the worthy use of leisure time.

The learner and learning. Recent theory in perceptual psychology has provided new insights into the nature of the learner and learning. The learner is seen as an individual in the process of becoming a more fully functioning person, and learning is viewed as the means by which such a person develops. The perceptualist's concern for human personality and behavior has led to attempts to define what a fully functioning, adequate person would be like.¹⁶ This model serves as a means of further identifying the conditions necessary for providing effective learning in the schools. Although each theorist has a somewhat different viewpoint, they all seem to agree that behavior is

¹⁶Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming! A New Focus, Yearbook (Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1962).

learned or that, conversely, learning results in a change of behavior.

Combs describes the adequate individual as one who has a positive self-concept, who identifies with others, who is open to and accepting of experience, and who has a rich and available perceptual field.¹⁷ The basic assumption underlying this position is that behavior is a result of the perceptions occurring at the time of the individual's behaving. Therefore the way in which the individual feels about himself and his environment will determine the action he will take in any situation.

Perception occurs within the individual and cannot be changed directly. But in order to change behavior, a change in perception must take place. Learning then becomes a matter of focusing attention on the factors that affect perception, and teaching becomes a process of helping the learner to perceive differently.

Perhaps the most important element of an adequate personality is a positive self-concept. This positive regard for self sets off a chain reaction which allows an individual to identify closely with others and in turn to be more open and accepting of experience. As a result he

¹⁷Ibid., pp. 50-62.

is better able to develop a rich and available perceptual field. It is this kind of person who, because of his favorable past experiences--especially with other people, feels an inner strength and security that allows him to go beyond self in his sensitivity to others.

It should not surprise us, therefore, that adequate persons usually possess a deep sense of duty and responsibility or that they are likely to be democratic in the fullest sense of the word.¹⁸

The adequate person is freer from threat and as a result is more capable of accepting change and using his own perceptions as a guide to making wise decisions regarding change. He is also more capable of accepting himself, thus allowing him to be more realistic in his own self-direction.

An openness allows the adequate person to be more inquiring, to be more imaginative, and to be more creative in response to his experiences. He is better able to gain the understandings and information needed for living in today's world and can use these more effectively in action. However, the availability of his perceptions is not automatic. It is largely the result of the individual's discovery of personal meaning in his experiences and in the satisfaction of his needs. Deeper and more significant meanings are

¹⁸Ibid., p. 55.

more likely to affect behavior, and, therefore, mere exposure to experiences and fragmentary knowledge alone will not suffice. Deeper meanings involve perceptions that result in understandings, beliefs, and convictions.

Teaching, then, is largely a matter of providing the learner with opportunities in which he can discover and explore the personal meaning of what is to be learned. Teaching is being aware of the learner as an individual, trying to understand him, and helping him satisfy basic needs as he is maturing. Because of the uniqueness of the learner, Kelley and Rasey said that teaching method "becomes one of doing things to the circumstances under which the learner tries to learn, rather than doing things to the individual."¹⁹

The learner must be encouraged and stimulated to fulfill his potentialities. He must be able to discover his own unique self and those qualities which make him a person of worth. He must be able to discover the personal meaning of the world around him and the people in it. He needs to develop not only an awareness of facts and information, but of the deeper understandings, beliefs, and

¹⁹Earl C. Kelley and Marie I. Rasey, Education and the Nature of Man (New York: Harper and Brothers, Publishers, 1952), p. 142.

convictions about those things that are significant for him and society.

Acquiring a rich perceptual field results from the individual's discovering personal meaning through experiences that he has as he interacts with the environment. It has been indicated that internal factors greatly affect perception of self and the world. These factors include self-concept, needs, purposes, motivation, and previous experience. Also, the nature of the external environment at the time of perceiving affects the extent of personal meaning discovered. Environment here refers to sources outside the individual.

The perception of the external environment constitutes reality for the individual since it is how things seem to him that are real. Each individual has his own unique environment created through perception. It is this reality that serves as a basis for action. Whether there is an absolute reality is a philosophical question that is not germane to the understanding of the learning process in this context.

Learning and experience. The concept of experience is used to describe personal involvement of the total organism in interaction with the environment. As such, it becomes intricately entwined with the nature of learning and can hardly be considered apart from the learning process.

Dewey saw the purpose of experience as leading to further experience and, thus, as synonymous with growth. He looked upon the goal of education in one sense as the acquiring of the desire to go on learning. He said that "every experience should do something to prepare a person for later experiences of a deeper and more expansive quality."²⁰ This means that serious attention must be devoted to the conditions, both internal and external, which give each experience a worthwhile meaning so that education may be an on-going process of growth.

The bio-social orientation of Dewey's philosophy is closely related to organismic theory found in perceptual psychology. They both stress the notion of the individual learner as a total organism, or "whole person", capable of growth and direction from within. This belief that the human creature is an organism motivated from within constitutes a basic premise from which Dewey viewed experience as an essential part of the growth process.

Experimentalism...holds that human values are paramount, and that the ultimate good is wealth of human life and experience. The human being is a physical and mental unity, an organism which is an

²⁰ John Dewey, Experience and Education, Collier Books Edition (New York: Collier Books, 1963), p. 47.

integrated whole from its earliest beginning as a single cell.²¹

Dewey's concept of growth is similar to the concept of self-actualizing proposed by Maslow and Rogers' concept of the fully-functioning individual.²²

What the organism experiences within is in response to what is outside the organism. The organism actively interacts with the environment. In this process of interaction, equal rights are assigned to both the objective and the internal conditions. Any normal experience is an interplay of these two sets of conditions and together they form what Dewey called a "situation". "The conceptions of situation and interaction are inseparable from each other. An experience is always what it is because of a transaction taking place between an individual and what, at the time, constitutes his environment..."²³

Theoretically, action within the organism may be divided into two phases for purposes of clarification.

²¹John A. Hockett, "Procedure for Developing an Integrative Curriculum," Newer Instructional Practices of Promise, 12th Yearbook, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1939), p. 75.

²²Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, loc. cit.

²³Dewey, op. cit., p. 43.

These consist of the action of the sensory mechanisms that relay impressions through the nerves to the brain and the response that occurs. These operations either occur simultaneously or in close proximity to each other. Sensory action may be multiple through any combination of senses or it may be singular, and may occur in varying degrees within each of the five senses. Response may also vary in degree within either the cognitive, affective, or motor domains, or a combination of domains. Thus, while the organism interacts as a whole, it does so in each situation with varying kinds and degrees of sensory action and varying kinds and degrees of response.

Internal action of the organism raises the question of what the action is involved with, and what the response is in relation to. This leads to a consideration of the environment in the interaction process.

The environment, when thought of as everything outside the organism, includes not only the physical setting and objects, but people, ideas, influences, conditions, and circumstances as well. These constitute the external reality with which the organism interacts. Although physical environment is relatively easy to conceive of, other elements of environment must be accounted for also. There is emotional reality as indicated by feelings of love and hate, and

social reality as experienced in the atmosphere created by a group of people. These are also part of the learning situation. Thus, the environment is made up of realities of various kinds that occur in various degrees of concreteness or abstraction.

The process of interacting means that the organism is involved with the environment through participation in activity. This activity may be direct or vicarious, or a combination of both, and results in giving meaning to a situation.²⁴ At any instant the kind of interaction may be minutely described using the detailed aspects of organism and environment as vehicles for verbal description. Since experience is not static but a continuous phenomenon, however, it seems fruitless to attempt such an analysis. What appears to be more significant is an understanding of the learning situation in relation to the functional use of experience.

To summarize, the organism senses and responds through the vehicle of perception in interacting with the concrete and abstract realities of the environment. Interaction constitutes involvement either directly or vicariously. Hence, a complexity of separate acts is a whole

²⁴Activity, in this sense, does not mean overt, physical activity only.

process of experience, affected by many forces, that results in bringing personal meaning to the organism. The figure on page 204 presents one way of looking at the components of a learning experience.

The organic connection between experience and education does not necessarily mean that all experiences are genuinely or equally educative. Experience can be mis-educative if it arrests or distorts growth. Also, experiences may be disconnected and not cumulatively linked to one another. The idea that experience can promote growth automatically was refuted by Dewey and he insisted that "everything depends upon the quality of the experience that is had."²⁵ He proposed two interrelated principles for insuring the quality of experience. These two principles, continuity and interaction, serve as criteria of experience and help to define the nature of growth experiences.

Continuity of experience rests on the biological interpretation of habit.

The basic characteristic of habit is that every experience enacted and undergone modifies the one who acts and undergoes, while this modification affects, whether we wish it or not, the quality of subsequent experiences.²⁶

²⁵Dewey, op. cit., p. 27.

²⁶Ibid., p. 35.

