BUILDING A BRIDGE BETWEEN ATHLETICS AND ACADEMICS

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate
School of The Ohio State University

By

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* * * * *

The Ohio State University

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To Those Who Have Influenced My Life
Who Are No Longer With Us...
This Work Is Proof That They Shall Live Forever...
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In the Spirit of Artistic Health and Happiness

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

As our nation approaches a new century the appeal of competitive sport has never been greater. People of all ages, races, socio-economic status, and genders are passionate about sport. Unfortunately the escalating problems that seem to be so prevalent in contemporary sport are casting shadows over this passion. These problems are most obvious at the college and university level where the very mission of higher education is eroded often by the abuses that plague intercollegiate sport.

With nearly one-hundred-fifty years of organized intercollegiate sport and the abuses behind us, we have yet to find meaningful and lasting solutions to the many problems that are prevalent in intercollegiate sport. Over the past one-hundred years we can uncover many attempts to solve the troubles of college athletics. Moreover, numerous individual reform advocates have spoken and written about the problems in intercollegiate athletics at colleges and universities. In the last ten years we have seen an onslaught of books, articles, commission reports, and lectures on the subject.
Athletic Reform and the University: An Academic Approach

Some athletes try to figure out what role sports fulfills in the world, where it fits, and how we should think about it. I used to talk with Bob Cousey on the subject and compare thoughts with football players like Jim Brown and Bernie Casey. If we're professional athletes, we'd say to ourselves, just what is our "profession" all about? It's not an easy question. If a kid goes into any other field, from a fireman to statesman, he'll learn why it is necessary and find a lot of literature on the subject, but he won't find much clear thinking about sports or athletics. There is no philosophy of sports worth mentioning (Russell, 1979:34).

This quote is by one of the greatest basketball players of all time, the legendary University of San Francisco basketball star and former Boston Celtic, player and coach, Bill Russell. Russell brings to light a fact that is seldom mentioned when we discuss sport, education, or athletic reform. Simply stated: We have done a poor job in educating athletes about sport. This is especially true at the college and university level. Colleges and Universities have provided limited opportunities for the study of sport. Moreover, students who wish to pursue a career in sport are not provided with the educational opportunities to major in sport studies and performance. Unlike dancers, musicians, and actors, athletes have not been able to pursue a legitimate sport studies and performance program of study. This has resulted in several generations of athletes, coaches, athletic administrators, and sports broadcasters, who have a very limited understanding of the nature of sport in society. It has
also resulted in significant numbers of sport leaders in the sport establishment whose knowledge and understanding of sport is extremely limited. For too long education has neglected the meaning of sport, its history, theological roots, and aesthetic dimensions.

Statement of the Problem

The reform of the Intercollegiate Athletic establishment must include educational strategies as means of solving its problems. Colleges and universities need to insure that our young student-athletes are not only taught the "arena" game, but that performance itself has academic dimensions and possibilities heretofore unexplored and little appreciated. Specifically colleges and universities need to provide an appropriate curriculum for student-athletes which merge their legitimate needs and interests within an academic framework consistent with the mission of higher education.

One such strategy would be for college and university administrators, faculty members, and athletic administrators to encourage the development and implementation of curricula and programs of study in sport studies and performance for student-athletes. In other words, we must change the direction of the reform process. Rather than proposed reform strategies and solutions coming from the NCAA and Presidents Commissions, the thrust of reform should emanate from faculties, coaches, and the
athletes themselves. These groups are best equipped to examine what role sports fulfills in the world, where it fits, and how the athlete participates and contributes to that process.

Student-athletes who are brought to the university to perform and to enhance the university and community environment would benefit from curriculum and programs of study that will support and enhance their understanding of, and their participation in sport. Just as dancers, musicians, and actors have legitimate programs of study for their performance disciplines, athletes also should have a course of study relevant to their interests as members of the academic community.

Lopiano (1988), and Kleinman (1989), both proponents of intercollegiate athletic reform, have addressed the need for legitimate programs of study for student-athletes in sport studies and performance. Lopiano suggests:

...that the time and money we spend on athletics can only be justified if we define it as a bona fide nonclassroom educational activity, which is directly related to one of the primary missions of the university--LEARNING.

Athletics, like music, art and drama is a performing art. The athletics contest is no different than the theater or the symphony--albeit the audience appears to be more rabid. The non-classroom setting is no different than the practicum of the student newspaper. Athletics and theater must be--at their heart--laboratory settings where the exceptionally talented student maximizes his or her potential. It is only when we define athletics as an educational program very closely comparable to an academic entity that we finally possess the litmus paper with which we can test the legislative and other answers to problems
in athletics--problems which have evaded resolution for close to 80 years (Lopiano, 1988:2-4).

Kleinman furthers Lopiano's arguments by suggesting that colleges and universities create and validate academic programs for intercollegiate athletes in sport performance. He says:

What is necessary is a re-visioning of college athletics recognizing its study and practice as a performing art. Sport when performed at its highest level is as sophisticated, creative, and aesthetically redeeming as any of the other art forms. At present most colleges and universities have provided homes and programs for the student and teacher of music, drama, and dance. Degrees ranging from Bachelor of Arts to Ph.D. are granted to the aspiring musician, dancer, and actor. No one questions the appropriateness of the legitimacy of ballet or modern dance technique, deemed essential to the development of the dancer. In fact it is athletic ability which constitutes the core of the performing arts (Kleinman, 1988:59).

Kleinman goes on to say that:

To begin with, the university should provide the athlete, who is so inclined, with the opportunity to pursue an academic course of study in Athletic Performance. In addition to the usual general education requirements in the arts and sciences, such a curriculum would include intensive work, on an increasingly sophisticated level, in theory and technique, much in the way a piano or violin student progresses (Ibid).

Lopiano and Kleinman are suggesting that curriculum and programs of study, relevant to the world of the student-athlete, have a meaningful place in higher education. In other words, courses and programs should be developed to enlighten, inform, and involve the student-athlete so that they develop a more meaningful and
realistic understanding of sport at the university level, and its place in contemporary society as a whole. Student-athletes would then be integrated into the academic culture as performers, teachers, researchers, and scholars.

Included in this curriculum and in the program of study would be classes that are consistent with the standards and objectives of any academic course of study. Simply stated, universities should make available for student-athletes curriculum and programs of study that:

1. Acquaint student-athletes with the impact of sport on America from historical, philosophical, humanistic, economic, sociological, and ethical perspectives;

2. address the social and health related issues affecting student-athletes, i.e., being a public figure, career planning, university support services, gambling, eating disorders, AIDS and sexually transmitted disease education, steroids, and nutrition; and

3. enhance student-athlete's understanding of the human body and performance through the sciences and the arts.

If student-athletes are encouraged to pursue philosophic, humanistic, and scientific inquiries into the nature, history, and significance of sport and sport performance, as well as the social and health related
issues affecting contemporary student-athletes, they will come to a more meaningful understanding of their role as students and as athletes.

A program of study in sport studies and performance will provide the gifted performer with opportunity to pursue career goals highly suited to their talents. This may be especially appropriate for student-athletes placed "at risk" when they are forced to engage in a program of study in which they have little or no interest. Studying topics relevant to the student-athlete's interests may enhance academic achievement.

Sport has proven to be one of the most successful academic motivators for youth in our society. Hawkins (1990), Director of the University of Chicago's Institute for Athletics and Education, has proven that sports can be an effective tool for keeping youngsters interested in school at every level (Lederman, 1990:A42). Motivation comes from an inner involvement, a euphoria, a quest for excellence. The unique power sport holds over our young could be transferred into achieving bona fide educational objectives. Student-athletes could enhance their reading, writing, communication, critical thinking, teaching, and management skills using sport studies and performance as the means.

Such a curriculum and program of study would utilize the individual and combined resources and services of the
university to insure that learning and education are meaningful, life-long processes.

Objectives

The goal of this research project will be to demonstrate the need for, and development of, a bona fide program of study (major) in sport studies and performance. Student-athletes who choose this discipline would have a program of study that leads to a degree in sport studies and performance. As is the case in the other performance curricula, i.e., dance, music, and theatre, student-athletes would receive academic credit for their practice, participation, and performance. Sport performance would be recognized as part of the academic mission of the university, rather than being an appendage apart from the academic community.

For many years the faculty of colleges and universities have looked with disdain and discomfort on teaching sport and sport performance. This has resulted in the growth of autonomous and powerful athletic departments that are totally separate and often times at odds with the mission of the university. This has contributed to the abuses which presently exist in sport at both the amateur and professional levels. However, in the past twenty years a substantial amount of attention has been directed to the study of the history, philosophy, sociology, and psychology of sport. Exercise Science and Sports Medicine are now
recognized as academic areas of inquiry. Scholarly literature in the form of journals and books is rapidly increasing and this has become part of a resource base for students and faculty in all of these areas. The recognition of sport studies and performance as a legitimate, justifiable, and intellectually challenging field in higher education is long overdue.

Thus, the aforementioned curriculum and program of study will be both timely and unique. Its objective will be to re-establish total university responsibility both for athletics and academics. Coaches, faculties, administrators, and athletes must establish a relationship which fits into the academic community at all levels.

This curriculum can serve as a positive force for the reform of sport within the academic environment and in the culture at large.

Outline of the Study

The dissertation will be divided into six chapters. The first chapter will be the introduction.

Chapter two will provide a review of the literature on the history of Intercollegiate Athletics, its problems, and the corresponding reform agendas that have been part of this history. This review will look specifically for reform agendas that suggest sharing an understanding and knowledge about sport with student-athletes.
Chapter three will review the literature on the relationships that exist between sport and dance. Initially, chapter three will define dance and sport. Following this, a review of the historical relationships that exist between dance and sport will be put forth. Third, this chapter will review the common elements that are akin to dance and sport. And forth, chapter three will examine the performance dimensions of sport. Demonstrating the proximity of dance to sport can provide support for the consideration of sport performance as a legitimate program of study in higher education.

Chapter four will report on a survey and document the availability of curricula and the presence of sport studies and performance programs at the 106 NCAA Division I-A colleges and universities.

Chapter five will offer an alternative to the current state of affairs between athletics and academics. A sport studies and performance program of study will be presented. A current dance performance program of study will be presented which may serve as a model upon which a sport studies and performance major may be based. Supplementing the presentation of the program of study will be an evaluation of the sports studies and performance program by a group of leaders in the field of education and athletics. The results of the evaluation of the proposed program will be presented.
Chapter six will consist of a summary, conclusions, and recommendations.
CHAPTER II

A Review of the Literature on the History of Intercollegiate Athletics: The Problems and Corresponding Reform Agendas

This chapter of the dissertation will focus on a review of the history of intercollegiate athletics in America and the reform agendas that have been part of that history. It will highlight any reforms that have suggested teaching student-athletes about sport and the sport lifeworld.

Historical Review

Kaestle (1985) states that the history of education, like history in general, share methodological problems. He says:

There is no single, definable method of inquiry, and important historical generalizations are rarely beyond dispute. Rather they are the result of an interaction between fragmentary evidence and the values and experiences of the historian. History is a challenging and creative interaction, part science, part art (Kaestle, 1988:61).

Intercollegiate Sport

Sports and games were not part of the curriculum that administrators and faculties put forth in early days of colleges and universities in America. Their concern was
first and foremost academics based upon strict and sacred values. Smith (1988) states, "Colleges in the early nineteenth century were still dominated by the clergy, who more often believed in the depravity of man than in the goodness of mankind" (Smith, 1988:14).

These overriding values of the early college faculties came into conflict with the strong secular values of many of the students. The students, eager to release the tensions that resulted from their strict diet of books and scholarship, began to participate in extracurricular activities. The faculties initially prohibited all such extracurricular activities. The students, on the other hand, with their rebellious desire to be free and independent, were not easily thwarted. As a result of their persistence college authorities were forced to support a variety of extracurricular activities. According to Davenport (1985) the college faculty justified these activities as "...a method for students to release pent-up energies" (Davenport, 1985:6). Smith (1988) supplements this by saying:

College students, nevertheless, began to form their own activities to meet the vacuum created by a sterile curriculum and inadequate social, intellectual, aesthetic, and physical life. The college extracurriculum was born out of student necessity, or as one Amherst college man said, the customs of the students "have served to vary the monotony, and relieve the dryness of college duties" (Smith, 1988:14).
The rapid increase in the number of colleges brought forth many rivalries. A competitive spirit was alive at most colleges. As the students extracurricular activities became more organized they naturally wished to exhibit their talents against other students from neighboring institutions. These were displayed in many different arenas including literary competitions, debates, and athletics. Smith (1988) puts forth:

The extracurriculum, which began with the literary societies and the freeing of the intellect, was by mid-nineteenth century transformed into the lifeblood of student social and physical life in the leading colleges in America. Athletics were soon to bring the students of various colleges together in displays of excellence and competition that faculty saw only rarely in the classroom. It all began with rowing competitions (Smith, 1988:25).

The first recorded intercollegiate competition took place in 1852. It was a crew (rowing) race organized between the students of Harvard and Yale. The excitement caused by this race, and others that followed, helped to publicize the colleges and increase their enrollments. Administration and faculty were quick to notice and take advantage of this attention. Davenport (1985) says, "It soon became apparent to many college authorities that the news about the crew races was helping to publicize the college and, thus, aiding admissions" (Davenport, 1985:7).