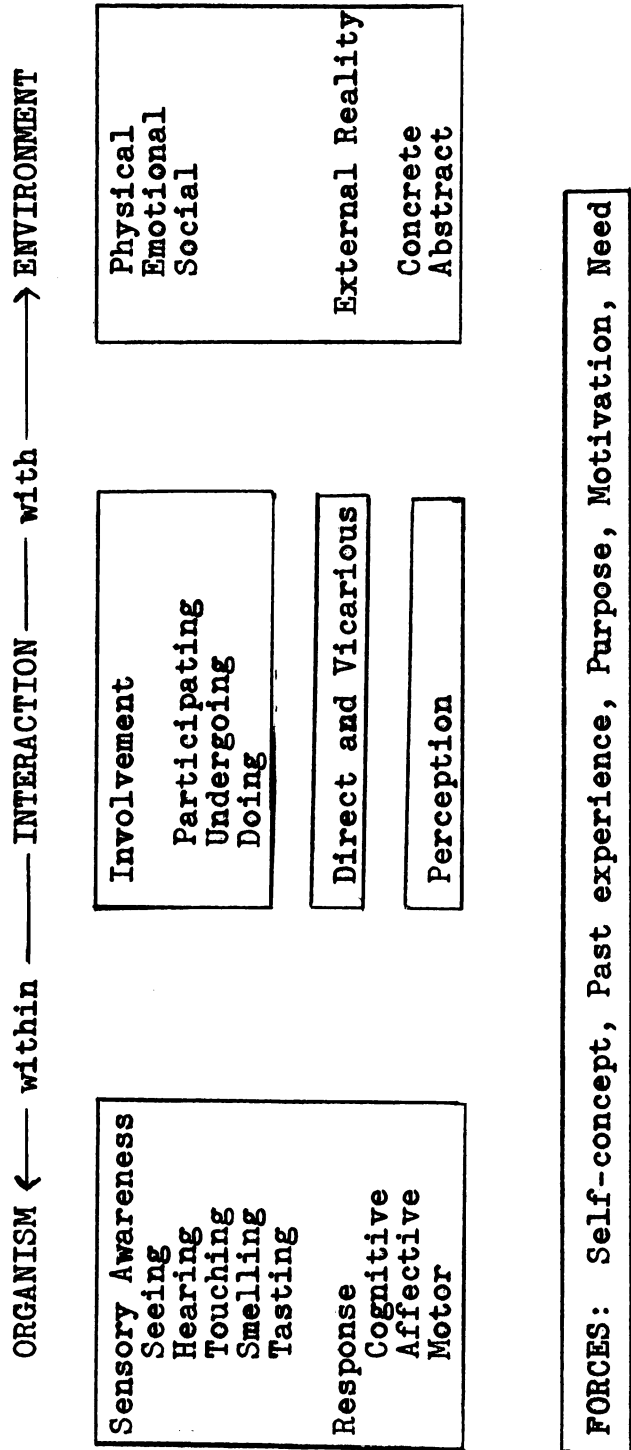


FIGURE 4

INDIVIDUAL EXPERIENCE IN LEARNING

The continuity principle implies that: (1) when development in a particular line promotes continuous growth, it functions as a worthwhile experience, and (2) growth is not only physical but intellectual and moral as well. Although any experience can be a positive force, "its value can be judged only on the ground of what it moves toward and into."²⁷ The teacher, who has a greater maturity of experience, has the responsibility for evaluating and directing the experiences of youth. He must help organize the conditions of children's experiences on the basis of what he judges to be conducive to continual growth, but he must also have "that sympathetic understanding of individuals as individuals which gives him an idea of what is actually going on in the minds of those who are learning."²⁸

Direct experience. Direct experience is a term sometimes used to describe involvement in a gross activity or situation utilizing to the fullest extent the physical and social environment. It is also used to convey the idea of sensory awareness of the physical environment such as in seeing and touching a tree. In the first instance, learners may have both direct and vicarious sensory experiences as a

²⁷Ibid., p. 38.

²⁸Ibid., p. 39.

part of a "gross direct experience". The use of the same term for different purposes creates confusion when trying to understand the nature of experience. Direct experience must be recognized as having different meanings in different instances.

Sensory experiences are sometimes described according to levels of directness and vicariousness. However, in the context of the figure on page 204, the use of the terms "direct experience" and "vicarious experience" seem to be misnomers. Experience designates a whole process in which the organism senses and responds to the environment which is either concrete or abstract. Therefore, it is the process of interaction or involvement that is either direct or vicarious and the term "direct interaction" would appear to be more appropriate.

Any classification of experience on the basis of directness or indirectness tends to compartmentalize artificially actual experience when considering a gross learning situation. There is a continual flow and interchange of both direct and vicarious interaction in almost any learning experience. In analyzing sensory awareness, however, it may be possible to construct a theoretical continuum of experience. Multisensory contact with concrete environment would constitute direct interaction at one end

of the continuum, and single sensory contact with symbolic abstractions would constitute vicarious interaction at the opposite end. Varying degrees of sensing, directness, and concreteness would occur along the continuum.

When direct experience is used to refer to gross learning situations, vicarious experience may be interpreted as organized race experiences in the form of abstractions. Sensory experience (awareness) through both direct and vicarious interaction, may then be considered as a different concept concerned primarily with the functioning of the human sensory mechanisms in relation to the total learning process.

Sensory awareness, one aspect of experience, is inseparable from total experience. They both are factors in the process of gaining meaning through the perception of reality. Since reality does come from what is made of sensory clues when such clues are acted on, concreteness of the experience is a vital part of the learning process. Kelley says that:

Abstractions must originally be derived from concretions and get their meaning from them. To the extent that we value abstractions in themselves, we depart from reality... Abstractions kept reasonably close to concretions from which they are derived are useful tools. When we assign them reality in themselves, we confuse a tool with what

we are making with the tool. The means becomes the end.²⁹

This implies that experience (including sensory awareness through direct interaction) provides a necessary basis from which meaningful generalizations, concepts, and beliefs may be derived. However, the nature and use of direct involvement must be flexible in kind and amount to fit the requirements of a given situation. In an organized learning situation, such requirements are determined, in part, through an understanding of the self-concept, the background of experiences, the maturity and purposes of the learner, and the nature of what is to be learned.

Experiences that are related to purposes become meaningful in that they become part of a continuous process of learning. "We might say that direct, purposeful experience is a means to an end--generalizations--provided we remember that generalizations are means to other generalizations and to new direct experiences. It is a dynamic process, an organic process".³⁰ Regardless of whether involvement is direct or vicarious, the individual must be able to organize and structure his experiences if they are

²⁹Earl C. Kelley, Education for What is Real (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1947), p. 42.

³⁰Edgar Dale, Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching (New York: The Dryden Press, 1946), p. 78.

to be means to ends in an organic process of learning.

When experience is purposeful, learning is active and the learner has certain aims in mind as he engages in an experience. The learner must identify his purposes and later be able to relate his experience and compare it with that of others. Experience must be reflected on and critically analyzed in order to be meaningful.

A consideration of maturity led Stratemeyer to state that:

When the learner has had little previous experience in the area of study or in closely related situations, and accordingly has had little background against which to check judgments and ideas, direct (sensory) experience becomes essential to intelligent active involvement.³¹

She remarked elsewhere that:

For most students, actually to go to see, or to have the real object in the classroom, provides the most meaningful experience. Pictures are one step removed. Words alone represent a second level of abstraction... In general, however, the younger the child, the more important the concrete experience is. Even at the adult level concepts are less accurate when experience background is meager.³²

³¹Florence B. Stratemeyer, "The Expanding Role of Direct Experience in Professional Education," Off-Campus Student Teaching, 30th Yearbook (Cedar Falls, Iowa: The Association for Student Teaching, 1951), p. 7.

³²Florence B. Stratemeyer, et al., Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1957), pp. 68-69.

Taba said that "primary experience is a starting point for all further learning and a prerequisite for learning new ideas".³³ However, as the learner matures and "the complexity of learning experiences increases, it is increasingly more difficult to channel direct experience into intellectually organized knowledge".³⁴

Burton, in making distinctions between general and specialized education, pointed out the differences between the level of maturity of the learner who is participating in general study and the one who is ready for specialization. He concluded that with more maturity:

...the learner is capable of learning through vicarious, particularly verbal, experience. He can generalize and transfer understandings, skills, and other learnings to new situations. He is quite capable of learning now through logically organized subject matter abstracted from the original and real situation.³⁵

Burton went on to state that "the learning of many things for many persons takes place through vicariously experiencing the direct experience of others".³⁶ But he cautioned

³³Taba, loc. cit.

³⁴Ibid., p. 405.

³⁵William H. Burton, The Guidance of Learning Activities (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1962, 3rd Edition), p. 22.

³⁶Ibid., p. 37.

that the vicarious experience must be an active process, and that merely to go through the motions is not to have a real vicarious experience. The significance of the theory of experience is that learning not only begins with experience, but that "the learner experiences the operations by which facts are compounded into ideas and concepts".³⁷ As raw experience is compounded into ideas, it acquires meaning. Then, "once a basic meaning is established by direct experience, conceptualization can be carried on by verbal abstractions and through vastly extended vicarious learning".³⁸

Because all personal experience is subject to bias, prejudice, and rationalization, it must be checked against the collective experiences of many others, critically analyzed, and subjected to controlled experimentation. However, "personal experience in simple, non-complicated, repetitive everyday affairs, experienced over and over by all individuals, is a reasonably reliable basis for knowledge".³⁹

Objectives of education. A period of thirty to thirty-five years has not changed the general objectives of

³⁷Taba, op. cit., p. 404.

³⁸Ibid., p. 155.