It is interesting to note that even these first intercollegiate competitions were not devoid of the commercialization that now dominates college sport. A
railroad official, hearing of the students' plans for a crew race, offered to provide transportation and accommodations for the students at a vacation spot in New Hampshire. The railroad official believed that the business generated from the sporting event, on the train and at the resort, would produce a profit for him and his business associates (Smith, 1988:28).

The success of this first intercollegiate sport competition paved the way for future competitions. To better their chances for success, college students began to raise money for new equipment, facilities, coaches, and training. Crowds, some estimated as large as 25,000, often came to witness the rowing races. From its infancy intercollegiate sport was very popular and provided opportunities for business, prestige, fellowship, and the release of physical energy.

It was not long after this first rowing competition that baseball, which was a popular sport played by many American colleges, began intercollegiate competition. The first intercollegiate game was in 1859 between Amherst and Williams. Amherst defeated Williams 73-32 (Davenport, 1985:7).

Ten years later, on November 6, 1869, intercollegiate sport as we know it was born when Rutgers defeated Princeton 6-4 in a football game. Davenport (1985) talks about the excitement that football generated. She says, "No
other sport, especially in the big universities, was received with such enthusiasm, created more controversy, or caused more meetings" (Davenport, 1985:7). It was not long before football, and more importantly, winning teams became a significant part of many colleges. The intercollegiate games helped publicize the institutions. Again Davenport says, "This publicity, especially if the teams were winning, increased alumni donations, attracted prospective students, and in the case of state-supported colleges, increased appropriations from the state legislature" (Ibid).

These early student organized and student run intercollegiate athletic programs were operated like many of the laissez-faire industries of the late nineteenth century. According to Smith (1988):

...students were reluctant to share with their academic superiors authority in athletics, a non-academic area. Similarly, there was strong resistance to giving up individual institutional autonomy over college sports in favor of greater control and the collective good (Smith, 1988:134).

With the success of intercollegiate competitions and the freedom that the student organizers maintained, came a variety of problems that concerned the faculty. Some of these problems were the scheduling of competitions, disorderly conduct on campus, enormous athletic revenues, non-students competing on teams, and violence on the gridiron. Concern about the abuses and the students
unwillingness or inability to control their own athletic programs prompted faculty to become involved in the conduct of intercollegiate athletic programs. This began as early as 1880 when Princeton faculty formed the first college faculty athletic committee. Over the next twenty years nearly all colleges formed similar bodies of faculty members to address the problems in college sport.

Despite this involvement of faculty, intercollegiate athletics continued to grow and the abuses continued to escalate. It was not long before the popularity of intercollegiate sports created large business enterprises on college campuses. With this growth came the need for more sophisticated organization and management:

The 1890's were a critical time for American collegiate sports. Big name universities were determined to win at any cost and were committing bigger and bigger excesses to do so. Professional baseball pitchers were becoming campus stars. Coaches were inserting non-students for football games and putting themselves in their own line ups. Jam-packed college grandstands went wild rooting for "heroes" who attended school only during baseball and football seasons. Street brawls between players and townspeople often followed hotly-contested games.

Collegiate sports were at a critical crossroads and might have been set back many years—or even abolished—had it not been for the urgent and historic meeting in Chicago on January 11, 1895 (Wilson and Brondfield, 1967).

During the meeting, "The Intercollegiate Conference of Faculty Representatives," was established. This conference was the first collective attempt to organize and reform intercollegiate athletics. The Conference prescribed that
control of intercollegiate athletics should be in the hands of the faculty and they established rules for student's eligibility and participation. This Conference would later become The Big Ten. Other organizing bodies across the country modeled their organizations on the guidelines set forth by this Intercollegiate Conference.

The ICFR was not alone in its attempt to curb the abuses in intercollegiate sport. Another reform agenda was established by the Brown Conference Committee in 1898. Representatives of the Ivy League colleges met and put forth the following suggestions:

1. only students in good academic standing would be eligible to participate;

2. special or part-time students could not participate until they had attended college for one year;

3. students deficient in studies in one university department could not participate in athletics if they transferred to another department in the same university;

4. no student admitted without passing the university entrance examination, or convincing governing authorities that he was capable of doing a full year's work, would be eligible for athletics;

5. students be allowed no more than four years of eligibility;

6. students transferring from one institution to another could not participate in intercollegiate athletics for one year;

7. only freshman would be allowed to participate on freshman teams;
8. no freshman could participate on both the freshman and varsity teams.

9. teams were not to practice during college vacations, except ten days prior to the opening of the fall term;

10. all contests were to be held on college grounds;

11. students of the competing colleges were to be given preference in the allotment of seats to contests;

12. no student could participate in athletics if he had previously played for money;

13. no student could participate if he had taught sports for financial gain;

14. no student would be eligible in athletics if he received board free at special dining facilities for athletes or if he owed money for training table meals (Smith, 1988:143).

The recommendation that the Brown Conference put forth clearly demonstrates the concerns that faculty had regarding college athletics prior to the turn of the century. The report came out strongly in favor of faculty control of intercollegiate sport. Despite the noble efforts of the Brown committee, colleges were reluctant to commit themselves to accept these rules. The faculty were overpowered by the competitive and win-oriented ethos of their college communities (Smith, 1988:140-46).

In 1905 the situation in football in America had reached a climax when 18 players died and another 143 were seriously injured as a result of their participation in intercollegiate games. President Theodore Roosevelt was aghast that colleges would allow such brutality and called
for representatives of several colleges and universities to meet so that they might remedy the situation. In 1905 about 30 institutional representatives met and established the "Intercollegiate Athletic Association of the United States." It later (1910) became the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA). The constitution of the original IAAUS stated its purpose:

Its (IAAUS) object shall be the regulation and supervision of college athletics throughout the United States, in order that the athletic activities in the colleges and universities of the United States may be maintained on an ethical plane in keeping with the dignity and high purpose of education (Applin, 1979).

The IAAUS was a sports rule-making advisory board that had few, if any, enforcement mechanisms. Though intercollegiate sports now had a national governing body, this body was separate from the educational programs and curricula of colleges and universities.

The 1920's ushered in the Golden Age of Sports. Colleges and universities began to recognize intercollegiate athletics as an important part of their promotional and financial mission and, for the most part, placed them in existing departments of physical education. Intercollegiate sport, now being a bona fide member of the academic community, received institutional support which allowed for even further expansion. Many of the large football stadiums, including the "Shoe" at The Ohio State University, were constructed during this period of
expansion. Football was especially popular and became powerful. Seating capacities of many of these stadiums approached or exceeded 100,000.

Many of the seats in the newly constructed stadiums were filled by alumni and townspeople. Hofstadler and Hardy (1952) describe this phenomenon:

Athletics, because they are a symbolic link between the alumnus and his youth, are also the strongest link between the alumnus and his school. In some, yet undefined because no social psychologist has yet made a study of the alumnus—renewed contact with intercollegiate athletics revives his youth as no other experience could. He returns to the stadium with a sense of expectation that he could not think of getting from a visit with a former teacher or a visit to the library....The alumnus is important to the university: He is a major source of direct support...he joins the undergraduate in underwriting commercialized athletics (Hofstadler, 1952:114).

The intercollegiate sport boom pushed full steam ahead due to the enormous popularity of winning teams, increased commercialization, and publicity i.e., radio, books, and newspapers. Colleges and universities established marketing offices and sports information departments to fuel their money making enterprises. They even promoted and financed intramural sport programs in hopes of training athletes to step into the intercollegiate spotlight (Davenport, 1985:9). The commercialization and influence of alumni on intercollegiate athletics pushed college sport even further away from the educational mission of colleges and universities. This ultimately led to more and more problems: "The whole business (Athletics) has gotten out
of proportion and out of hand. What is needed is not a
general housecleaning but a revolution" (Gavit, 1924:143).

As a result of the escalating problems another attempt
was made to better organize and regulate college sport.
This came in 1929 when the Carnegie Commission released its
findings of a three year investigation into intercollegiate
sport. The report said:

In the United States the composite institution called
a university is doubtless still an intellectual
agency. But it is also a social, a commercial and an
athletic agency, and these activities have in recent
years appreciably overshadowed the intellectual life
for which the university is assumed to exist.

...the football contest...is not a students' game, as
it once was. It is a highly organized commercial
enterprise. The athletes who take part in it have
come up through years of training; they are commended
by professional coaches; little if any personal
initiative of ordinary play is left to the player.
The great matches are highly profitable enterprises
(Savage, 1929:VIII).

The report left little doubt as to who has the
responsibility to bring about reform:

But there can be no doubt as to where lies the
responsibility to correct this situation. The defense
of the intellectual integrity of the college and of
the university lies with the president and
faculty....The responsibility to bring athletics into
a sincere relation to the intellectual life of the
college rests squarely on the shoulders of the
president and faculty (Savage, 1929:XX)

The report concluded by addressing two prime needs of
college athletics:

The first is a change of values in a field that is
sodden with the commercial and the material and the
vested interests that these forces have created.
Commercialism in college athletics must be diminished
and college sport must rise to a point where it is esteemed primarily and sincerely for the opportunities it affords to mature youth under responsibility, to exercise at once the body and the mind, and to foster habits both in bodily health and of those high qualities of character which, until they are revealed in action, we accept on faith.

The second need is more fundamental. The American college must renew within itself the force that will challenge the best intellectual capabilities of the undergraduate. Happily, this task is now engaging the attention of numerous college officers and teachers. Better still, the fact is becoming recognized that the granting of opportunity for the fulfillment of intellectual promise need not impair the socializing qualities of college sport. It is not necessary to "include athletics in the curriculum" of the undergraduate or to legislate out of them their life and spirit in order to extract what educational values they promise in terms of courage, independent thinking, cooperation, initiative, habits of bodily activity, and, above all, honesty in dealings between man and man. Whichever conception of the function of the American college, intellectual or socializing agency, be adopted, let only the chosen ideal be followed with sincerity and clear vision, and in the course of years our college sport will largely take care of itself (Savage, 1929:310-311).

As expected, most institutions with large intercollegiate athletic programs denied any wrong doing. They insisted that the abuses cited in the report were not happening at their colleges or universities. History tells us that the good faith efforts of the Carnegie Commission had little impact on the organization and management of intercollegiate athletic programs. It will be noted later in this review that a similar reform agenda was suggested sixty years later in the recently completed Knight Commission Report (1991), "Keeping Faith With The Student-Athlete."
It became increasingly clear in the 1930's that the organization established to control intercollegiate athletics, the NCAA, could in reality, exercise only limited control over the escalating problems. Following a meeting in 1934 the President of the NCAA stated in closure that the NCAA, "has never assumed the responsibility of trying to be a governing body....These are local problems. Perhaps, all that the NCAA can do is in an educational way try to state standards or ideals" (NCAA, 1934:115).

Colleges and universities had secured virtually unlimited freedom in administering and running their athletic programs. An example of this freedom was when Jesse Owens, the legendary track star, chose to attend The Ohio State University, despite its reputation of racially prejudicial attitudes and policies. The University had provided both him and his father with jobs (Baker, 1986:34-35). This practice was not unique to Ohio State. It was a common practice in many colleges and universities throughout the nation to offer incentives to recruit college athletes.

After World War II, the bridge between intercollegiate athletics and education continued to erode, leading to even greater commercialization of intercollegiate athletics. The link between departments of physical education and athletics was, in many large colleges and universities, very weak. Physical education became part of the academic
hierarchy while intercollegiate athletics became an auxiliary business enterprise (Hanford, 1974:132). This separation was partially a result of intercollegiate athletics jumping aboard the television bandwagon. Television added new revenues and exposure. The spread of sport to nearly all U.S. households enabled college athletics to become part of the fabric of American life. Televised broadcasts of intercollegiate sports became a central part of the corporate planning of athletic departments. Colleges and universities quickly began to consider sport to be an entertaining and commercial vehicle, rather than an educational vehicle.

With increased exposure, popularity, and revenues came more pressure on programs and coaches to win. This led to the escalation of recruiting violations, abuses in the education of student-athletes, and scandals. These problems reached a peak in the 1950's with the point shaving scandals in intercollegiate basketball. As a result the NCAA finally revised their constitution and began to censure institutions who violate the rules. The control of intercollegiate sports now rested, not with the institutions, but with the NCAA, an outside regulatory body that was overburdened with reports of violations and abuse.

The 1950's were a very troublesome time in intercollegiate sport. What was not known during this period, but predictable if one examines the undisciplined
management of intercollegiate sport, was that during the decades of the 1960's and 1970's even more scandals and problems would surface as athletes joined in the student demonstrations and demanded racial justice and parity. Leading the reform effort among the athletes of this period was a young Professor of Sociology from San Jose State, Harry Edwards. Edwards, along with others in sport, like Muhammad Ali, began to organize and speak out on the injustices towards African American athletes and African Americans. Their messages identified the rampant abuses and corruption that was going on in the world of intercollegiate sport.