³⁹Burton, op. cit., p. 39.

education appreciably, although shifts in emphasis have occurred and different interpretations have been made over the years. The role of the public school remains essentially the same as that defined in the objectives of education of the Educational Policies Commission in 1938.⁴⁰ The objectives were presented in detail under these headings: (1) objectives of self-realization, (2) objectives of human relationships, (3) objectives of economic efficiency, and (4) objectives of civic responsibility. A detailed account of these objectives and other statements of educational purposes made by the Educational Policies Commission from 1937 to 1955 may be found in Kleindiest's study.⁴¹

In 1961, the Educational Policies Commission clarified the role of general objectives and indicated the need for a principle by which to identify the school's "necessary and appropriate contributions to individual development and the needs of society".⁴² The principle, presented as the

⁴⁰ Educational Policies Commission, The Purposes of Education in American Democracy (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1938).

⁴¹ Viola K. Kleindiest, "A Study of the Experiences of Camping for the Purpose of Pointing Out Ways in Which A School Camp Program May Supplement the Elementary School at the Sixth Grade Level," (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, New York University, New York, 1957), pp. 38-57.

⁴² Educational Policies Commission, The Central Purpose of American Education (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1961), p. 2.

central purpose of American education, was said to be the development of the rational powers of the individual.

These powers involve the processes of recalling and imagining, classifying and generalizing, comparing and evaluating, analyzing and synthesizing, and deducing and inferring. These processes enable one to apply logic and the available evidence to his ideas, attitudes, and actions, and to pursue better whatever goals he may have.⁴³

While recognizing the importance of intuitive, moral, and aesthetic capabilities, the Commission pointed out that the "common thread of education" is represented in the ability to: (1) think creatively, (2) derive knowledge and insight from rational inquiry, (3) reason, and (4) make intelligent choices. Rational thinking was said to be the foundation for achieving personal goals and for fulfilling one's obligation to society.

The means for developing the central purpose of education were outlined by the Commission pointing out that rational powers develop gradually and continuously. The motivation to seek such powers is dependent upon feelings of personal adequacy and is reinforced by successful experience. No one method or body of knowledge can assure rationality. However,

⁴³Ibid., p. 5.

...the processes of thought demand the ability to integrate perceptions of objective phenomena with judgments of value in which subjective emotional commitments are important elements. Perceptions of the feelings of individuals--one's own and those of others--also provide data for the processes of thought. There is no assurance that the ability to perceive or integrate these varied elements is acquired by abstract study alone.⁴⁴

It may be inferred from this statement that experience is a necessary part of developing rational powers. Experiences in outdoor settings are especially important in helping to fulfill the objectives of education and the central purpose of education because we find there such an abundance of opportunities for developing not only rational powers, but physical, aesthetic, and moral powers as well.

Specific Elements of a Rationale for Outdoor Education

The outdoors as a setting for education. Man is considered a part of a cosmos that includes all of the objects and phenomena of the natural environment. This cosmos is sometimes referred to as deity, supreme being, or nature, and man's place in such a cosmos forms a basis for beliefs that are found in the spiritual and ethical teachings of mankind. Seeing human beings as a part of a universe that includes all of nature constitutes a basic

⁴⁴Ibid., p. 18.

assumption that is held by many peoples and is substantiated in scientific theory.⁴⁵

The unity of nature is reflected in balance, orderliness, and harmony, and is expressed in both the uniqueness and the interrelatedness of the natural environment. The outdoor setting abounds in beauty, mystery, and power that challenges man to discover, analyze, interpret, and use that which surrounds him and of which he is a part. These notions about nature are substantiated in a large body of recorded human experience. Furthermore, scientific and descriptive literature in the fields of ecology, conservation, nature interpretation, and natural science attest to the wholeness and inclusiveness of the natural environment.

An intimate contact with the unity of nature can result in a feeling of internal freedom. This freedom, recognized in many theories of human behavior, allows and encourages informality and rapport, meditation and introspection, deeper awareness of one's self and of the world, and the increased use of the powers of perception. The writings of naturalists and poets such as Thoreau and Longfellow illustrate the impact that the natural environment can have on freeing creative potential.

⁴⁵Kelley and Rasey, op. cit., p. 53.

A close association with the unity of nature has a positive effect on the social structure and climate of a group. When a teacher and his pupils are in a more natural setting, especially for prolonged periods of time, they become freed from the artificiality of the classroom. The less controlled and less structured physical environment allows individuals to be more open to their experiences and to genuine relations and communications. This in turn results in extended opportunities for meaningful learning.^{46, 47}

The outdoors provides in varying degrees a setting for teaching-learning experiences quite different from the man-made environment of the school building. The natural environment, existing as a total unity, contains situations and problems in a broad context that cannot be duplicated in the same way in the classroom. There is an open-ended opportunity for experiencing concrete situations through direct sensory involvement and emotional awareness. Such experiencing inside the school occurs in a more limited manner and on a more restricted basis because of the heavy dependence on verbal abstractions and contrived learning. In the outdoors the individual learner has access to sources

⁴⁶Taba, op. cit., pp. 164-167.

⁴⁷Kelley, loc. cit.

of raw data closely associated with physical reality that help form a foundation for significant cognitive and aesthetic meaning. Through both perception of the outdoors and feeling for the outdoors, the learner is able to gain a rich experiential background needed for developing higher mental processes and personal commitments and values.^{48, 49}

In the natural setting all aspects of reality are present including the dimensions of movement, time, and ecological relationships. An apple tree exists not only in size, shape, texture, odor, color, and taste, but also as an object which interacts with natural and man-made forces. It has a history of growth within itself as well as in relation to its surroundings. Its growth can be repeatedly observed and its life cycle can be recorded in sensory impressions. The whole natural world of physical reality can be perceived by man through direct symbolism. Realism of this kind cannot be reproduced in the classroom although ways of overcoming the lack of realism are constantly sought.

The rapid development of instructional media has

⁴⁸Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming, loc. cit.

⁴⁹Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Individualizing Instruction, Yearbook (Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1964).

helped to lend some realism to learning by providing vivid sensory impressions through new and improved techniques and materials. Film strips and television instruction dealing with the natural environment can be used in a learning sequence. Ideally, when particular concepts and understandings are to be developed the artificial signs of communication represented by these and other audio-visual media can best be used to focus on the specific and the relevant. In this way contrived experiences become a more natural link between the world of concrete reality and abstract symbolism.⁵⁰ Contrived experiences, however, still remain a step removed from sensory experiences with reality and also deny the learner direct involvement with natural phenomena as it exists in a total context.

The continuity of the learning process is more effectively maintained when the need for direct involvement in the outdoors is recognized as a part of a continuum that also includes the need for appropriate contrived experiences, discussion, and reflection. Outdoor experiences should be an integral part of the total learning process that helps to develop personal meaning.

⁵⁰Pearl A. Nelson and Gaylen B. Kelley, "The Use of Audio-visual Materials in Elementary School Science Teaching," Journal of Education, 145:12-18, 1963.

Personal meaning can best be developed in the schools through a method of discovery which focuses on experiencing rational processes.^{51, 52} The discovery approach to learning has a lot more natural potential for fulfillment where the outdoors is used for experiences with reality than it has in the classroom where such opportunities are more limited. Direct involvement with the natural environment results in both feeling and sensory awareness. These two forms of reaction work in conjunction with each other. Feelings become appreciations which may serve as motivation or desire to search for cognitive meaning. Sensory awareness of physical reality in turn adds depth to affective meaning. Both are essential for developing a rich perceptual field characteristic of the fully-functioning individual. Sensory and feeling awareness are intricately tied together with motor and kinesthetic learning, and are necessary in reaching higher levels of personal meaning.

The discovery of cognitive meaning is directly related to the goal of developing rational powers recognized in The Central Purpose of American Education.⁵³ The discovery

⁵¹Taba, loc. cit.

⁵²Jerome S. Bruner, The Process of Education (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1961).

⁵³Educational Policies Commission, loc. cit.

method allows the learner to develop for himself understandings and generalizations as a result of many experiences. Just as it does in concept formation, discovery of meaning begins with experience in which the learner first develops an awareness by manipulating processes and things themselves instead of symbols.⁵⁴ For example, in learning about rocks, the learner becomes a classifier by becoming acquainted with the properties of a variety of specimens rather than by using a classification system to identify names. The learner is actively participating in inquiry that provides intuitive insight and knowledge.⁵⁵

Inquiry, as a mode of learning, is applicable to any level of development. Forms of inquiry may differ, but essentially there is individual, self-directed activity at either the stage of manipulating concrete environment or conceptualizing by abstract reasoning. Styles of inquiry also vary, causing one to consider the need for providing an environment where individual discovery can take place.⁵⁶

⁵⁴Taba, op. cit., p. 155.

⁵⁵J. Richard Suchman, "The Child and the Inquiry Process," Intellectual Development: Another Look (Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1964), pp. 59-77.

⁵⁶Ibid.

Once a basic meaning is established, through experience, word symbols are developed and higher processes become involved through vastly extended vicarious learning. By means of rational processes such as deducing, inferring, analyzing, and synthesizing the learner is able to arrive at broad principles and generalizations. Since principles and generalizations have been found to be more transferable than specific facts and information,⁵⁷ it may be inferred that situations in which experiences in the outdoors are an integral part of a discovery approach maximize the possibility of transfer of learning closely related to reality.