The expansion of the intercollegiate commercial enterprise brought with it a disregard for the interests of the athletes. The athlete's concerns were relegated to secondary status. Hanford (1974) writing in "An Inquiry into the Need and Feasibility of a National Study of Intercollegiate Athletics" puts forth:

...most of the rules for the conduct of intercollegiate sports were written to protect institutions from each other in the big-time sports and the interests and the education of the athletes themselves, as individuals, come second (Hanford, 1974:127).

It is interesting to note that in the aforementioned report, Hanford made reference to an idea suggested by a handful of college presidents to formally recognize preprofessional sport training as a legitimate course of
study in colleges and universities. The presidents suggested that college credit should be awarded for participation in big-time sports programs (Ibid:130).

Hanford further noted in the inquiry that athletics have drifted from the mainstream of American education. He felt this was especially apparent in the disciplines of sport studies. He said:

...this (drifting away) is nowhere more apparent than in the lack of attention that has been given to the field by members of faculty departments whose subject matter interest has relevance to the topic (Ibid:133).

Following on the heels of the Hanford feasibility study came another attempt to reform intercollegiate athletics. The American Council on Education, who had organized the Hanford study, pleaded with college and university administrators to get involved and clean-up intercollegiate sport. The Director of the Commission, Harry Marmion said:

The role of sports on some college campuses is more important than many realize. Strong collegiate athletic programs can have significant economic, social, and even political effects on the institution, a state, and even an entire region....We must be aware, concerned, and involved with this unique aspect of our educational system. If key administrators do not get involved, then the inevitable will happen. There will be scandals, governmental involvement, and even worse, public condemnation (Marmion, 1979:343-344).

When discussing intercollegiate athletics and the reform agendas that have accompanied college sport, it is important not to overlook the female model that dominated
women's intercollegiate athletics during the first half of the Twentieth Century. During this period women involved in intercollegiate athletics were under the direction of an education oriented organizing body made up of women physical educators. Unlike the male model, the female model emphasized fair play and avoidance of intense competition.

Carpenter and Acosta (1991) state:

These characteristics existed to protect females from the perceived ills of men's athletics, and also because most people accepted that females should not, could not, or did not want to compete as intensely as their male counterparts (Carpenter and Acosta, 1991:23-27).

The model that women put forth concerning women's physical education and athletics was, "A Game for Every Girl and a Girl for Every Game" (Twin, 1985:183). Sportswriter John Tunis called the women's model, "a clear definition of what sports should be in a democratic regime. It ought to be studied by all those charged with supervising men's athletics" (Tunis cited in Twin, 1985:183).

Carpenter and Acosta suggest that if the aforementioned women's model was still in existence today it might be as follows:

1. The student portion of the term student-athlete is more important.
2. Student governance of campus programs and student involvement via student athletic associations are healthy, viable phenomena.
3. Winning is great, but can be compatible with the growth of the individual.

4. The greater the cooperation and mutual interest between the academic and athletic aspects of the college experience the better.

5. The improvement of the student as an athlete is less important than the improvement of the student as a healthy, contributing member of society.

6. Selection and fostering of a specific sport are based on the perception of participant interest and the sport's ability to provide positive experiences for the student.

7. Women, women's sports, and men's minor sports are necessary for the proper development of a balanced and responsible athletic/academic complex (Carpenter and Acosta, 1991:25).

Unfortunately the women's model that Carpenter and Acosta suggest would not be the model followed by women's intercollegiate athletics. During the 1970's two events occurred that would change women's sports and the model they followed.

The first event was the founding of the Association of Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW) by female physical educators. These female educators, sensitive to the fact that society's definitions of gender roles were changing and that women needed the option for more challenging and intense competition, created an association to increase opportunities in college sport for women.

The second event was the passage of Title IX by Congress in 1972. Title IX was the federal law that mandated equal opportunities for women in athletics. Title
IX stated:

"No person in the United States shall on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving federal assistance" (Eitzen, 1989:336).

Despite the efforts of the NCAA to have intercollegiate athletics exempt from Title IX, a revised version took hold in 1975.

After the passage of Title IX the expansion of women's athletics, specifically the AIAW, was evident. According to Guttmann (1992):

No one can deny that women's athletic programs began for the first time in American history, to rival men's programs in the number of contests staged and the amount of publicity received (Guttmann, 1992:213).

The success of the AIAW was not overlooked by colleges and universities who were members of the NCAA. Hoping to increase funding, participation, and competition, and to eliminate the duplication of programs, i.e., NCAA for men and AIAW for women, women's athletics was merged with the men (NCAA). This merger was carried out despite the objections of many women in the AIAW. The assimilation began at the 1980 NCAA convention when members voted to hold national championships for women in Division II and Division III schools. One year later NCAA member institutions voted to sponsor championships for women at Division I schools (Ibid). The members also agreed to include women on the NCAA Council and Executive Committee.
It was not long before the AIAW was dissolved (Ibid).

The hopes of the women, i.e., increased opportunities and equality in college sport, have yet to be completely fulfilled. This fact came to light in a recent study by the NCAA (March, 1992). Their findings showed that men's teams receive almost 70 percent of the athletic-scholarship money, 77 percent of the operating money, and 83 percent of the recruiting money spent by colleges that play big-time sports (Lederman, 1992:A1, A45-46). Lederman (1992) said, "the study showed clearly that the average Division I college was in violation of Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, the laws that bar sex discrimination at institutions that receive federal aid" (Ibid).

The severity of the problems that exist in intercollegiate sport is most evident when you consider the number of colleges and universities who were investigated for rules infractions over a thirty year period. According to Bailey and Littleton (1991) during the period from October 1952 to October 1983, the NCAA infractions committee considered 1,334 cases, 272 of which resulted in public reprimand, censure or probation. Private reprimands were issued in another 573 cases in which minor violations occurred (Bailey and Littleton, 1991:21). The concern over violations reached a climax in 1985 when the NCAA adopted their "death penalty," for repeat offenders. The death penalty was the NCAA's mandate that repeat offenders would
not be eligible to participate in the intercollegiate sport that was guilty of the infraction.

Additionally in the 1980's, on the recommendation of the American Council on Education, the President's Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics was established as an advisory board to the NCAA. The original goal of the ACE was to establish a policy making group who, through legislation, could shift power from the athletic directors, faculty athletic representatives, and NCAA bureaucracy, back to the institutions. Despite strong efforts by the ACE, the original goals of the commission were reduced to only an advisory role. Also in the 1980's, again on the recommendation of the American Council on Education, the NCAA adopted Proposition 48. This rule, according to Chu (1985):

...sought to tighten eligibility standards by requiring NCAA Division I freshman athletic scholarship recipients to have a 2.0 core curriculum (11 courses) high school average and a minimum combined math and verbal score on the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) of 700. Student-athletes not fulfilling these minimum requirements may still receive athletic scholarships, but they would be not eligible for varsity participation during their freshman year. (Chu, 1985:361).

Proposition 48 was adopted to remedy the abuses by colleges and universities who were recruiting student-athletes who would not be capable of college work. Moreover, it sent a message to high school students that if they wished to attend and participate in intercollegiate
sport at a Division I college or university, they would have to do well in school. Edwards, the sports sociologist and outspoken critic of the abuses in intercollegiate athletics, suggests that rule 48, while not perfect, sent a message to young high school athletes that certain standards of academic as well as athletic achievement are expected (Edwards cited in Chu, 1985:373-384).

At a recent NCAA convention (January 1992) the delegates voted to raise the requirements that were originally outlined in Proposition 48. By an overwhelming majority the delegates passed two proposals. The first, Proposal No. 14, increased the number of high school core courses from 11 to 13. The second, Proposal No. 16, increased the required SAT score from 700 to 900 (Pickle, 1992:1). Despite objections from some delegates that standardized tests may be racially biased, the second proposal was approved. Gregory O'Brien (1992), chair of the NCAA's Presidents Commission said, "Students who are given a standard to meet and the time to meet it will meet that standard" (O'Brien cited in Pickle, 1992:1 &22).

Still another attempt to reform intercollegiate sport was instigated in the late 1980's with the establishment of the previously mentioned, "Knight Foundation Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics." The Trustees of the Knight Foundation were concerned that, "abuses in athletics had reached proportions threatening the very integrity of
higher education" (Knight Commission, 1991:V). In the Knight report titled, "Keeping Faith With The Student-Athlete: A New Model For Intercollegiate Athletics," the Commission outlined the severity of the problems that plague intercollegiate sport. The report states:

Recruiting, the bane of the college coach's life, is one area particularly susceptible to abuse. While most institutions and coaches recruit ethically and within the rules, some clearly do not. Recruiting abuses are the most frequent cause of punitive action by the NCAA.

Athletic programs are given special, often unique, status within the university; the best coaches receive an income many times that of most full professors; some coaches succumb to the pressure to win with recruiting violations and even the abuse of players; boosters respond to athletic performance with gifts and under-the-table payments; faculty members, presidents and other administrators, unable to control the enterprise, stand by as it undermines the institution's goals in the name of values alien to the best university represents.

Within the last decade, big-time athletics programs have taken on all of the trappings of a major entertainment enterprise. In search for television revenues, traditional rivalries have been tossed aside in conference realignments, games have been rescheduled to satisfy broadcast preferences, the number of games has multiplied, student-athletes have been put on the field at all hours of the day and night, and university administrators have fallen to quarrelling among themselves over the division of revenues for national broadcasting contracts.

At the root of the problem is a great reversal of ends and means. Increasingly, the team, the game, the season and "the program" -- all intended as expressions of the university's larger purposes -- gain ascendancy over the ends that created and nurtured them. Non-revenue sports receive little attention and women's programs take a back seat. As the educational context for collegiate athletics competition is pushed aside, what remains is, too often, a self-justifying enterprise whose connection
with learning is tainted by commercialism and incipient cynicism.

One recent analysis indicates that fully one-half of all Division I-A institutions (the 106 colleges and universities with the most competitive and expensive football programs) were the object of sanctions of varying severity from the NCAA during the 1980's. Other institutions, unsanctioned, graduate very few student-athletes in revenue producing sports. Because these problems are so widespread, nothing short of a new structure holds much promise for restoring intercollegiate athletics to their proper place in the university (Knight Commission Report, 1991:4-7).

With a two million dollar budget and the input of eighteen college and university Chancellors and Presidents; CEO's from a half-dozen major corporations, the commission came up with their agenda for reform. Their prescription for reform stated:

The Commission's bedrock conviction is that university presidents are the key to successful reform. They must be in charge--and be understood to be in charge--on campuses, in conferences and in the decision making councils of the NCAA.

We propose what we call the "one-plus-three" model, a new structure of reform in which the "one"--presidential control--is directed toward the "three"--academic integrity, financial integrity and independent certification. With such a model in place, higher education can address all of the subordinate difficulties in college sports. Without such a model, athletics reform will continue in fits and starts, its energy squandered on symptoms, the underlying problems ignored (Knight Commission Report, 1991:VII)

As the Knight Commission Report demonstrates, the call for reform in college sports has become a high priority for many college and university presidents and assorted interested faculty. Bailey and Littleton, both from Auburn

Their prescription for reform calls for:

...control at the institutional level, but with the recognition that this can be accomplished only with the cooperation of partners of the institution—a conference (where there is such affiliation) and the NCAA, along with the support of other entities such as national educational organizations and the media (Bailey and Littleton, 1991:xii).

Simply stated they put forth that presidents and professors need to become more involved in the affairs of their sports programs (Bailey and Littleton, 1991).

It is important to note that still other reform agendas have been suggested by outside observers who follow and report on the athletic games of colleges and universities. One such person who has many years of personal involvement with intercollegiate sport, especially NCAA Division I football, and who is presently a writer for a popular sports magazine, is Rick Telerterd. His agenda for the reform of college football is the Age Group Professional Football League. He puts forth his agenda in his book, *The Hundred Yard Lie* (1989). Because of the abuses that exist in intercollegiate football, Telerterd proposes that Division I-A universities that wish to retain big time football, become members of a professional football league. The players in this league do not necessarily have to be enrolled in the college or
university. They must, however, have graduated from high school. The players in the AGPFL would receive a salary for their participation in football. The teams will be owned by the universities and their primary function will be to act as a farm organization for the National Football League and to generate profits for the University (Telander, 1989).

Telander's arguments might seem novel to some. Examining the history of intercollegiate sport suggests that Telander's reform agenda is not new and, like other agendas, has been suggested before. As early as 1948 one college president was calling for the full-time employment of players who represent colleges and universities on the football field. He suggested that players be paid for their services during the season and be allowed to attend school during their off-season semesters (Hanford, 1974:130).

The threat of government involvement, previously mentioned by Harry Marmion, is beginning to take hold in intercollegiate sport as, yet another, agenda for reform. Recently there have been several bills introduced in Congress relating to the regulation of college sports. Despite the objections from the NCAA and college and university presidents, the lawmakers, feeling pressure from their constituents, are attempting to curb some of the abuses in intercollegiate sport.
Is There A Solution To The Problem?

With nearly one-hundred-fifty years of intercollegiate sport and their abuses behind us, it seems we have yet to find meaningful and lasting solutions to the many problems that are prevalent in college athletics. Recently in a two month period (November-December, 1992) we witnessed the resignation of three Division I-A football coaches because of rule violations (Lederman, 1992:A30-32). We witnessed the dismissal of the starting quarterback from the Nation's number one football team because of illegal loans (Blum, 1992:A29). We read about numerous athletes suspended for various crimes, from robbery to assault (Blum, 1992:A27-29). We also read or heard about pending litigation filed on behalf of women who are demanding fair and equitable treatment in intercollegiate sport (Blum, 1992:A34).

The review of the history of intercollegiate athletics and the reform agendas that have accompanied that history, combined with the problems that presently exist in intercollegiate sport, clearly suggests that there is still much that needs to be done to facilitate the merging of athletics with academics.
CHAPTER III

Sport and Dance: The Relationships

Chapter three will review the literature on the relationships that exist between sport and dance. Towards that end, four categories will be explored.

First, chapter three will define dance and sport. Following this, a review of the historical relationships that exist between dance and sport will be put forth. Third, chapter three will review the common elements that are akin to dance and sport. And forth, chapter three will examine the performance dimensions of sport.

Demonstrating the proximity of dance to sport can provide support for the consideration of sport performance as a legitimate program of study in higher education.

Dance and Sport Defined

The first task in any discussion of dance and sport is that of definition.

Dance

According to Hanna (1979) dance can be most usefully defined as human behavior composed of (1) purposeful, (2) intentionally rhythmical, and (3) culturally patterned sequences of (4a) nonverbal body movements, (4b) other than ordinary motor activities, (4c) the motion having inherent
and aesthetic value (Hanna 1979:19).

Gardner (1983), suggests that dance goes back many thousands of years. He says:

...masked dancing sorcerers and hunters are depicted in the ancient caves of Europe and in the mountain ranges of South Africa. In fact, of all the human activities depicted in the caves, dancing is the second most prominent, right after hunting, with which it may have been associated (Gardner, 1983:222).

Hanna (1979) suggests that we can view dance from a number of different perspectives. She says:

Dance is physical behavior: the human body releases energy through muscular responses to stimuli received by the brain.

Dance is cultural behavior: a people's values, attitudes, and beliefs partially determine the conceptualization of dance as well as its physical production, style, structure, content, and performance.

Dance is social behavior. Social life is necessary for human mastery of the environment; dance reflects and influences patterns of social organization.

Dance is psychological, involving cognitive and emotional experiences affected by and affecting an individual's personal and group life.

As economic behavior, dancers may perform for a fee to supplement or to earn their livelihood, or perhaps to enhance occupational skills or values.

As political behavior, dance is a forum for articulating political attitudes and values.

Dance is communicative behavior (Hanna, 1979:3-4).

Dance, according to Hanna, is a playlike form. She says that the play element of dance allows for exploration of the "unsafe" without the consequences of being thrust into the "real" world (Ibid:134). She adds, "There is the
possibility for distancing, safe examination of problems, and the separation or merging of serious and nonserious" (Ibid).

Hanna suggests that dance, "...is often a set of operations to ensure a certain type of communication" (Ibid:129). It is the communicative power of dance, combined with the movement and repetition that, according to Hanna, makes dance ritualistic. She says, "...it is a symbolic mode of communication of 'saying something' in a formal way, not to be said in ordinary language or informal behavior (Ibid).

Sport

Sport, according to Metheny is a separate activity, apart from everyday existence in conduct and intent. In other words, sport is non-utilitarian and exists outside our functional worlds (Metheny cited in Thomas, 1983:7). Sport is also an experience that changes each time we engage in it. Felshin (1969) says, "If the sport experience was the same each time, we can only assume that eventually it would become boring rather than interesting" (Felshin cited in Thomas, 1983:7). Kleinman (1968) adds:

...in sport, elements of challenge and the primary elements of the individual keep it a "new" experience each time and prohibit establishment of a set of necessary and sufficient properties which define sport (Kleinman, 1968: 28-34).

David Sansone (1988), defines sport as, "the ritual sacrifice of physical energy" (Sansone, 1988:37). He bases
his definition on the history of sport which he traces back to the ancient hunts that were necessary for the survival of the human species. The ritual sacrifice of human physical energy in the pre-hunt, hunt, and post-hunt was, according to Sansone, the key component of the sporting experience (Ibid).

John Loy (1978) says that at the root of all sport is play (Loy, 1978:3-26). Loy uses Johan Huizinga's definition of play. Huizinga (1955) describes play as follows:

Summing up the formal characteristics of play we might call it a free activity standing quite consciously outside "ordinary" life as being "not serious," but at the same time absorbing the player intensely and utterly. It is an activity connected with no material interest, and no profit can be gained by it. It proceeds within its own proper boundaries of time and space according to fixed rules and in an orderly manner. It promotes the formation of social groupings which tend to surround themselves with secrecy and to stress their difference from the common world by disguise or other means (Huizinga, 1955:13)

After establishing play as the fundamental characteristic of sport, Loy extends the definition of play. The result is games. According to Loy, games are any form of playful competition including those of chance, strategy, or physical skill that have an uncertain outcome. Loy suggests that the uncertain outcome of games is what keeps us interested both as spectators and participants. This reiterates what Kleinman previously mentioned as sport being a "new" experience each time. Loy identifies
competition as primary to both games and sport. He defines competition as a "struggle for supremacy." What differentiates sport from games, according to Loy, is the physical prowess required in sport. Loy's progression from play, to games, to sport, leads him to the following definition. He states that sport, "is an institutionalized game demanding the demonstration of physical prowess" (Loy, 1978:3-26).

Dance and Sport: The Historical Relationships

The performance medium most often associated with sport is dance. Dewey (1934) puts it best when he says:

Dance and sport are activities in which acts once performed spontaneously in separation are assembled and converted from raw, crude material into works of expressive art (Dewey, 1934:63).

The relationships that have existed between dance and sport have been well documented. Throughout history there have been exchanges between these two forms of human, physical motion. One of the earliest examples of these exchanges was the Minoans' Bull-leaping in Ancient Crete. Yalouris (1979) suggests that this event was not merely a display of athletic grace, but a ritualistic, dance, tumbling event that was performed on a special ground for the benefit of the participants and the community. The performance provided the community with hope for renewal and survival (Yalouris, 1979:13-20).
During the Ancient Olympic Festivals (776 B.C.), athletic contests, as well as competitions in music, art, dance, and literature were commonplace. The ideal education in Ancient Greece combined exercises for the body, voice, instrumental music, dance, and sport. Yalouris says:

For the ancient Greek, the human body had an overriding value, and in order to achieve the utmost development, harmony, and effective functioning of it, he trained determinedly, and systematically from his early childhood (Ibid:44).

Socrates (V B.C.) discussed dance and sport while dining with friends. He said, "Right now let us continue with the entertainment. For I see that the dancing girl has come out and they are giving her some hoops" (Socrates cited in Sweet, 1987:203).

After watching another dancer perform with swords Socrates told his dinner guests, to their amusement, that he would like to dance. He said:

You are laughing at me? Is it because I wish to improve my health or enjoy eating or sleeping more by exercise in dancing than if I were to indulge in your kind of exercises? Dancing would not thicken the legs and weaken the shoulders like long-distance running, nor thin down the legs and thicken the shoulders like boxing. But by distributing the strain over the whole body it makes it well proportioned (Ibid:204).

What Socrates was witnessing was a performance of dance and sport. It was a performance similar to the contemporary sport of rhythmic gymnastics. In Socrates time the similarities between dance and sport were well
established.

During the Renaissance the techniques of the military, sport, and dance were all taught at one academy. Young warriors, athletes, and artists were very much aware of the importance of physical training using techniques of dance and sport (Thomas, 1981).

Contemporary relationships that exist between dance and sport have been documented from many sources. Coaches such as Knute Rockne (football), Andrew Hardie (track and field), and Larry Brown (basketball), have strengthened the performances of their teams through the use of dance. Dancers Gene Kelly and Edward Vilella, together with the overwhelming scientific research have shown that dancers are some of the world's finest athletes. And athletes, both amateur and professional, have shown that their performance can be enhanced and injuries reduced through dance training.

One example of dance and its relationship to sport comes from Knute Rockne (1931), the legendary Notre Dame football coach, who was inspired by the dance and used this inspiration to enhance the performance of his football team. In his autobiography he said the following about his practice sessions:

His footwork will receive particular attention—how to spread and grip the ground for impact both before and after a run, how to apply the changing power of hips and thighs. He will receive painstaking instruction in the correct stance for his position and how it
varies as the play varies. All the varied attitudes on offense and defense that a player must assume are reduced to the toil of slow motion. So that the practice field at times gives the appearance of a crowd of eccentric classical dancers taking their time over the next rhythm. All movements are executed simply and individually for a relatively long time until they are thoroughly mastered. Then they are combined and performed simultaneously so at the end of six weeks, by repetition, repetition, and still more repetition, movements become automatic (Rockne, 1931:88).

Coach Rockne also conceived the idea for one of his most famous plays from watching a ballet group perform at a theatre. According to Miller (1945):

Knute Rockne, Notre Dame's immortal coach sat in a theatre marveling at the precision and rhythm of a line of dancing girls. He thought: "What complete harmony! What coordination!" "Could this be applied to football?" Returning to the practice field he experimented with the idea with his backfield men. He taught them to move in unison, in a coordinated "shift." The results were gratifying. The marvelous coordination shown by the famed "Four Horseman" and later Notre Dame backfields is largely credited to this idea (Miller, 1945:26).

Despite the growing popularity of sport in the United States during the early 1900's (Chapter One), there were few men in dance. Ted Shawn, a noted American dancer of this period, said this about dance for men. "The dance was considered effeminate for a man and the dance itself a shallow, trivial thing which was not a worthy field for a serious life work for a manly man" (Shawn, 1954:84). In an attempt to remedy this situation Shawn created a dance company composed entirely of young college athletes who had not had any or much previous dance training. He created
many dances using masculine themes of games and sport. His company of young men toured the United States and exposed many people to the relationships that exist between dance and sport (Ibid).

During the 1950's another interesting relationship was born when track coach Andrew Hardie and Margot Fonteyn developed a ballet program for track and field athletes. Together they discovered that athletes in their own training did not receive the full benefits of posture, balance, pliability, and coordination. They felt that the widely used circuit of weight training utilized by athletes placed too much emphasis on the strengthening of muscles. The athlete's footwork did not receive the special concentration demanded by ballet and the athletes often landed from jumps incorrectly. Fonteyn (1962) says,

As a dancer I am often horrified to notice how an athlete can be called upon to perform a sudden and strong exercise with muscles that cannot possibly have been given any introductory pliability (Fonteyn cited in Harrold, 1962:6).

Additionally in 1958 the famous dancer Gene Kelly wrote and narrated an Omnibus television feature titled, Dancing Is A Man's Game. This production highlighted many of the relationships that exist between dance and sport. The film featured such fine athletes as Mickey Mantle, Sugar Ray Robinson, tennis star Vic Seixas, and basketball great Bob Cousey. It also featured well known dancers who took the competitive movements of the athletes, abstracted
them, and distilled them into movements of dance. According to Barzel (1959), "The movements were uncontroversially virile" (Barzel, 1959:30-35). She adds that, "one was acutely conscious of how much more satisfying the movements were when done by the fine-muscled, better postured dancers (Ibid). Kelly's message was to strengthen the importance of dance in the United States, especially for men. He said:

There is evolving today a distinctive American style and feel for the dance... It combines athletic movement, the broken line of modern dancing, and the long line of the classical ballet with capacity for dramatic characterization...a synthesis of old forms and new rhythms...a free-wheeling mixture that fits into our own idiom, which so far exists only in this country... (Kelly cited in Barzel, 1959:30-35).

In 1968, Bell Telephone Hour sponsored another television program on dance and sport titled, "Man Who Dances." Their subject was Edward Vilella, the boxer turned dancer. It was not long after this production that Vilella appeared in a similar television special titled, "Dance of the Athletes." In this program New York City Ballet dancers were assembled with several top athletes of the day, including Tom Seaver and Jerry Grote. According to Acocella (1985) they did the typical, "compare you-know-what with you-know-what and do you-know-what based on you-know-what" (Acocella, 1985:79).

During the 1980's modern dancer and choreographer Twyla Tharp revived the original Kelly Omnibus special,
this time using New York City Ballet star Peter Martins and football wide receiver Lynn Swan (Ibid).

The message in the aforementioned television specials is often repeated by many dancers. Jacques d'Amboise (1980), the former New York City ballet dancer and children's choreographer says:

I don't give a damn if these young children ever dance professionally. I just want to get them dancing, to know that it is physically challenging and dangerous as any sports activity, and something as exciting and manly as baseball (d'Amboise cited in Kupferberg, 1980:101).

Lawton (1944) wrote about the physical parameters of dance:

The dance is a coordinator of muscle, nerve, and mind. It is actually an integrator which knits the whole body together into a harmonious and obedient instrument. It is a discipline which rewards in terms of facility, beauty, and precision. Other techniques may develop power or massiveness of specific skill. They may sharpen the mind and promote health. But the dance is the instrument of Athens instead of Sparta, of culture and civilization instead of Bavarian brawn. It achieves strength and power in beauty and vitality. It can bring the participant into the realm of symmetrical development in terms of ultimate genetic potentialities (Lawton, 1944:23).