Discovery which includes active participation and direct involvement makes the outdoors an ideal setting for many of the experiences needed for understanding and appreciating the conditions of the world we live in. In an organic process, however, the learning sequence must not only provide initial experiences in the outdoors but must also allow for repeatedly returning to such experiences as the need occurs. Understandings, generalizations, values, and commitments at one level can be deepened and enlarged through a continuous process of growth in which the learner returns to further experiences such as those possible in

⁵⁷Taba, op. cit., pp. 125-129.

the outdoors.

The need of the learner to feel a kinship with the unity of nature makes it likely that he will be intrinsically motivated to participate in outdoor discovery. But within the context of the classroom, outdoor experiences must be employed according to the best judgment of the teacher in relation to other acceptable principles and practices. The guidance of the teacher is important in helping the learner, at his own level, identify clearly the purposes for engaging in particular outdoor experiences and in arranging for the learner to relate his experiences and share his reactions with others. The teacher then becomes actively involved with his pupils in experiencing the outdoors, in helping them gain personal meaning while in the outdoors, and in tying learnings together later in the classroom.

III. THE APPLICATION OF A RATIONALE FOR OUTDOOR EDUCATION

A rationale for outdoor education should serve as a basis for developing effective programs in the schools. Each program must be tailored to a particular situation and must grow out of local needs. There are, however, some general considerations that are broadly applicable to both the design of programs and the processes of translating the

rationale into programs.

Designing outdoor education programs forms the next logical step to be taken in carrying out that which is suggested by the rationale. The process of designing such programs is suggested by the rationale itself in the commitment to the democratic means of intelligent decision making. Design and process become closely linked when those persons who implement the program become involved in critically examining the elements of the rationale and in determining its applicability to their own situation.

A program of outdoor education developed from the rationale must be closely related to the overall program of the schools as it exists. Therefore an understanding of the implications that outdoor education would have for a particular school, or school system, is a first requirement. This understanding calls for involvement by persons at the local level in giving serious consideration to the consequences that would result from making changes in the present school program in order to incorporate outdoor education. Where a school system has previous commitments which are in conflict with a broad program of outdoor education it may be necessary to experiment with only certain phases or practices initially. Whatever the proposed action may be, there must be commitment to the values which they

see in outdoor education by those who are involved in analyzing the rationale and in developing a program.

The design of a particular program is closely related to the processes employed in its development, and both must be jointly considered in applying the rationale. The following discussion of design and process is not meant to be prescriptive, but should be taken as a point of departure when considering the development of a specific program. The rationale presented in this chapter suggested implications for designing programs and, thus, the discussion provides an interpretation of the position taken by the writer in stating elements of a rationale.

Designing Programs in Outdoor Education

Designing programs in outdoor education will be discussed under the following headings: (1) Defining outdoor education, (2) Determining objectives for an outdoor education program, (3) Organizing and selecting outdoor experiences, (4) Adapting patterns of teaching and learning, and (5) Evaluating outdoor education programs.

Defining outdoor education. Outdoor education is defined as the effective use of the outdoors as an integral part of the school curriculum. Using the outdoors places emphasis on the process of learning and, since learning is

a function of meaning, the outdoors is considered an environment that contributes to an individual's gaining personal meaning. Outdoor education, therefore, is a dynamic concept of action in which the learner is involved in outdoor experiences as a part of an on-going school program.

Effective use of the outdoors means that the learner is provided a situation in which he can be open to his experience and in which he is able to perceive the changing nature of reality with the least amount of distortion. In this way the learner will be continually moving towards the goals of education.

Outdoor education is best conceived as a part of general education in which experiences are integrated and contribute to the needs of all citizens in this society. Some outdoor education practices, however, can be utilized in compartmentalized or specialized programs. Opportunities for learning experiences in the outdoors are broad in scope and therefore can be used in the curriculum, kindergarten through twelfth grade.

The methods used in the outdoors emphasize direct involvement as a part of discovery and problem solving, but they also include techniques required to develop higher mental processes as well as motor performance and aesthetic

appreciation. The outdoor setting extends from the more natural, untampered areas to those completely developed by man. A more natural setting is preferred, but in many instances learning in the outdoors can be effectively carried on in some setting that is a combination of natural and man-made environments.

When outdoor education is considered a dynamic process of using the outdoors, the individual student, teacher, and administrator are able to grow in their search for more effective means of learning and teaching in the natural environment. A dynamic concept of outdoor education is illustrated in Figure 5 on page 227. Using the outdoors is represented on five continua where an individual can identify his own definition on any or all continua at a given time. The individual is able to change his definition, or move along the continua as his understanding of outdoor education takes on new meaning.

Determining objectives for an outdoor education program. As an integral part of the school curriculum, outdoor education programs should provide learning experiences that are in keeping with the broad objectives of education. Outdoor education should contribute to the total growth of children and youth through their active involvement

Outdoor education in the public schools is effective use of the outdoors as an integral part of the curriculum:

- a. Using the outdoors as a setting, a laboratory, an environment, an extension of the classroom

<p>man-made</p> <hr/> <p>EXAMPLES: asphalt school ground</p>	<p>wilderness area</p> <hr/> <p>primitive, natural</p>
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- b. Using the outdoors for learning experiences

<p>vicarious involvement</p> <hr/> <p>EXAMPLES: seeing a film strip</p>	<p>direct involvement</p> <hr/> <p>participation discovery using all senses</p>
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- c. Using the outdoors within general and specialized education

<p>in one unit or problem at one grade level</p> <hr/> <p>EXAMPLES: awareness in a biology experiment</p>	<p>awareness in all areas</p> <hr/> <p>in all experiences, at all levels</p>
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- d. Using the outdoors for gaining skills, interests, appreciations associated with a way of living

<p>limited values</p> <hr/> <p>EXAMPLES: practicing a swimming stroke</p>	<p>multiple, inter-related values</p> <hr/> <p>intellectual, emotional, social, spiritual, aesthetic, civic, and recreational</p>
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- e. Using the outdoors for gaining knowledge and understanding about the outdoors

<p>single subject</p> <hr/> <p>EXAMPLES: identification of 12 trees</p>	<p>interdisciplinary</p> <hr/> <p>ecological approach, unit or problems approach</p>
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FIGURE 5

A DYNAMIC CONCEPT OF OUTDOOR EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

in a program that utilizes the outdoor environment for meaningful learning. Outdoor programs should provide the individual with opportunities that will foster discovery of personal meaning of himself and of the world around him. Such programs should contribute to the individual's ability to live intelligently, creatively, and abundantly in this society.

Outdoor education should help each individual student develop appreciation for and understanding of the natural environment and man's relation to it as the student matures in a changing world. Through a program of general education every child in the school should have opportunities to become aware of the bond that exists between human beings and the natural environment. Students should become aware also of how they, as well as all of society, can derive the most benefit from the outdoors while at the same time helping to maintain a proper balance in the whole scheme of unity that is greater than man himself.

Cooperative action by local groups can provide the means for developing specific objectives for programs of outdoor education. Each school or school system must develop objectives that are pertinent to their own situation and needs.

Where only certain grade levels or particular parts

of a school program are to be considered for outdoor education, objectives should be stated for selected and specific practices. Such a piecemeal approach, however, should be considered a beginning step that could later lead to developing objectives for a broader program.

Regardless of the extent of the program to be developed, specific behavioral objectives should be clearly stated and should indicate what values are held for outdoor education. Behavioral objectives follow from broad objectives and serve as guides to selecting and organizing outdoor experiences. Principles for formulating behavioral objectives are outlined by Taba along with a discussion of types of behavioral objectives.⁵⁸

Organizing and selecting outdoor experiences. The self-contained classroom with its opportunity to afford the learner a more integrated type of school experience would seem to enable the learner to gain the most for general education purposes or for learning that cuts across a number of subject matter areas. Within this organizational framework, outdoor experiences can be more effectively carried on. There is less conflict with scheduling by teachers and pupils who want to go beyond the school building. There

⁵⁸Ibid., pp. 194-230.

are also more opportunities for using large blocks of time necessary for some kinds of extended outdoor experiences. The continuity of planning for, participating in, evaluating, and following up outdoor experiences is better preserved, and individual and small-group instruction will likely be provided in such a way that it can be highly effective.

Within a departmental organization there are different kinds of opportunities for use of the outdoors for school-related experiences. These opportunities are usually confined to more specific practices, such as developing particular skills or acquiring knowledge in a particular area. Short field trips are possible during school time and a variety of audio-visual techniques may be employed. Sponsorship of hobby groups, clubs, and special projects offer further opportunities for outdoor experiences as a part of an outdoor education program. Some examples of outdoor experiences possible in a departmental organization are:

- (1) Development of skill in outdoor recreational activities that have a life-long value.
- (2) Observation and discovery of natural phenomena in settings such as forest preserves, parks, and arboretums.
- (3) Analysis of pollution problems in a community

area or visiting historical landmarks.

(4) Discovery of basic mathematical concepts through manipulation of concrete objects in an outdoor problem-solving situation.

(5) Appreciation of natural beauty that results in expression through the use of native materials.

(6) Inspiration to do original writing, or writing descriptive accounts as a result of actual experience in an outdoor setting.