The dancer's physical training is accomplished in technique classes, where the dancer learns an increasingly sophisticated control of his or her body, a control which is related to all the aforementioned physical parameters. In a typical technique class, the dancer receives instructions and corrections from the dance teacher or dance coach. The dancer will have the opportunity to
practice and refine movements so that they can be done with a minimum of conscious thought. By doing the appropriate assigned exercises the students will work to develop strength, flexibility, coordination, rhythm, balance, and endurance. Moreover, proper balance and alignment is practiced until it can be maintained in stillness and during motion (Kilbourne, 1986:13).

Athletes, like dancers, also learn their sport skills in practice sessions. They learn a sophisticated control of their bodies using strength, flexibility, endurance, balance, and coordination exercises. Athletes also learn sophisticated movement skills and choreography that is appropriate for their sport (Martens, 1981:119-130).

In a typical sport practice, the athlete receives instructions and corrections from his or her coach, and has the opportunity to practice movements that are directed towards a skill or goal (Ibid:91-99).

Those unfamiliar with dance might be surprised to find that dancers are among the most highly conditioned athletes in the world. A study by Nicholas, M.D. (1975) at the Institute for Sports Medicine and Athletic Trauma concluded that of 86 activities, football, hockey, and ballet were the most demanding (Dolinar, 1976:87-92). The late Dr. Paul Hunzicker, professor of physical education at the University of Michigan made a rating based on physical skills and other qualities on a scale of one to three.
With the total possible number of points on his scale for the 10 qualities being 30, ballet scored 25, higher than the score for any other sport (Ryan, 1976:44-45). Moreover, in an article, "Who are the World's Best Athletes?" Kerlan M.D. (1981) said,

Such an athlete would have the heart and lungs of a marathon runner, the legs of a ballet dancer, the arms of a champion boxer, the abdominal and back musculature of a top gymnast and the neck of a weight lifter or football player (Kerlan cited in Shirley, 1981:1).

The previously mentioned Vilella said, "It takes more strength to get through a six minute pas de deux than it takes to make it through four rounds of boxing" (Vilella cited in Hamilton, 1979:49). And Adams (1945), in the article "Athletics and Dance," said:

Dancers on the other hand often become proficient boxers, swimmers, tennis players, coaches, but are not labelled athletes even though their everyday work expends as much if not more, energy than that of the athlete (Adams, 1945:10-11).

It is important in developing the relationships between dance and sport to discuss athletes and coaches who have used dance to enhance their individual or teams' athletic performance.

Individual athletes of many sports have found dance training beneficial to their sport. One contemporary well-known football star who attributes much of his success in football to early dance training is Lynn Swan (1979), the former wide receiver for the Pittsburgh Steelers.
Regarding his relatively injury free career, he said:

I probably get away with it because of all the little things I've done in my life besides football--ballet, tap, gymnastics, basketball, long jumping. I'm able somehow to keep my body loose but my hands tight. I'm like the race cars at Indy that aren't built with solid frames anymore, so when they hit the wall, just a portion of the car crumbles. In one of the old rigid cars there would've been a shock through the whole machine. Me, I get my leg hit, I just let the leg fly. I remain limber, and somehow the impact seems to flow out of that leg. Now maybe somebody who knows the laws of physics will say that's all crazy, but it's my body and it works for me (Swan cited in Deford, 1979:99-112).

Other athletes who utilize dance in their sport are figure skaters. John Curry (1978), the Olympic Gold Medalist in the 1976 Games said, "Skating is really an untapped art form. It can take its place beside the other performing arts--especially dance. Even an axel jump falls naturally into choreographed movements" (Curry, 1978:77). Aloff (1985) in her article "Breaking Glide," adds to the similarities between dance and figure skating:

The building up of momentum and its decline are essential to the basic rhythms of skating and dancing, but the urgency to maintain a continuous sense of action--to glide--belongs to skating alone. In dancing, such continuity is broken all the time, a natural result of the foot's friction with the floor. In skating, which is really a subtle form of sailing (the blade slightly melts the ice it moves upon, so that the skater is skimming a thin skim of water), a break in continuity is an event, an arrhythmia in the normal ebb and flow. To a dance fan like me, these irregularities are also the most thrilling part of skating: the moments when the skaters balance is risked, and all that has looked so easy and loose suddenly seems, in comparison, placid and lulling (Aloff, 1985:80).
The game of basketball is often linked closely to dance. Novak (1975) talks about the performance qualities of basketball:

Basketball has a score, a melody, each team has its own appropriate tempo, a style of game best suited to its talents; but within and around that general score, each individual is free to elaborate as the spirit moves him. Basketball is jazz; improvisation, free, individualistic, corporate, sweaty, fast, exulting, screeching, torrid, explosive, exquisitely designed for letting first the trumpet, then the sax, then the drummer, then the trombonist soar away in virtuoso excellence (Novak, 1975:101).

Papanek (1980) adds:

Of all teams sports professional basketball comes closest to being an art form. It's musical, balletic, continuous, fluid and spontaneous as it achieves order from what might be the chaos of 10 giants running and clashing on a small rectangle of hard wood (Papanek, 1980:38).

And Bill Russell (1987), the former Boston Celtic said:

To me, one of the most beautiful things to see is a group of men coordinating their efforts toward a common goal--alternately subordinating and asserting themselves to achieve real teamwork in action....Often, in my mind's eye, I stood off and watched that effort. I found it beautiful to watch (Russell cited in Lowe, 1987:20).

Another sport that has a close relationship to dance is gymnastics. Lowe (1987) in *The Beauty of Sport*, suggests that Per Henrik Ling, "the father of modern gymnastics," "originally classified gymnastics into four groups: educational, military, medical, and aesthetic" (Lowe, 1987:115). According to Lowe, the objective of Ling's aesthetic gymnastics was, "to express thoughts and
feelings through physical movements which also should be attractive for others to observe" (Ibid).

Many coaches have used the similarities that exist between dance and sport to help their players. Coach Rockne was already mentioned as someone who used dance to develop his player's footwork. The coach of the 1946 Brooklyn Dodgers reportedly hired a dance teacher to teach his baseball players the elements of footwork. His hope was that dance training would prevent the players from falling over their feet while running the bases (Goodman, 1946:24-25). Larry Brown the successful college and professional basketball coach has used dance technique to help many of his basketball teams. He said:

During my tenure as head coach at U.C.L.A., John Kilbourne developed an off-season and pre-practice dance conditioning program for the U.C.L.A. team. It provided the players an opportunity to develop flexibility, rhythm and coordination, and balance while greatly reducing injuries. The prepractice program was an exciting and interesting approach to starting practice. The use of music kept all of the players working together and provided for added concentration during the exercises. I'd also like to note that the program was also well received by my present team, the New Jersey Nets of the NBA (Brown, 1983).

Sport and Dance: The Common Elements

Sport, like dance, involves human movement, ritual, play, competition, and aesthetic value.

Human Movement

One key element of sport is physical prowess. Sansone emphasizes the physical prowess when he states that, "Sport
is the ritual sacrifice of physical energy (Sansone, 1988:37). Loy emphasizes this when he suggests that, "physical prowess often separates an event called 'sport' from a game" (Loy cited in Thomas, 1983:8-9). Paul Weiss (1977) states:

The athlete is man apart. The beauty and grace of his body, his coordination, responsiveness, alertness, efficiency, his devotion and accomplishments, his splendid unity with his equipment, all geared to produce a result at the limits of bodily possibility, set him over against the rest of men (Weiss cited in Lowe, 1977:11).

Sport involves many movement parameters. Toynbee (1961) talks about these parameters. He says:

Qualities which are demanded of all athletes are sense of balance and timing and control of the mind and body in rapid movement. [Sports] demand of their exponents a sense of positional play, or one might say of pattern and design in movement, flowing and continuous, though often interrupted and changed, but still basically creative and alive....It is clear that in them [sports] all--especially where real skill is displayed--these elements of balance, controlled movement, and interrelated and interdependent patterns of action exist (Toynbee cited in Lowe, 1987:18).

Earlier discussion also focused on the physical prowess required in dance. Hanna (1979) says, "dance is physical behavior. Movement, organized energy, is the essence of dance" (Hanna, 1979:3). Kurath suggests that dance is:

Rhythmic movement having as its aim the creation of visual designs by a series of poses and tracing of patterns through space in the course of measured units of time, the two components, static and kinetic, receiving varying emphases and being executed by different parts of the body in accordance with temperament, artistic precepts, and purpose (Kurath

Ritual

Another common element of dance and sport is ritual. Sansone (1988), discusses the characteristics of ritual that are at the root of sport. He uses Lorenz and Eibl-Eibesfeldt's description of the characteristics of cultural ritualization to describe the particulars that are present in sport. Specifically these are:

(1) Ritualization frequently serves the further function, through its communicative character, of redirecting aggression;

(2) it also serves to promote the formation of bonds between pairs or among larger groups; and

(3) the ritualized behavior is typically modified in such a way as to enhance its communicative power. This last is achieved by means of the exaggeration, stylization or repetition of the behavior (Sansone, 1988:30).

Dance and sport both redirect physical energy. Weiss (1977), Loy (1978), and Sansone (1988) talk about the physical prowess required in sport. Hanna (1979), Gardner (1983), and Kurath (1960) refer to the physical prowess of dance.

Dance and sport also serve to promote the formation of bonds between individuals and groups. Moreover, dance and sport modify physical movement through exaggeration, stylization, and repetition to enhance their communicative power. Hanna talks about the communicative power of dance:

Dance is part of a cultural communication system in which information, valuable in adaptation, is relayed
to oneself and others. Dance can communicate information purposefully as well as offer an open channel that could be used (Hanna, 1979:64).

Giamatti (1989) suggests that sport, no matter how cheapened, commercialized, or distant from an external ideal, is a communicative activity. He says:

The very elaborations of a sport—its internal conventions of all kinds, its ceremonies, its endless meshes entangling itself—are for the purpose of training and testing (perhaps by defeating) and rewarding the rousing motion within us to find a moment (or more) of freedom (Giamatti, 1989:104).

Ritual also takes the participants on a journey. Roose-Evans (1990), says that ritual is foremost a process of pilgrimage. He maintains that this journey makes the human being feel bigger than him or herself (Roose-Evans, 1990). This pilgrimage was an important component of our discussion of sport and dance. Kleinman (1968), Loy (1978), and Sansone (1988) all mention the pilgrimage or journey that is integral to sport. Hanna (1979) and Kurath (1960) discuss the journey that is part of dance.

Play

Another equally powerful element that ties sport to dance, is play. Despite the many directions that the definitions of play have taken, i.e., Huizinga, (1955), Caillois (1961), Kretchmar (1973), Ellis (1976), and Thomas (1983), play as an activity has almost always reverted back to Huizinga’s previously mentioned classic definition.
All of the qualities that Huizinga describes as being essential to play are fundamental to dance and sport. They are free, separate from the "ordinary," and absorb the participants intensely. Regarding dance, Hanna (1979) refers to this as the exploration of the nonserious (Hanna 1979:134). Dance and sport also promote the formation of social groupings (Hanna, 1979:3-6) and (Giamatti, 1989:47-78). Dance and sport also require physical prowess. Our earlier discussion defined the physical prowess required of dance and sport.

Competition

Competition, defined by Loy as, "struggle for supremacy," is another important element of dance and sport.

Hanna (1979) states that, "Dance is often used as a symbolic arena in which men compete for power" (Hanna, 1979:136).

This competition may take many forms. It may manifest itself in the struggle to reign supreme over one's body. It may also show itself in the struggle between dancers in a tribe or community (Ibid).

According to Thomas (1983), struggle for supremacy, is also integral to sport. The struggle in sport is often referred to as the agon, from the Greek word agonia: a contest or struggle for victory in games. Morford (1983) explains the original concept of the Greek agon:
The agon embodied the concepts of struggle, toil, hardship, risk, and the nike. This latter was the qualitative victory embodied by the triumph of the cause, of the struggle within oneself and against one's competitors even unto death. To merely overcome was not enough, for one must internally deserve the victory if there was to be a true agon (Morford cited in Thomas, 1983:82-83).

According to Dewey (1934) it is the struggle for supremacy during an event that creates dynamic organization and ultimately the aesthetic experience. He refers to this struggle as the experiential process. This process includes cumulation, tension, conservation, anticipation, and fulfillment (Dewey, 1934:145).

Struggle for supremacy is another element that ties together dance and sport. Just as a dancer must struggle to master their body or the environment, the athlete must struggle to attain true agon.

Aesthetic Value

Any discussion of the elements that are akin to dance and sport must address aesthetic value.

The aesthetic experience is defined by Thomas (1983) as, "a feeling attributed to an experience in which the sensuous, qualitative aspects are encountered apart from all mediation by ideas and independently of any determination as to whether or not anything else exists" (Thomas, 1983:146). She adds:

Art is the object of the aesthetic experience, i.e., from the audience perspective, it is the object which
is the cause of the aesthetic experience or from the artist's perspective it is the object which results from, or symbolizes, the aesthetic experience (Ibid).

Hanna (1979) says that dance is composed of physical motion having inherent or aesthetic value:

Aesthetic refers to notions of appropriateness and competency held by the dancer's reference groups which act as a frame of reference for self-evaluation and attitude formation to guide the dancer's actions (Hanna, 1979:19).

She adds:

Inherently, dance has qualities which stimulate aesthetic awareness; it possesses noninstrumental features which exceed the requirements for work, magic, and other activities. Motion seems to have inherent value as a motivating force, the pleasure in doing or contemplating.

The keys to extraordinary aesthetic motion having inherent value are fashioning and meaning. Fashioning involves embellishment, distortion, deletion, rearrangement, abstraction, contrast, miniaturization, and projection of personality. Meaning is communication in contexts where the participants, dancers and observers, share semantic (relation of signs to what they signify) codes (Ibid:38-40).

Kupfer (1975) suggests that sport has aesthetic value as well:

Aesthetic values also emerge from human interaction. The activity which constitutes competitive sport involves tension between opponents and coordination with a team. A 'good' game includes both team cohesiveness and balance between the teams....In the context of the opposition necessary for engaging in such sports, individuals come together to form a whole. As in art proper, the antagonism between part and whole is overcome (Kupfer, 1975:83-90).

Weiss (1961) says that games and theatrical performance both create tension that is eventually resolved. He adds that conflict, rage, skill, and power in
both have aesthetic potential (Weiss, 1961:194). Kupfer adds to this by saying:

The resolution of contest in victory and defeat is the way in which competitive sporting episodes are completed-in-themselves. When aesthetically rich, the game builds to consummation....In this way, competitive sports exhibit...oppositions, pivotal situations, inclusive rhythms, denouements, and consummations that are real....The wholeness and finality possible in competitive sporting events, paradigmatic in the artistic, answer the human desire for completeness and unity, if only in symbol (Kupfer, 1975:83-90).

Carlisle (1974) lists four elements of sport that give it aesthetic value.

First, sport has "expressive and evocative elements." These include the movement qualities of beauty and skill that the athletes share with their audience, and the human life values which are expressed and symbolized in these movements; qualities like heroism, courage, patience, wit, and intelligence. Carlisle says that athletes, "speak a very special language of movement" (Carlisle, 1974:21-34).

Second, sport has "intellectual beauty." Carlisle says, "there is evidence that in major games, the players and coaches are increasingly seeking intellectual solutions to their problems" (Ibid). He suggests that intellectual play creates beauty. When an audience witnesses a lack of errors, the use of economical, difficult, spectacular, or original movements, they are witnessing the intellectual beauty of sport (Ibid).
Third, sport has drama. It is this crucial feature of sport which is derived from the challenge or conflict that is inherent in sport. Carlisle suggests that in a well played sporting event, a tension builds up to a climax or culminating action. He says, "It is the swaying balance of tension and the possibility of climax which reveals the hero and vanquished in which the drama of sport rests" (Ibid:27).

Fourth, sport creates unity. Carlisle suggests that sport unites movement qualities, intellectual qualities, and drama. "In great sport all of these qualities gel, and there is organic interrelatedness and wholeness" (Ibid:27).

He says:

…it is these qualities which the players and spectators of sport seek, which give to sport its primary focus and its true meaning. If this is the case, then sport is a form of art" (Ibid).

Dance and sport both provide participants and spectators with aesthetic values. Giamatti (1989) says:

Athletes and actors --- let actors stand for the set of performing artists --- share much. They share the need to make gesture as fluid and economical as possible, to make out of a welter of choices the single, precisely right one. They share the need for impeccable and split-second timing. They share the need for thousands of hours of practice in order to train the body to become the perfect, instinctive instrument to express. Both athlete and actor, out of that congeries of emotion, choice, strategy, knowledge of the terrain, mood of spectators, condition of others in the ensemble, secret awareness of injury or weakness, and as nearly an absolute concentration as possible so that all externalities are integrated, all distraction absorbed to the self, must be able to change the self so successfully that it changes us
(Giamatti, 1989:40-41).

Performance Dimensions

Individual persons and groups have always searched for means of expression in relation to their experiences. This is often referred to as performance. The need to perform appears in childhood and continues throughout life. H'Doubler (1940) recognizes man's need for performance when she says: "Man needs to realize his dream of life in some form outside himself" (H'Doubler, 1940:55). Murphy (1947) extends this by saying:

We know ... that the desire to create must be almost universal and that almost everyone has some measure of originality which stems from his fresh perception of life and experiences when he is free to share it (Murphy, 1947:453).

Hawkins (1954) suggests that the need for men and women to perform is important to our development as human beings. She says:

It causes him sometimes to seek release, at other times to seek clarification and synthesis of experience. The complex nature of life today makes it especially important that each person have adequate opportunity for creative experiences which will allow him to express his feelings and ideas and at the same time aid him in progressive symbolization, in the consolidation and integration of day to day experiences, and in the achievement of harmonious relationship with the various aspects of life as he experiences them (Hawkins, 1954:60).

... assume that some behaviors—organized sequences of events, scripted actions, known texts, scored movements—exist separate from the performers who "do" these behaviors (Schechner, 1985:35-36).

As a result of our need to perform, over time, we have developed numerous art forms to facilitate our individual and group expression. Hawkins puts forth that the arts were, "used by primitive man to gain release from baffling and frightening experiences and to establish relationships with the forces which he encountered..." (Hawkins, 1954:62). Hawkins suggests that these early forms of art were the foundation that led to even greater exhibitions of performance:

As man broadened his experiences and developed intellectually, he gained increased ability for sensory response and creative expression. His new desire for expression of larger ideas and concepts, which was not easily satisfied through spontaneous efforts, stimulated him to explore new methods of expression which employed feelings, imagination, and intelligence. These new approaches led to more mature forms of expression. As new forms brought increased satisfaction, the spontaneous approach to expression gradually gave way to a method that was not only complex but also highly conscious. This gradual development in the creative approach used to satisfy increased desires for more mature forms of expression was in essence, the evolution of conscious art out of spontaneous expression (Ibid:63).

According to Schechner (1988) sports, games, theatre, play, and ritual share basic qualities of performance. These basic qualities are:

1) a special ordering of time, i.e., time is adapted to the event;

2) a special value attached to objects, i.e., costumes, theatrical props, sets, balls, pucks, hoops,
bats, etc.;

3) non-productivity in terms of goods, i.e., no wealth or goods are created;

4) rules, i.e., special principles are formulated as these activities exist apart from everyday life; and

5) special places for performance (Schechner, 1988:6).

Giamatti (1989) supports the notion of sport as performance when he says:

On the spectrum of artists, it is those at the other end --- the performers, the actors, dancers, musicians, singers --- who most clearly resemble athletes, in that they all interpret a preexistent creation, though in their re-creation there is much of the kind of primary hunger for control and expression that went into making the initial artifact, whether play or symphony, ballet, opera, song, or game. As performers, they all form or re-form through the conventions of the artifact, so as to transform themselves and others (Giamatti, 1989:40).

Kleinman (1992) talks about sport performance when he says:

It is immediately apparent that it is dance which uses and practices movement as a means of expression. But, there is another performing population engaged in expressing itself through movement. Although we don't consider it in this light, the world of athlete is saturated with movement expression, intention, and creation (Kleinman, 1992:42).

Summary

The review of the literature on the relationships that exist between dance and sport establishes their proximity. The historical relationships between dance and sport combined with their common elements, i.e., human movement, ritual, play, competition, and aesthetic value offer credibility to the consideration of sport studies and
performance as a legitimate performance discipline in higher education. This credibility is further enhanced with the examination of sport as performance. Geer (1992) supports this notion when he says:

Dance, sport, and performance, generally, take their audiences through a rehearsal of what might be possible tomorrow. They do this in best tradition of experiential learning because they provide simultaneously images, movement, and emotions. We perceive with all our senses examples of teamwork, learning, self sacrifice, beauty, courage, and skill. We know that our muscles are indirectly activated by the remarkable contractions in Gelsey Kirkland's or Michael Jordan's muscles; we feel in our bodies the high arc of a grand jete or a three point shot. Dance and sport lead us to know. In that way they "carry out completely" the project of preparing us for an expanded, harmonious view of the future and our place in it, and for that purpose, they cannot be separated (Geer, 1992:41).

For a graphic illustration of the basic qualities that are common to both sport and dance please refer to the following chart.
### DANCE AND SPORT: BASIC QUALITIES

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CHAPTER IV

A Survey to Document the Availability of Sport Studies and Performance Courses and Programs of Study

The fourth chapter of this dissertation is an attempt to survey and document the actual availability of courses and academic opportunities in sport studies and performance at NCAA Division I-A college and universities. NCAA Division I-A colleges and universities compete at the top level of intercollegiate sport.

The survey instrument provides information about the availability of courses and programs of study that investigate and explore sport, sport performance, and the interests and needs of elite level student-athletes at NCAA Division I-A colleges and universities. These data provide information that may suggest new approaches to resolving the problems existing between athletics and academe.

The results of the survey provide descriptions of courses and programs of study in sport studies and performance available to student-athletes. The instrument gathered information about:
1. Courses and programs of study in the area of sport studies and sport performance as well as courses designed to meet the special needs and interests of student-athletes.

2. Whether or not courses and programs of study exist and if they are required of student-athletes.

Significance of the Survey

It is my belief that curriculum and programs of study in sport studies and performance would provide a significant and meaningful culture for student-athletes, and others with an interest in sport, who attend colleges and universities. Simply stated, the curriculum and program of study would teach student-athletes the cultural significance of sport from historical, philosophic, humanistic, economic, sociological, and ethical perspectives. In addition, the courses and program of study would familiarize student-athletes with college and university services, share significant issues that are relevant to their lives, provide meaningful topics that may better their academic achievement, and ultimately enhance their chances for a meaningful and successful career.

Review of Related Literature

A search of research projects that address intercollegiate athletic reform over the past ten years revealed that no program has been proposed, much less completed, which identified the availability of sport
studies courses and sport performance programs at NCAA Division I-A colleges and universities. Also, Ursula R. Walsh (1991), Director of Research and Data Processing for the NCAA reported that, to her knowledge, there has not been an attempt to discover the availability of sport studies curriculums and programs of study for intercollegiate athletes (Walsh, 1991). In an attempt to gather hard data, this writer developed a survey instrument designed to reveal what sort of sport studies and/or performance offerings are available.

Survey Methodology

According to Jaeger (1988), the purpose of survey research is to "describe specific characteristics of a large group of persons, objects, or institutions" (Jaeger, 1988:303-330). Jeager adds that survey research is most commonly used when the researcher is interested in specific facts that describe the characteristics of a large group and the present condition of that group. It is also appropriate when the group of interest is well defined, and when the obvious way to obtain the desired information is to ask the right people (Ibid). Surveys may be conducted by telephone, personal interview, or the mail.

This study utilized a mail survey. The advantage of a mail survey is that it has the potential to reach a representative sample and has a higher likelihood of accurate, non-biased responses than either personal
interview or telephone methods. Mail surveys also have the advantage of reaching a large, widely spread sample at a comparatively minimal cost. The mail survey method, however, have several disadvantages. The personal contact is minimal, therefore the response is dependent on individual interest in the subject and motivation to reply. In addition the expected response rate of mail surveys is the lowest of the three and therefore requires a larger beginning sample. Also mail surveys do not allow the respondents to ask questions of the survey or allow for further explanation or clarification of the questions asked. Moreover, the researcher does not have the luxury of asking follow-up questions to clarify the respondents' answers. Because of this, it is imperative that the survey questionnaire be clear and understandable. It is also difficult to obtain information regarding the non-return of questionnaires. The researcher is often at a loss when attempting to determine if the participant received the questionnaire, was not an eligible member of the participant population, or was simply not interested in the survey (Dillman, 1978).

This research project was ideal for survey methodology because it had: a.) an identifiable population, the 106 colleges and universities that compete at the NCAA Division I-A level, b.) an identifiable respondent population, the academic advisors who oversee the programs of study of
intercollegiate athletes, c.) easily quantifiable data, d.) anonymity for respondents, and e.) limited cost.

It was important in the development of this survey instrument, to introduce the questionnaire in a manner that captured the interest and attention of the respondents. A cover letter was used to introduce the survey instrument to the respondent population. A copy of the cover letter appears in Appendix B. It was also important that the instrument not require considerable time to complete. A lengthy questionnaire can quickly lose the respondent audience.

The instrument developed for this study accumulated data based on the availability of courses in sport studies or performance which address the special interests and concerns of student-athletes.

Generalization

"Generalization of findings is central to all research but is the very essence of survey research" (Jeager, 1988:324). The ability to generalize is based upon the ability to build bridges between the particular group studied and other groups whom one may wish to apply the data. Generalization is primarily based upon the validity and reliability of the study.

Simply stated, validity is the ability of an instrument to measure what it is supposed to measure. Validity might also be defined as the defensibility of the
inferences researchers make from the data collected through their instruments (Ary, Jacobs, & Razavieh, 1985; Fraenkle & Wallen, 1990). Validity is primarily concerned with the use of the data collected by the survey instrument. Are the data collected the data that were intended and can the information be used to make inferences about the target population?

Reliability is the degree of consistency with which an instrument measures whatever it is measuring (Ary, Jacobs, & Ravavieh, 1985; Fraenkel and Wallen, 1990). In order for a survey to be reliable it is important that its administration and scoring be consistent.