Interdepartmental efforts at the secondary level through team-teaching arrangements and core programs provide a kind of integrated learning situation which has some of the advantages of the self-contained classroom. Outdoor experiences may be carried on with more than one teacher or with the help of outside resource persons. Pupils have more opportunity for sharing purposes and outcomes, and larger blocks of time are available for outdoor experiences. Cooperative planning, an integral part of core, can be realistically employed in designing meaningful outdoor experiences.

In selecting outdoor experiences at any level the maturity of the learner must be considered. The ability to handle abstractions in deriving personal meaning varies considerably and involvement with the natural environment

could afford a kind of enrichment that would be helpful where a learner's background of experience has been limited. Regardless of chronological age, the necessity to return to direct involvement is important where meaningful association with reality is valued in an organic process of learning.

Involvement in problem-solving provides a situation in which outdoor experiences may be needed to help develop personal meaning. The experiences themselves would not assure meaning, but they would serve as a vital first step in moving to higher levels of awareness and understanding. When a problem is significant to a learner, intrinsic motivation is greater and the learner is more likely to discover for himself solutions as a result of personal inquiry.

Outdoor experiences must be selected within the framework of the values and commitments of the local school system, and within the limitations of time, administrative policy, and leadership ability. However, all things being equal, outdoor experiences that are selected as an integral part of the on-going classroom program and that actively involve the learner in the total learning process will be most effective in developing rich personal meaning.

Adapting patterns of learning and teaching. Reality is a function of perception that occurs within the individual. Each person perceives differently and reality therefore cannot be considered apart from the learner. This viewpoint suggests that learning must begin with the individual and that the purposes of the individual must be considered in outdoor learning and teaching. Since perceptions that are not acted upon have little meaning, the learner must be actively involved in outdoor education programs. The teacher needs to recognize the necessity for jointly planning with students so they may become involved in attacking problems that are personally meaningful.

When a problem-solving approach is used in the self-contained classroom certain parts of the learning sequence lend themselves more readily to actual participation in the outdoors. The planning and purposing of an outdoor experience begins in the classroom with the active participation of the learners. Involvement continues throughout the entire learning experience as discovery, discussion, and reflective thinking are brought into play. Outdoor discovery which includes a process of inquiry involving sensory and feeling awareness encourages intuitive insight and thinking. Hence direct involvement in the outdoors using

all the senses is a first step in the process of developing meaningful concepts and generalizations and aesthetic appreciation.

Small group work and individual projects can be carried on in the outdoors where an informal atmosphere encourages initiative and motivates self-learning and cooperative action. Learning takes time and the time needed for discovery must be provided in outdoor experiences and in considering the meaning of such experiences. This calls for careful planning, recognition of purposes, unhurried opportunity for inquiry, and sharing of information and ideas. Communication and interaction help the learners to verify and critically appraise the meaning of personal experience.

The teacher facilitates learning in the outdoors by helping students find effective ways of learning things they need and want. This suggests that the teacher must share his enthusiasm and his approach to discovery. The teacher becomes a co-learner in the vast unknown natural environment where he cannot possibly have all the answers. With a sensitivity to the purposes and needs of the learners, he must be skillful in helping learners discover meaning for themselves by providing clues, by asking questions, and by giving support.

Building specific skills, acquiring specific information, or developing aesthetic appreciation may be important adjuncts of particular problems or may be recognized as necessary in working through certain problems. In these instances different methods of teaching such as drill, lecture, or demonstration may be needed.

There are occasions when for the purposes of a particular activity contrived experiences may serve more efficiently than direct involvement in the outdoors. The proper use of audio-visual materials and techniques can be used as a part of a learning sequence to develop personal meaning. However, these procedures should be in conjunction with, and not a substitute for, learning in the outdoors where experiences such as field trips and short excursions can be effectively provided.

Resident outdoor education, or school camping, affords students a more integrated type of learning experience in which cooperative group activity strengthens social support for desirable behavior changes. Living in a natural setting for a week provides opportunities for experiences that realistically help to meet objectives of general education. The extended period of time in a children's community allows for functionally integrating study, work, recreation, and healthful living under the

guidance of the teacher.

Evaluating outdoor education programs. Evaluation is the process of determining what behavioral changes occur and of appraising these changes against the values represented in stated objectives.⁵⁹ Evaluation of an outdoor education program then should help to determine to what extent objectives are being achieved and to identify strengths and weaknesses in all phases of the program. Evaluation therefore can serve as a guide to improvement, and also can be used to validate the basis from which the program is derived.

Appraising behavioral changes means that many kinds of appropriate evidence should be gathered before, during, and following outdoor experiences. When objectives are stated behaviorally, evaluation becomes a complex process that results from a recognition of the complexity of human behavior. Evaluation thus conceived involves:

(1) clarification of objectives to the point of describing which behaviors represent achievement in a particular area; (2) the development and use of a variety of ways of getting evidence on changes in students; (3) appropriate ways of summarizing and interpreting that evidence; and (4) the use of information gained on the progress of students or the lack of it to improve curriculum, teaching, and guidance.⁶⁰

⁵⁹Ibid., p. 312.

⁶⁰Ibid., p. 313.

The evaluation process should include broad participation by those who are engaged in developing and carrying out the outdoor education program. This means that not only should the learners be involved, but teachers, administrators, and parents as well. As the program of outdoor education grows, evaluation should be continuous, and sufficient number and kinds of valid evidence should be used to provide direction for continuous improvement of outdoor experiences.

The Process of Developing Programs in Outdoor Education

Developing programs in outdoor education must be effected through a process similar to that used in any curriculum improvement endeavor. The change process itself serves as a functional frame of reference in which curriculum improvement procedures applicable to outdoor education may be examined.

Processes of curriculum change. Change in curriculum is viewed not only as a product but a process as well. "Process and product--means and ends--are intertwined in all teaching and learning."⁶¹ However, "far less attention has been given to the problems of how to make changes

⁶¹ McNally and Passow, op. cit., p. 39.

in the educational program than has been given to the formulation of the changes themselves."⁶²

A survey of recent literature reveals that curriculum development is thought of primarily as a process of change in people--in their total personalities and their relations to each other. When curriculum improvement was previously considered as an administrative approach a central staff of "experts" focused on changes in courses of study, schedules, and printed materials. At that time the effect on actual changes in classroom programs and procedures was minimal. Now a different approach is taken. A broadened concept of curriculum change has gradually brought about a merger of administration, supervision, and in-service education in refining the means of improving instruction.

Once curriculum workers had accepted the view that little real curriculum improvement occurs without continuous professional and personal growth of teachers, concern shifted from administrative structure to include the complexities of educating the professional staff.⁶³

Behavioral change in the professional staff of the

⁶²Smith, Stanley, Shores, op. cit., p. 618.

⁶³McNally and Passow, op. cit., p. 38.

school results from changes in beliefs and values gained through new insights and perceptions. It is this behavioral change which is the key to improving the quality of education. Because the teacher is so directly involved with the learners over extended periods of time, the ultimate goal of improving programs and practices focuses attention on the classroom situation and the teacher.

Curriculum change has been analyzed in many ways, but common to all is the concern for change in personality and human relationships. George Sharp recognized the growth of the teacher as the crucial factor in curriculum development.⁶⁴ He believed that a process of re-education is necessary to affect change with the curriculum worker serving as a facilitator of change. In examining factors that affect change both in the individual and group settings, he described the nature of relationships and the kind of atmosphere necessary for re-education.

Other writers have also recognized the key position of the classroom teacher in affecting the quality of the school program.⁶⁵ They emphasize the importance of

⁶⁴George Sharp, Curriculum Development as Re-education of the Teachers (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951).

⁶⁵See: Alice M. Miel, Changing the Curriculum (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1946), and Kenneth D. Benne and Bozidar Muntyan, Human Relations in Curriculum Change (New York: Dryden Press, 1951).

understanding the social structure of the school and the community when considering changes in the school program. Smith, Stanley, and Shores agree that "change in the curriculum is in reality a major social change."⁶⁶ Anderson views curriculum improvement in a social context as a planned social change.⁶⁷

Because a broader interpretation of curriculum development has evolved, there has been a concurrent search for understanding of the change process in many areas. Emphasis on human relations and behavioral change has caused curriculum workers to turn more to research and experience in group dynamics, leadership training, social psychology, psychotherapy, and in personality, motivation, and learning theory for understanding and interpretation of the process of change.

If change to incorporate outdoor education is to be effective, then an understanding of the dynamics of change is essential in systematically planning for and controlling such an educational change. Analysis of knowledge from various disciplines and fields has been incorporated in recent curriculum development literature which provides

⁶⁶Smith, Stanley, and Shores, op. cit., p. 634.

⁶⁷Anderson, op. cit., p. 19.

insight into the process of facilitating change.

Facilitating curriculum change. There are a number of ways of looking at the task of helping to bring about curriculum change. When such change is conceived of as change in people, it entails a complexity of interrelated factors that promote and support growth of the school staff. These factors may be thought of as facilitators of change.

Anderson identified morale, leadership, teacher personality, and human relations structure as factors affecting curriculum change.⁶⁸ McNally and Passow examined facilitation of change in terms of organization, personnel, techniques, procedures, leadership, and resources.⁶⁹ Smith, Stanley, and Shores looked at the social nature of change in proposing a systematic approach to curriculum change.⁷⁰ Each text presented examples and descriptions of how change could be facilitated.

The following means of facilitating change were identified in a survey of curriculum development literature, each being employed to suit particular purposes or goals: study groups, workshops, in-service courses in

⁶⁸Anderson, loc. cit.

⁶⁹McNally and Passow, loc. cit.

⁷⁰Smith, Stanley, and Shores, loc. cit.

school systems and colleges, clinics, conferences, committees, school visitations, research projects, and seminars. Resources, both personal and material, also aid in the process of change. Consultants may be called in for specific tasks and a wide variety of materials may be used by individuals or groups. Facilities and the atmosphere they create are also important factors, as well as the element of time and how it is utilized.

One concept that seems to be prevalent in curriculum development proposals is that of the group, its role and function, and the procedures used in working with groups. Much of what takes place in curriculum change is carried out in group situations within individual schools and school systems as well as at higher levels. Anderson suggests that the primary focus in curriculum study should be on the group in facilitating the process of curriculum change.⁷¹

Group process in curriculum change. Research and experience in group dynamics has helped to shed light on the process of change and has been applied in curriculum study over a good many years. Obviously, working in groups constitutes a major portion of curriculum improvement

⁷¹Anderson, loc. cit.

endeavors when one believes that "the collective intelligence of the group, utilizing the method of concensus, is a better guide for action than the judgment of any one individual".⁷² An examination of curriculum development texts and periodicals reveals the effort being made towards enlarging and refining the body of knowledge dealing with group dynamics applied to the school situation. Bringing to bear the understanding of group organization, leadership, procedures, and techniques has benefited those concerned with the programs of the schools and their betterment. Taking the findings from the fields of psychology, sociology, human relations, and other applied social sciences, the curriculum worker has been able to increase his skill in understanding group functioning in relation to a sound philosophical basis. He has used this skill in helping people become more effective in curriculum development.

It has been previously pointed out that many different people contribute to school improvement programs. It is in the group setting that opportunity is provided for people to share ideas, interests, and concerns, and

⁷²Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Action for Curriculum Improvement, Yearbook (Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1951), p. 186.

to work out co-operatively solutions to their problems. Such activities as committee work, staff meetings, and study groups may result in opportunities for discovery of new insights and new meanings which may lead to change in behavior. It is in this manner that the individual is able to personalize and internalize meaning in such a way that improvement in learning experiences becomes the ultimate outcome.

Change in the individual. While people work collectively in groups and a positive group climate serves as a means of facilitating change, it is each individual in the group who is the center of focus for change. As the teacher, principal, layman, student, or curriculum worker is provided with a favorable condition for growth, he becomes a more fully-functioning individual. He is able to perceive more realistically the world around him--the physical world and the world of people, the global world, the community, and the school--and his role in the world. And, too, he is better able to see himself as others see him and to derive personal meaning from his encounter with other people.

A favorable climate for growth is a vital concern of curriculum workers who seek to bring about positive changes in individuals. The field of perceptual psychology

has given us some important clues to the growth process and the releasing of individual human potential that have had an impact on programs and practices in curriculum improvement. Conditions necessary for promoting growth have been interpreted in many ways. One such interpretation states that: (1) a person must have a desire for change and that assessing his most pressing concerns is one way of finding a starting point for growth, (2) a person must be accepted as he is and his concerns must be accepted without anxiety or falsehood, (3) a person must feel that he has worth as a person, positively and unconditionally, (4) a person must receive empathetic understanding of his feelings and what he is experiencing by the person or persons that serve to facilitate his growth, (5) the facilitator must attempt to communicate his positive and unconditional regard and empathic understanding for the person he seeks to help, and (6) a person must receive such communication of regard and understanding.⁷³

Change in the individual is a normal aspect of growth and development. "It appears whenever a person is

⁷³Robert E. Bills, "People and Progress," address to the Michigan Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Fall Conference, East Lansing, Michigan, November 2, 1961.

not blocked in his being. It appears also to the extent that we can be authentic in our relationships and it is the outcome of our own being."⁷⁴

Implications. If a rationale for outdoor education is to bring about changes in the programs of schools, and form a basis for effective outdoor experiences, then serious attention must be given to the process by which such a rationale is utilized in curriculum development. There seems to be sufficient evidence to indicate that processes of curriculum change can serve as a guide for those who would attempt to examine an outdoor education rationale and translate it into programs and practices. This kind of action would call for the consideration and resolution of such questions as: (1) What is the relationship between rationale development and the total process of curriculum improvement? (2) What are the conditions necessary for a rationale to become used as a functional document in developing outdoor programs? (3) What is the relationship between involvement in developing outdoor programs and utilizing a rationale for conducting outdoor programs? (4) What are the implications for individual and group effort in rationale development and utilization at different

⁷⁴Ibid.

levels and between levels? (5) What are the implications for developing programs in outdoor education when curriculum change is viewed as change in people?

The answers to such questions are complex, but they must be faced continually in each situation as attempts are made to improve the quality of learning through outdoor education. A consideration of "involvement" can offer some enlightenment in understanding the nature of curriculum change which is necessary for outdoor program development.

Involvement in Utilizing a Rationale

The concept and role of leadership. The concept of leadership is significant in any undertaking designed to bring about improvement in the curriculum. Utilizing a rationale for outdoor education, whether at the national, state, or local level, is partially dependent on the interpretation of leadership employed and can be related to general principles of educational leadership.

In interpreting the meaning of leadership, Smith, Stanley, and Shores stated that:

The common notion is that leadership consists of certain qualities inherent in some individuals and that an individual who possesses these qualities is a leader... Nowadays leadership is not conceived as a set of qualities, traits, or abilities inherent

in the individual and marking him as a leader. Rather it is conceived as a functional role of a group member, played by an individual at a particular time in a particular group of people.

In other words, leadership is being exercised when a group member is helping the group to define and meet its needs. And that person is the leader who at a given moment is most effectively helping the group in these respects.⁷⁵

This position is substantiated by McNally and Passow who recognized the functional role of leadership at the local level as involving many different people attempting to improve the educational program.⁷⁶ Anderson refers to concepts developed from research on group process in describing leadership as a function of the group thus placing emphasis upon the situation in which leadership is exercised.⁷⁷ He describes four types of atmospheres in which groups work and concludes that democratic leadership can be expected to accomplish more than authoritarian, benevolent despotism, or laissez faire leadership. The 1951 ASCD yearbook described leadership as a "function which belongs to all participants and may, in a democratic group, pass from one member to any other member or members

⁷⁵Smith, Stanley, and Shores, op. cit., pp. 656-657.

⁷⁶McNally and Passow, op. cit., pp. 55-56.

⁷⁷Anderson, op. cit., p. 27.

who can make a needed and significant contribution."⁷⁸ The role of leadership includes the responsibility of "arranging opportunities for persons who have a stake in the educational program to think, plan, and act co-operatively".⁷⁹ This would mean that teachers, principals, supervisors, curriculum specialists, superintendents, and citizens would all share leadership responsibilities in developing outdoor education programs.

Another way of viewing leadership is to examine status positions and their relation to functional roles. In the past, curriculum development was delegated to particular individuals at the top of the administrative ladder who co-ordinated efforts of a central staff of "experts". Now leadership comes from many directions, but may still begin with status persons such as administrators or supervisors.

Anderson says that "research in leadership and group process has indicated that, unless the responsible status leader is active in the study to improve a situation, the chances of improvement are slim indeed".⁸⁰ McNally and

⁷⁸Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, op. cit., p. 218.

⁷⁹Ibid.

⁸⁰Anderson, op. cit., p. 150.

Passow concur in the belief that leadership for curriculum improvement begins with the status person, but should go beyond administrative domination and direction to providing the means for the effective functioning of a group.⁸¹

Smith, Stanley, and Shores acknowledge the line and staff organization operating in most school systems and the key role that status persons at the top echelons of the line organization play in giving leadership to curriculum improvement.⁸² They point out that administrators are bound by laws and regulations that make it difficult to perceive status positions as functional in effecting change. They explain, however, that "if persons in official positions are also able to play the role of functional leader, curriculum development by the school-community personnel will be in large measure assured".⁸³

Broadly conceived, leadership may be considered as an on-going process in the interaction of people and their ideas, occurring both at the time a group is physically present and in operation and at the time ideas and insights of individuals are perceived as being helpful in a group's

⁸¹McNally and Passow, op. cit., p. 55.

⁸²Smith, Stanley, and Shores, op. cit., pp. 657-658

⁸³Ibid., p. 659.

efforts. Educational leadership was defined in the 1960 yearbook of ASCD as "that action or behavior among individuals and groups which causes both the individual and the groups to move toward educational goals that are increasingly mutually acceptable to them".⁸⁴ These two definitions do not seem to be necessarily incongruent.

It would seem that in utilizing a rationale for outdoor education the leadership role at any level might be conceived of as one that facilitates a group's action in meeting its particular needs. At the national level, this may mean promoting co-ordination and co-operation between many organizations and individuals who interpret the outdoor education concept. The group, or individuals being served by such endeavors, consists of all who look to national leadership for guidance and direction in developing outdoor education programs. In many instances, efforts at the national level would involve persons from other levels in developing guidelines and positions for consideration by groups and individuals at the state and local levels. This same role may also function for leadership at the state level in serving the needs of particular

⁸⁴Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Leadership for Improving Instruction, Yearbook (Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1960), p. 27.

groups within a state or in combination with other states on a regional basis.