The Pilot Study

Validity and reliability are often established by pretests or pilot studies using the survey instrument. Dillman (1978) recommends pretesting by three types of people. The first group is composed of professionals who have similar research interests with the researcher. This group understands the purpose of the study and can determine whether or not the survey instrument will accomplish its objectives. The second pretest group consists of individuals who may use the data accumulated from the study. This group evaluates the usefulness of the questions and the corresponding data. The third pretest group is made up of members of the target population who will not be members of the respondent population. This
group comments on the clarity of the questions and instructions, ease of response, time required for completion, additional questions that may prove helpful, and offers information which they feel may be of value. All of this pretest information is evaluated and used to make appropriate revisions in the survey instrument.

Dillman's pretest recommendations were utilized in the pilot study of this project. Pilot questionnaires were shared with persons who have similar training to the researcher. These persons were college and university faculty members from physical education and sport studies. In addition pilot questionnaires were reviewed by persons who might use the data from the survey. These persons were college and university faculty members from counseling and education. Pilot questionnaires were also mailed to seven athletic academic advisors at NCAA colleges and universities who were not members of the respondent population. These colleges and universities were members of NCAA Division I, II, and III programs.

The pilot study was reviewed and minor changes were made in the cover letter and survey questionnaire. Suggestions from the pretest respondents were: 1. include in the cover letter a sentence that details the time required to complete the questionnaire; and 2. add a category of "other" to Part III.
Target Population

In survey research it is essential to have a definition of the target group. As was mentioned previously by Jeager, survey research is used to describe one or more characteristics of your target population. In the case of this survey the target population was well defined. Specifically, the target population of this survey were the athletic academic advisors whose responsibility it is to oversee the scheduling of classes for intercollegiate athletes at NCAA Division I-A colleges and universities. A list of these persons was obtained from the NCAA office. Researchers recommend that the size of the sample be as large as possible within reasonable limits of time, energy, and money. For this study all participating NCAA Division I-A institutions (106) were asked to complete the survey instrument.

The cover letter, survey instrument, and a self addressed, stamped, return envelope were mailed to the athletic academic advisors representing each NCAA Division I-A institution. The respondents were encouraged to return the survey questionnaire at their earliest convenience.

Jeager (1988) emphasizes that before one can analyze survey data it must be placed in a form that permits their summarization and interpretation. This process is called data reduction. This process of transforming the data can be manual (hand tabulating each response), or automated
(using an optical mark sense reader to scan survey responses). Survey information should then be entered into a computer file for easy storage and accessibility.

Treatment of Data

Data from this survey were hand tabulated and entered into a computer. The computer program used to store the data was WordPerfect 5.1. The data was then analyzed using traditional methods of frequency counts. Frequency counts confirmed whether or not courses and programs of study exist and if they are required of student-athletes. Percentages were determined using a hand calculator. Narrative responses were categorized and analyzed according to their specific areas.

Quantifiable data were collected, reduced, and analyzed. The results were then examined. Specific course offerings, programs of study, and requirements in sport studies and performance were identified. In addition courses of study and requirements that address the special issues that affect the lives of student-athletes were identified. The survey also determined the percentage of student-athletes who major in physical education, or who major in a discipline closely linked to physical education. In addition the survey determined the number of student-athletes and athletic academic advisors representing each institution.
The pretest cover letter, survey cover letter, and survey instrument appear in Appendix B. The data relative to chapter three appears in Appendix C.

Analysis of Survey Data

The survey questionnaire was specifically interested in courses of study where student-athletes learn about sport and the special issues that affect their lives.

It is obvious from the survey data that the colleges and universities responding are doing a poor job of educating student-athletes about sport and the special issues that concern student-athletes. The data, which represented fifty-eight percent of the colleges and universities surveyed (62 out of 106), clearly demonstrate that student-athletes participating at the elite level of intercollegiate sport are not required to have even the most basic knowledge of sport.

The survey data represent more than twenty-six thousand student-athletes, some of whom will go onto successful careers in and through sport. Virtually none of these young people are required to learn about or understand the world of sport.

Ninety-eight percent of the student-athletes represented by the survey are not required to have any knowledge about sport in contemporary America. Ninety-eight percent are not required to study the history of sport. One-hundred percent of the student-athletes are not
required to have any knowledge or experience about the impact of sport on society. Eighty-five percent are not required to explore current topics and problems that are relevant to their lives. Ninety-seven percent are not required to study sport psychology, and one hundred percent are not required to study the philosophy of sport. It seems that colleges and universities are creating a sport culture that is void of any understanding about sport.

The data also demonstrate that a majority of the colleges and universities responding do not require student-athletes to learn about and reflect on the special issues that affect their lives. The percentages were extraordinarily high: steroids (73% not required), rape education (74% not required), agents (89% not required), being a public figure (92% not required), AIDS education (72% not required), eating disorders (83% not required), gambling (89% not required), drug/substance abuse (71% not required), race (98% not required), gender (98% not required), the media (92% not required), counseling services (87% not required), study skills (76% not required), test taking skills (79% not required), career planning (83% not required), and time management (81% not required).

The survey data demonstrate that only a small percentage of student-athletes choose to major in Physical Education or a sub-discipline of Physical Education (7.8%
majored in Physical Education at 28 Division I-A schools). These data substantiate the earlier discussion (Chapter II) of the separation that exists between physical education programs and intercollegiate athletics.

In addition the data revealed that the average number of credit hours that student-athletes may accumulate for their participation in intercollegiate sport over a four year period was 5.2 semester credits (7.8 quarter credits). All of the time and effort that goes into the student-athletes' practice and performance of sport is not, in the view of colleges and universities, deemed important to their education. Moreover, eighty-four percent of the respondent colleges and universities do not offer any courses where student-athletes may receive bona fide academic credit for the practice and refinement of their sport skills and techniques. In addition several of the respondents wrote narrative comments voicing their personal opposition to course credit for participation in college sport. The survey data clearly demonstrated that sport performers, unlike other college and university students involved in performance, i.e., student-dancers, student-musicians, and student-actors, are denied opportunities to receive credit for their participation in practice and performance.

The survey data also shed light on the fact that none of the responding colleges and universities offered a
program of study in sport performance. The list of available programs that were concerned with sport, or a sub-discipline of sport, was extensive. A total of nineteen different programs were revealed. These programs ranged from Physical Education to Sports Promotions. Even though no program in sport performance was available, it was interesting to note that fifty-five percent of the respondents offered a bachelors degree for students who are interested in dance.

From the survey data we can make the following generalizations:

1. The majority of colleges and universities competing at the elite level of college sport have failed in their responsibilities to require educational experiences in, through, and about sport for intercollegiate athletes.

2. The notion of empowerment through education and coming to terms with the meaning of sport and sport performance is not included in the educational experiences for student-athletes in higher education.
CHAPTER V

The Development And Evaluation Of A
Program Of Study In Sport Studies And Performance

In chapter five a program in sport studies and performance will be presented using a model that has been developed for dance performance in higher education. The program will satisfy University, College, and Departmental requirements. In addition the program will satisfy criteria established for programs of study in higher education. Supplementing the presentation of the program will be an evaluation by professionals in the field of education and athletics. The results of the evaluation will be presented.

Reform: Bottom Up Vs. Top Down

The genesis of this dissertation was born out of a perceived need to rethink how higher education has merged athletics with academics. The review of the history of intercollegiate sport suggested that the agendas put forth to facilitate this marriage have been incomplete, particularly with respect to one critical theme that was missing from the efforts.
For the most part the reform efforts have been grounded in a top down approach where the student-athlete is acted upon by the university or governing institution. Missing from the efforts is the need to address the concerns, interests, and needs of student-athletes. Past agendas failed to address the significant questions about how student-athletes comprehend, give to, and extract meaning from their athletic experiences. Past efforts did not facilitate the empowering of student-athletes through knowledge about sport and sport performance.

The survey data from chapter four substantiates this issue. The data suggest that colleges and universities who compete at the elite level in sport are not providing student-athletes with even the most basic knowledge of sport. Moreover, none of the respondent colleges and universities offered a program in sport performance for student-athletes. Student-athletes, unlike other college and university students who are interested in performance, i.e., dance, music, and theatre, are not provided opportunities to learn about or study in depth the nature of sport. What colleges and universities have overlooked are the dimensions of sport and the role of student-athletes as performers.

Sport Studies and Performance

The information in chapter three detailed the commonalities in sport and dance. In light of this, and
the continuing problems in college sport, it seems appropriate to consider innovative educational programs for college athletes. This chapter will offer a bona fide program of study that enlightens and informs student-athletes about sport and sport performance. The program of study will require student-athletes to pursue philosophic, scientific, and humanistic inquiries into the nature, history, and significance of sport and sport performance. The curriculum and program of study will be similar to other performance curricula and programs of study, i.e., dance, theatre, and music in higher education. It will provide student-athletes with opportunities presently available to student-dancers, student-actors, and student-musicians, to earn college credit and, if they so choose, a college degree for the study and practice of their performing art. The program also shifts some of the responsibility to fully integrate athletics with academics onto the student-athletes themselves. Through the dissemination of knowledge and experiences related to sport and sport performance, the program of study will serve the student-athlete and act as a force to make college sport, consistent once again, with the mission of higher education.

The notion of a program of study in sport studies and performance, although new to many, is not totally foreign to the efforts put forth to reform intercollegiate sport.
It was mentioned as early as 1929 in the Carnegie Commission Report and again in 1974 in the Hanford report (Savage, 1929:310-311) and (Hanford, 1974:130).

In addition, as mentioned before, Lopiano (1988) and Kleinman (1989) (Chapter I), both suggested allowing student-athletes to pursue sport studies and performance as academically viable programs.

Colleges and universities throughout the United States have firmly established curriculums and academic programs which provide undergraduate students with opportunities to complete degrees in Dance, Theatre, and Music. Unlike student-athletes, performing arts students may practice and demonstrate their performance skills in respectable and legitimate programs of study.

Dance In Higher Education

In colleges and universities knowledge about dance is engendered and validated in the same way as knowledge in other academic disciplines. There is a body of knowledge, based upon scholarly research, that concerns itself with every aspect of dance. Allen (1988) suggests:

Dance, like other disciplines, has a distinctive history, language, learning sequence, cultural basis, conceptual content, method of inquiry, literature, historical figures, and opportunity for creativity (Allen, 1988:65).

Allen goes on to say that dance is a discipline that requires a knowledge of the concepts, facts, and skills related to dance and dance performance (Ibid:65-66).
According to Allen, the study of dance may be conceptualized as having four major dimensions: 1.) aesthetics, 2.) production, 3.) history, and 4.) criticism (Ibid:68).

Aesthetics, according to Allen is:

A means of analyzing and interpreting some of the deepest and most human feelings. It gives rise to questioning, critically examining, and drawing conclusions from experiences. The aesthetic dimension of dance focuses upon the experiencing of human feelings and meanings conveyed through dance, understanding the nature of dance, and analyzing and interpreting dance (Ibid:68).

Production, Allen suggests, is:

The opportunity to experiment and to develop skills of performance or the making of dances that have aesthetic properties. Direct involvement in the creative processes of dance production facilitates understanding of how dances are created and how ideas are expressed through dance. Dance production also provides opportunities for decision-making, problem solving, and creative expression of ideas and feelings.

Performance includes the acquisition of movement skills in the form of technique and their underlying kinesiological principles; studying the elements of dance--movement of the body in time, through space with energy; and performing and creating dances. Dance is a performing art and it is only natural that performance be an important outcome and valued dimension of dance education (Ibid:68-69).

Allen puts forth that history:

Imparts knowledge pertinent to the understanding of dance. It brings information about creators of dance, the functions of dance, the cultural contexts in which dances were created, and the rationale for changes in dance over time into perspective. The times and culture of the creators of dance is reflected in their work. The dance contributes to the understanding of past civilizations as well as present societies.
The study of dances from the past and the present aid in the development of how dance reflects values of a society; how social, political, and economic belief influences dance; and how dance has contributed to society.

The heritage of dance, its function in and value to society, and the cultural context in which it was created are part of the study of its history (Ibid:69).

Criticism, Allen suggests:

Addresses the comprehension of and judgements about dance. Criticism offers a base of knowledge and objective criterion upon which intelligent and informed analyses, interpretations, and judgements about dance may be formulated. Dance criticism requires observation, discrimination, comparison, differentiation, and use of expressive language to articulate the assessment of a dance. Through these experiences, the ability to understand the meaning of and to judge the quality, purpose, and value of dance is broadened (Ibid:69).

As one can see from the aforementioned dimensions of dance in education, dance programs of study provide a wide range of experiences in dance and dance performance. They provide knowledge about dance as well as meaningful experiences in dance.

Dance programs in higher education generally offer two tracks within an undergraduate degree program. Students may elect to follow a curriculum that leads them towards a dance performance emphasis or, towards a degree in dance education. Some programs offer tracks in dance ethnology, history, therapy, labanotation, and lighting design as well. Together with general education requirements in the arts, sciences, and humanities, dance students develop
their skills through modern dance, ballet, jazz, and ethnic techniques, performance, choreography, dance notation, history, and production.