At the local level, utilization of an outdoor education rationale may result from a consideration of classroom problems within a school system or individual school, or from recognition of a need for improving an on-going outdoor education program. In either instance, this would call for leadership in involving all concerned in a serious consideration of how an outdoor education rationale might be implemented. The leadership role may be shared among members of a faculty, whether it includes the principal and teachers, or just the teachers, but the support of the principal would seem to assure the value of the undertaking. In a democratic climate any member of the faculty may become a leader in helping others to examine their own purposes and commitments in coming to some real understanding of what an outdoor education rationale means for their particular situation.

Participation in developing and utilizing a rationale. Development of an outdoor education rationale may occur at any of several levels: (1) nationally by individual spokesmen or by special groups called for that purpose, (2) statewide or regionally by departments, organizations, or curriculum committees, (3) locally by school

systems or individual schools, or (4) by individuals.

Regardless of the level at which a rationale for outdoor education is developed, it should have broad applicability to public education in various kinds of school programs. However, in adapting a rationale to a particular situation it is extremely important that the nature of the outdoor education program be closely related to the existing school curriculum. The program should result from critical examination and real understanding of the rationale by those intending to carry out the program. Those persons affected must be involved in the designing of the outdoor education program and must be fully aware and committed to the changes that would result from employing an outdoor education rationale.

If we believe that all those who are affected by an outdoor education rationale should participate in the development of outdoor education programs, then there should be widespread participation at all levels by professionals and lay citizens. For some, participation might occur at more than one level where, for example, a teacher becomes involved in outdoor education by serving on a national committee, participating in state workshops, serving as chairman of a community study group, and helping to design a program for a particular school. In all these

capacities, the teacher may be involved in utilizing a rationale for outdoor education while personally adapting such a rationale to his or her own classroom teaching. Or another example might be a national figure who publishes widely in professional journals, serves as a committee chairman of a state organization, acts as a consultant for a community program, participates in a local workshop where he demonstrates outdoor education practices, and carries on independent study in appraising outdoor education programs. It is easy to see in both examples that involvement in utilizing an outdoor education rationale can occur at any level and may contribute to developments at other levels.

There is a need at all levels to be concerned with organizing and facilitating efforts that will result in continuous examination of elements of a rationale for outdoor education so that programs growing out of the rationale will be increasingly more meaningful. National and state organizations, colleges and universities, and individual spokesmen should provide interpretations and state positions that would be available to others. They can also facilitate action through policy statements, publications, sponsorship of conferences, workshops and experimental projects, and provision of assistance and

consultant services. Locally, the professional administrative staff can play an important role in co-ordinating wide-spread participation by teachers and representatives of the community. The superintendent and his delegated staff have a direct responsibility for curriculum improvement and they set the tone for involvement and expectation in such activities as continuous examination of an outdoor education rationale and the utilization of such a rationale. A rationale employed locally may become a working tool for soliciting public support, providing teachers with a basis for program modification, or serving as a basis for in-service education.

When attention is focused on each building as the primary site for curriculum development, the building principal becomes a key person in helping teachers improve their classroom practices. It is the teacher who ultimately determines the curriculum and the principal's position and talents serve a vital function in the curriculum improvement process. He should provide the flexible kind of organization that allows teachers to work on common interests and concerns such as may be the case with the initiation of an outdoor education program. Students, too, should be involved in setting goals and developing objectives for outdoor experiences based on needs and interests.

Programs should be co-operatively worked out between students and their classroom teacher.

Lay citizens may become involved in diverse ways at any level. They may serve on advisory or study committees, serve as consultants, participate in workshops and conferences, and work co-operatively with individual schools and teachers. Lay leadership becomes increasingly more effective as individuals are given an opportunity to participate in improving the school program. Having lay citizens involved in developing an outdoor education program constitutes one valuable source of ideas and insights for making outdoor education more effective.

It cannot be over stressed that in all efforts of utilizing a rationale for outdoor education there is a need for co-operation between individuals and groups at each level and between levels. Participation cannot be viewed as a static process anymore than a rationale itself can be considered a finality. Both should be in a constant process of dynamic growth.

IV. SUMMARY

In this chapter a current rationale for outdoor education was presented and its application in developing programs as a part of the school curriculum was discussed.

A basis for selecting elements of the rationale was considered and resulted in identifying the following areas of general elements: (1) values of society, (2) the nature of society, (3) the learner and learning, and (4) the objectives of education. Specific elements for outdoor education followed from the general elements and focused on the unique qualities of the outdoors that can be used for learning experiences.

The general elements dealt briefly with democratic values that provide direction for means and ends, changes occurring in society, and educational objectives. Major attention was given to a consideration of the process of learning and the role of experience in learning.

Specific elements for outdoor education were supported by a basic premise that recognized the unity of nature and man's place in that unity. The beauty, mystery, and power of the outdoors motivates the individual to seek an understanding of the relationship between man and the rest of the universe. The outdoor setting provides, in varying degrees, a learning environment in which discovery of personal meaning can result from direct involvement with physical reality in a broad context. A position on the place of the outdoors in the school program was defined, emphasizing the role of the teacher in guiding outdoor

learning. A description was given of how the natural environment affords opportunities for meaningful experiences that help develop rational abilities and personal values and commitments.

The process of developing outdoor education programs was considered as a part of curriculum change in which an awareness and understanding of the processes of change become key factors in implementing the rationale. The necessary involvement of people in bringing about change was discussed in relation to leadership and participation, and these were related to the utilization of a rationale for outdoor education.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

I. SUMMARY

The problem involved in this study was to examine and analyze the historical development of the basis for outdoor education and to suggest a current rationale for outdoor education.

The primary objective of this study was to develop consistent and comprehensive elements of a rationale that can serve as a reasonable basis for developing programs and practices of outdoor education in the public schools. This first necessitated identifying the present basis for outdoor education and analyzing some of its strengths and weaknesses. The historical development of the basis was traced through a review of related studies and an analysis of the contributions of two key leaders in the outdoor education movement.

Following the presentation and analysis of the present basis for outdoor education, elements for a rationale were selected and stated. The implications that such a rationale have for program development were spelled out in suggestions for both the design of outdoor education programs and the processes of developing such programs.

Both in the selection of elements and in the application of the rationale, principles of curriculum development served as a guide.

The necessity to first become familiar with the present basis for outdoor education prompted a thorough investigation of research studies and pertinent literature. Studies in camping and school camping were found to be highly significant since these two concepts are generally recognized as being predecessors to a broad outdoor education concept.

The approach used in determining the present basis for outdoor education was that of historical documentation, interpretation, and analysis of the contributions of two key figures in outdoor education. An examination of Lloyd B. Sharp's and Julian W. Smith's lives and careers was carried out through personal interview and correspondence, and through an extensive review and documentation of their writings.

Synthesis of factors that may have influenced Sharp and Smith was presented and the present basis for outdoor education was interpreted from their writings. An analysis of this basis and its historical development indicated a need for constructing a current rationale for outdoor education.

Sources from which elements of a rationale should be selected were determined. The appropriateness of elements that were incorporated was documented with references from supportive literature. General elements concerning values of society, the nature of society, the learner and learning, and objectives of education were presented along with their implications for outdoor education. Following from the general elements were specific elements that focused on unique qualities that the outdoors holds for learning experiences as an integral part of the school program.

The specific elements of the rationale recognized the broad context of the outdoor setting that affords the learner many kinds of opportunities for meaningful experiences. Through discovery in the outdoors the individual becomes directly involved in situations closely related to physical reality and, thus, gains a better understanding of himself and his relationship to the world around him. The realism of the outdoors cannot be duplicated in the classroom. Because of the unity of man and the natural environment, the outdoors can serve as a motivation and stimulation to question, to examine, and to explore in seeking to gain personal understanding and commitment.

The application of the rationale was considered in

a discussion of the design of programs in outdoor education and the process of developing such programs. This section of the study was intended to serve as a guideline for developing specific programs at the local level. The discussion of design was based on the rationale itself, and the discussion of process was documented from sources in curriculum development literature.

Tracing the historical developments of the present basis for outdoor education revealed that summer camping and school camping were forerunners of outdoor education as it is known today. Much of what was written concerning outdoor education in the school throughout its historical development pertained more to experiences in camp settings than to experiences in the total outdoor environment.

The basis for outdoor education found in Sharp's and Smith's writings served historically as a basis for school camping programs prior to its application to broader outdoor experiences sponsored by the schools. The development of that basis was intricately associated with Sharp's and Smith's life experiences, careers, and their interaction with numerous other people. Furthermore, the basis for outdoor education identified in their writings is primarily concerned with social conditions growing out of changes from an agrarian culture to a technological one and with

the value of direct experience in the outdoors in meeting some of the problems resulting from those changes.

The rationale developed in this study and its implications for developing outdoor education programs helped the writer to identify issues that need to be resolved if outdoor education is to continue to develop and to become more meaningful in the total school program. The following issues were identified:

1. What kinds of outdoor education practices are appropriate for various levels throughout the school program, and how can continuity and balance of outdoor experiences be assured?

2. What should be the nature of pre-service and in-service teacher preparation programs in outdoor education that are predicated upon the rationale developed in this study and that recognize individual differences in teachers and teaching styles?

3. What should be the appropriate role of "outdoor education specialists" in a school or school system?

4. How can outdoor education programs contribute to the development of rational powers at various grade levels and within different organizational patterns?

II. CONCLUSIONS

As a result of undertaking this study, of analyzing

the information gathered, and of developing a rationale for outdoor education, the following conclusions seem justified:

1. The process of "rationale development" as used in this study afforded an appropriate means for examining the basis of outdoor education and for building a logical foundation for outdoor education. The need for recognizing an emotional involvement was a crucial factor in being able to reach a degree of objectivity. While not denying subjectivity as a part of the wholeness of the writer, an awareness of its existence provided clearer perspective for the task at hand. This awareness was made more vivid through consultation with others, and facilitated giving serious consideration to the development of a reasonable basis for outdoor education.

2. Identifying the present basis for outdoor education through an examination of the contributions of Sharp and Smith resulted in an understanding of their own interpretation of that basis. Although they have written extensively, they did more to interpret the implications of a basis for outdoor education than to continually expand in depth the foundation for the direction they each took.

3. Outdoor education is best conceived of as a

process of utilizing the outdoors as an integral part of the school curriculum. As such, it is considered a dynamic concept adaptable to the perceptions and growth of the individual regardless of his interests, needs, or past experience.

4. The development of rational powers as the central purpose of education can serve as an acceptable criterion for value judgments in determining priorities in outdoor education. In this study an attempt was made to recognize some of the contributions that outdoor experiences can make to the development of rational thinking.

5. The effective use of the outdoors is dependent to a large extent on the commitment and ability of teachers and, thus, the designing of teacher education programs that will assure a real understanding of the rationale is essential. Both in pre-service and ⁱⁿin-service preparation programs, teachers need to have opportunities for growth in their understanding of the role of outdoor education as an integral part of the school program, and of the nature of change and how to bring about desirable changes that will lead to significant outdoor learning experiences. Teacher preparation programs should include sufficient time, experiences, and leadership that will help future teachers develop appreciation of the outdoors, knowledge about the

outdoors, and outdoor teaching skills.

6. Processes of curriculum development are applicable in the development and utilization of a rationale for outdoor education. The rationale developed in this study was the result of one individual's involvement in using the best possible resources available to him, within the limits of his abilities and experience at this time, to present what seemed to him to be reasonable elements of a rationale for outdoor education. Guidelines for utilizing the rationale suggested the necessity for involvement by those implementing a program of outdoor education in giving serious consideration to the meaning of the rationale for their own particular situations.

7. The uniqueness of the outdoors as a setting for learning experiences is basically an expression of the unity of the universe of which man is an integral part. Experiences in the natural environment more nearly represent a direct encounter between man and the rest of that unity than do the artificial, man-made confines of the classroom. Involvement in the outdoors affords the learner more opportunities for perceiving a wide variety of concrete reality than does the school building, and thus a richer background of meaningful experiences can be incorporated in the curriculum. Providing an outdoor environment

full of situations and phenomena to raise questions about it helps set the stage for problem solving and higher levels of learning.

III. RECOMMENDATIONS

When outdoor education is defined as a process of utilizing the outdoors, a rationale to support such action must of necessity be broad and encompass all uses made of the outdoors as an integral part of the school curriculum. There is a danger however that this definition may lose meaning because of its breadth unless it is clarified for each situation.

For instance, outdoor education in a self-contained elementary classroom may be different from that in a secondary social studies course. Using the outdoors for brief field trips as opposed to resident experiences in a camp also constitutes a difference. In departmentalized education the use of the natural environment in a physical education class would differ from the use made in a biology class, and both uses would be different from those employed in an agriculture course or even in an astronomy club's activities. An interdisciplinary approach that emphasizes ecological relationships would differ from an approach that was concerned with one particular discipline or subject area.

The point being made here is that while all purposes are being served through utilizing the outdoors, they are being served differently in each instance. This suggests a need for recognizing portions of a rationale that are applicable to particular areas, levels, and practices. Thus, a rationale for outdoor education should be supplemented by elements that are unique to outdoor recreation, outdoor science, outdoor conservation, elementary-level outdoor education, or resident outdoor education. Each "sub-rationale" may have a complex relation to other ones, but all of them should be consistent with elements of a general outdoor education rationale.

The validity of the rationale developed in this study must be established through research that presents concrete evidence of the ability to utilize the elements of the rationale in developing effective programs. Appropriate means of gathering and evaluating data must be used in securing comprehensive evidence. Although evaluating the outcomes of an outdoor education program developed from this rationale is a complex procedure, the ultimate assessment should appear in the changes in behavior that result from such a program. Criteria to assess changes in behavior are difficult to apply, yet such evaluation must be continually approached in the improvement of outdoor

education.

Research is needed to indicate how the rationale may be utilized in developing programs for teacher preparation. Using the rationale as a framework, research projects need to be designed and carried out which will reveal changes in the behavior of graduates who have participated in outdoor teacher education experiences. The means by which such changes become reflected in desirable behavioral outcomes needs to be more fully explored. There is a need for both longitudinal and depth studies.

Research is also needed to present evidence on the process of incorporating an outdoor education program in an already existing curriculum. Documentation and analysis of processes used in establishing successful programs need to be presented. The failure of some school camping programs to continue beyond an experimental period suggests the need for critical appraisal of the processes that were employed in such programs. Principles of curriculum development may be used as a frame of reference in examining actual situations, and may also be employed in action-research projects where outdoor education is being considered or is to be developed.

In this study, identifying the present basis for outdoor education through the contributions of Sharp and

Smith did not allow due consideration to be given to other possible sources of that basis. While outdoor education has developed like many other curriculum innovations that gained attention through forceful leadership, there has been a growth of outdoor education literature too. Within some of the studies, texts, and other printed materials there may be elements not recognized in Sharp's and Smith's writings that could be considered as a part of a current rationale for outdoor education. This calls for an intensive examination of pertinent literature in order to gain further insights into the present basis. Such an effort was made by Hammerman¹ in tracing developments in camping education and by Rogers² in determining principles of outdoor education, but in light of the evidence presented in this study further investigation seems warranted.

The rationale developed in this study attempted to define a reasonable basis for outdoor education, but it is not considered a finality. Perhaps its uniqueness lies in the approach or frame of reference which focused on the

¹Donald R. Hammerman, "A Historical Analysis of the Socio-Cultural Factors that Influenced the Development of Camping Education," (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania, 1961).

²Martin H. Rogers, "Principles and Functions of Outdoor Education," (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York, 1955).

process of rationale development. In this sense, it could serve as a model for determining other elements.

Other possible sources of elements that need to be explored may be found in the field of education and its underlying disciplines. Three areas not treated, or lightly treated, in this study particularly need scrutinizing to determine direction and establish priority in developing current outdoor education programs. They are: (1) the individual and individualized learning, (2) existential philosophy, and (3) the structure of knowledge.

The central role that an individual's perception plays in changing behavior, and thus in the learning process,³ suggests a need for enlarging and giving depth to the elements in this study concerned with the unique contributions of outdoor settings. An individualized approach to learning that places emphasis on the process of discovery and inquiry may have important implications for outdoor education. Such implications should be clearly defined.

Existentialism has become an important force in philosophy and has served lately as a focus for educational

³ Arthur W. Combs and Donald Snygg, Individual Behavior (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1959).

thought.⁴ A concern for authentic experience of the individual, as suggested in the following quotation, emphasizes the need to examine some of the tenets of existentialism in relation to outdoor learning:

Existentialism reminds us that we should not deprive the individual of the privilege of experiencing life for himself by trying to tell him what it means, by supplying abstract answers before he has even framed a question. Especially in a largely spectator culture, education should increasingly be placing emphasis upon the question, upon the quest, upon the irreplaceability of personal experience.⁵

Bruner's work^{6, 7} reflects recent effort that has been made to re-define the role of the organized disciplines in making curriculum decisions. Proposals that the structure of knowledge be used as a basis for curriculum organization have been receiving attention in current practice, notably in mathematics and science. The relationship between organized disciplines and learning experiences

⁴Harold O. Soderquist, The Person and Education (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1964).

⁵Paul Nash, "The Strange Death of Progressive Education," Educational Theory, 14:72, April, 1964.

⁶Jerome S. Bruner, The Process of Education (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1961).

⁷Jerome S. Bruner, On Knowing (Cambridge: The Belknap Press of Harvard University Press, 1963).

that involve the use of the outdoors should be spelled out in a rationale for outdoor education.

It would seem that knowledge and thought in the three areas mentioned have implications for further developing a sound basis for outdoor education and therefore should be approached through developmental research.

Concluding Statement

What has been presented as a rationale for outdoor education resulted from an intensive investigation by the writer over a three year period. The elements of the rationale appear to be logical and reasonable but insight gained from involvement in the study made it possible to suggest action needed to define further a reasonable basis for outdoor education. The recommendations for further rationale building were then a natural outcome of the experience undergone. As the rationale is tested out in program development, other insights may also be gained into the need for refinements and changes in the rationale.

Thus the rationale presented in this study is considered as one link in a dynamic process of development, application, and appraisal that must be continued if outdoor education is to be a truly integral part of the school curriculum.

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