The sport studies and performance program that will be developed in this chapter will use the dance performance program at The Ohio State University as a model. The handbook titled *Dance At Ohio State* states:

Dance at Ohio State allows for an intensive exploration of dance as a major art form. Studies encompass the physical, intellectual, and creative aspects of dance and provide the basis for further involvement in professional dance, education, or graduate study. The major departmental emphasis is on modern dance. Ballet is offered at all levels along with related courses designed to give students a balanced and integrated educational experience. A commitment to the cultural, racial, and ethnic diversity which characterizes the field of dance is reflected in the departmental philosophy, staffing, and curricula (The Ohio State Univ. Dance, 1993:6).

The Dance Department at Ohio State offers a Bachelors of Fine Arts degree in dance performance. I will use this model as a framework to develop the sport studies and performance curriculum.

The Ohio State University is on a quarter system. Each quarter consists of ten weeks of instruction.

Undergraduate students in dance performance at The Ohio State University must complete required courses from the University, the College of the Arts and Sciences, and the Department of Dance. The University requires forty-five credit hours to ensure acquaintance with the three areas of academic study: the Humanities, the Social
Sciences, and the Natural Sciences. A minimum of fifteen hours in each of these areas is required. The Ohio State University Bulletin (1993) states the objectives of these areas of study:

Humanities. The objectives are to introduce students to their possibilities for continuing growth as a thoughtful and reasoning persons, sensitive to the aspirations and attainments of others; to acquaint them to at least some degree with the treasures of human thought and expression at their command; and to develop a continuing desire to have their full share of the legacy of all creative efforts.

Natural Sciences. The objectives are to acquaint students with the kinds of problems which lend themselves to possible solutions through the use of science; to introduce them to different scientific techniques through significant illustrative experiences; to give them a sense of perspective in the development of science; and to develop in them an understanding of the basic community of all scientific disciplines.

Social Sciences. The objectives are to ensure that the student has a basic understanding of the fundamental ideas upon which our society has been built, the social institutions through which these ideas have been given effective meaning, and the never-ending process of development through free choices limited only by concern for the rights and well-being of others. Emphasis is put upon the values of a free society and the responsibility of the individual for participating actively in the issues and decisions of the day (The OSU Bulletin, 1993:14).

The College of the Arts and Sciences requires three courses, English (freshman composition), Writing, and Art survey.

The Dance Department requires more than one hundred credit hours in dance related courses. Fifty-two of these credit hours are earned through dance technique, modern,
ballet, and ethnic. The remaining hours are earned in classes that focus on improvisation, composition, repertory, history, kinesiology, production, lighting, music, and notation. Please refer to Appendix D for a complete listing of the required courses.

It is clear from the review of the courses required for a B.F.A. degree in dance performance at Ohio State that the previously mentioned dimensions of dance, aesthetics, production, history, and criticism are fulfilled. It is interesting to note that more than seventy of the 170 credit hours required for the degree are comprised of course work in technique, choreography, and performance.

Re-visioning College Sport

The development of a sport studies and performance program of study in higher education will require a new vision of the role of sport in the university. Intercollegiate athletics (the performance dimensions of sport) will no longer be separated from the academic community. Rather, it will be viewed in the same light as the other performance disciplines, dance, music, and theatre. To facilitate this re-visionsing curriculums appropriate for the programs must be made available. Student-athletes will receive academic credit for practice and performance in their chosen sport fields. Such a change also requires a reexamination of the roles of the coaches and athletic directors.
The Role Of The Coach

Coaches at all levels are persons who develop skills and character. Neal (1969) talks about the characteristics of a good coach. She says a good coach should:

1. Understand the workings of the human body,
2. know the best and most up-to-date methods for training and conditioning athletes,
3. have the ability to analyze and correct form,
4. have insight about how to best use personnel,
5. believe in the values of competition,
6. be aware of opportunities for personality development in sports,
7. have the qualities of enthusiasm, and initiative,
8. be unselfish and keep his/her own ambitions and need for prestige in the background,
9. be understanding of psychological reactions,
10. have a sense of responsibility to players and public, i.e., fairness, positive public image, and sportsmanship (Neal, 1969:4-10).

Martens (1981) recognizes three major objectives of coaching:

1. To have a winning team;
2. to have fun;
3. to help young people develop...

(a) physically, by learning sports skills, improving physical conditioning, developing good health habits, and avoiding injuries.

(b) psychologically, by learning to control their emotions and to develop feelings of self-worth.
(c) socially, by learning how to cooperate in a competitive context and by learning appropriate standards of behavior (sportsmanship) (Martens, 1981:3).

College coaches spend a minimum of twenty hours per week with their student-athletes. Many of these coaches have advanced degrees that make them eligible for faculty positions in higher education. This fact was substantiated by a recent survey (1993) that found that nearly fifty percent of college coaches at NCAA Division I institutions have earned at least a master's degree. The survey also revealed that 2.4 percent hold doctorate degrees and that 2.5 percent had earned no college degree (Chronicle of Higher Education, 1993:A39).

Despite the aforementioned educational background and responsibilities of college coaches, and the time commitment of student-athletes, the survey data from this dissertation revealed that the average number of credit hours allowed for student-athletes' practice and performance was only 5.2 semester credits (7.8 quarter credits) over a four year period. This credit is negligible compared to the time, effort, and study which must go in to becoming an elite performer.

The sport studies and performance program of study would require that coaches be faculty members. They would be required to fulfill the three responsibilities of professional college or university faculty; teaching,
research, and service (Greenberg, 1993:A68).

Kleinman (1988) talks about coaches and the role that they would fulfill in a sport studies and performance program of study. He says:

The coaches, of course, would constitute the nucleus of the Athletic Performance faculty. The place of the coach in the university has been a source of discomfort amongst academics for a long time. In this plan the coach is recognized as a bona-fide faculty member with all the rights and responsibilities it entails (Kleinman, 1988:55).

During practice and games coaches fulfill their teaching responsibilities. They are engaged in presenting the appropriate techniques and strategies and assessing what their students have learned. Coaches, like faculty in dance, provide opportunities for students to experiment with, and develop skills of performance. These opportunities include technique (physical conditioning and skill acquisition), decision-making, problem solving, creative expression, and cooperation.

The teaching responsibilities of the coaches would include assigning appropriate reading materials, written assignments, and exams to supplement practice and games.

The coaches' research and scholarship is comprised of designing and implementing creative techniques and strategies in preparing for performance. They must truly be students of the game, knowing its history, language, and psychology. Kleinman (1988) supports the creative endeavors of coaches and their contributions to scholarship.
and research. He says:

In effect, the coach is both choreographer and conductor. As a professor of athletic arts he or she plays a role analogous to the conductor of the University Symphony or director of the University Dance Company (Kleinman, 1988:55).

The coaches' service obligation would be fulfilled through professional leadership positions, advising boards, community service, and committee membership.

The Role Of The Athletic Director

Re-visioning college sport will also require a reexamination of the responsibilities of athletic directors. Athletic directors will be required to be more perceptive in their screening and selection of coaches. Coaches would be selected based on their ability to fulfill the responsibilities of professional college or university faculty. Once hired, athletic directors would evaluate coaches using performance criteria, i.e., the characteristics previously mentioned by Neal and Martens, and the coach's ability to fulfill the teaching, research, and service requirements of college or university faculty.

The Sport Studies and Performance Program

The education of the student-athlete in, about, and through the sport experience will be at the core of the program of study in sport studies and performance.

The proposed curriculum and program of study will provide educational experiences for student-athletes that will lead to a bachelors degree in sport studies and
performance. It must first and foremost, satisfy criteria such as identified by Stark and Lowther (1989):

1. **Communication Competence.** The graduate can read, write, speak, and listen and use these processes effectively to acquire, develop, and convey ideas and information.

2. **Critical Thinking.** The graduate examines issues rationally, logically, and coherently.

3. **Contextual Competence.** The graduate has an understanding of the societal context (environment) in which the profession is practiced.

4. **Aesthetic Sensibility.** The graduate will have an enhanced aesthetic awareness of arts and human behavior for both personal enrichment and application in enhancement of the profession.

5. **Professional Identity.** The graduate acknowledges and is concerned for improving the knowledge, skills, and values of the profession.

6. **Professional Ethics.** The graduate understands and accepts the ethics of the profession as standards that guide professional behavior.

7. **Adaptive Competence.** The graduate anticipates, adapts to, and promotes changes important to the profession's societal purpose and the professional's role.

8. **Leadership Capacity.** The graduate exhibits the capacity to contribute as a productive member of the profession and to assume leadership roles in the profession and society.

9. **Scholarly Concern For Improvement.** The graduate recognizes the need to increase knowledge and advance the profession through systematic, cumulative research on problems of theory and practice.

10. **Motivation For Continued Learning.** The graduate continues to explore and expand personal, civic, and professional knowledge and skills throughout a lifetime (Stark and Lowther, 1989:250-251).
Please see Appendix E for a complete listing and sequence of courses in the sport studies and performance program. An example which will enable the student to meet these competencies follows:

**Freshman Year**

In the first year students will begin to fulfill the required courses in the Humanities (three courses selected from History, Philosophy, English, Black Studies, or Women's Studies); Social Sciences (three courses selected from Sociology, Anthropology, Psychology, Communication, or Economics); and Natural Sciences (three courses selected from Math, Chemistry, Biology, Statistics, or Astronomy). These general university requirements will develop the student's reading, writing, speaking, and listening skills.

During the freshman year students will also take two departmental requirements that address their ability to understand the social environment of sport. These two courses are Special Issues Affecting Contemporary Student-Athletes and Sport In Contemporary America. Both courses provide students with an opportunity to examine issues related to sport rationally, logically, and coherently.

In addition freshman students will take seventeen credit hours of Performance (Techniques I) where they will learn to practice and perform the strategies and skills of sport.
The variety of courses that are required during the freshman year, combined with the student-athletes' personal interaction in practice and performance, provides knowledge and experience in communication, critical thinking, and contextual competence.

Sophomore Year

During the student's sophomore year they will continue to fulfill their general university requirements in the Humanities, Social Sciences, and Natural Sciences. These courses will continue to provide students with experiences in the acquisition and evaluation of human thought and expression. With these experiences students will be better prepared to synthesize information and knowledge relevant to their interests as students and athletes.

In the second year students will also take a course in Aesthetics and begin their elective courses in Dance, Theatre, or Music. These courses will broaden the student's sensitivity to the relationships that exist between sport and art. By sharpening their sensitivity to aesthetic beauty, students will be able to share with others the artistry of sport.

During the sophomore year students will again be required to fulfill seventeen hours of Performance (Techniques II). Two of the performance courses, Field Experience and Coaching, concentrate on leadership. The field experience course requires students to volunteer in
professional service to community sport or physical education service agencies, i.e., schools, clubs, or amateur sport organizations. The coaching course requires students to volunteer in the planning, coaching, and supervision of competitive sports programs. These are required courses during the student's freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior years.

Junior Year

During the student's junior year they will begin to fulfill the core requirements of the sport studies and performance major. Included amongst these are courses in sport history, sport science, sport sociology, sport ethics, sport law, and the nature of human movement. These courses provide an understanding of the environment in which sport is practiced. The courses also examine the relationships that exist between sport and society. By understanding sport history, sport science, and the socio/cultural significance of sport, students will be better prepared to anticipate and promote changes in their profession and ultimately society.

The student's adaptability will also be enhanced through their practice and performance of sport (Techniques III). Since practice and performance will not be static, students will learn to adapt by adjusting themselves to detect and respond to changes in the practice and performance arena.
Senior Year

In their final year students will begin to explore career possibilities, participate in research, study ethics and moral reasoning, and again engage in the practice and performance of sport (Techniques IV).

The program of study requires that all students take a course titled Career Planning. This course will be a comprehensive look at the student's future. Included in this course will be an overview of career possibilities, development of the student's resume, and interview techniques.

During the senior year students will also complete their Capstone Experience that chronicles the occurrences, observations, and proceedings of their sport studies and performance experiences in higher education. The capstone experience will pull together the work that was completed during the freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior year portfolio classes. It will provide students with possibilities for critical and empirical pursuit. With the development of their portfolio students will have an opportunity each year to participate in research and reflect on their experiences as students and athletes.

During the student's senior year they will also take two courses where they will learn about the ethics of their profession. These two courses are Sport and Social Values and Problems in Interscholastic and Intercollegiate
Athletics. Sport and Social Values examines current issues in the conduct of American sport. Problems in Interscholastic and Intercollegiate Athletics examines the relationships between athletics and education and problems of athletic organization.

Senior students will also have another opportunity to practice and perform sport (Techniques IV). Seeing as the performance of sport is integral to the program of study, it is only logical that the practice of sport performance be a valued component of the major.

The sequence of courses that comprise the sport studies and performance program will lead up to and culminate in the development of the skilled and mature performer. Through the study and practice of sport and sport performance, the program will enhance knowledge, experience, communication, creativity, coaching, and leadership. In addition the program will facilitate the ability to think critically, appreciate beauty, and understand moral values. The sport studies and performance program will provide the gifted student-athlete with a legitimate program of study where they may pursue their interests and prepare for their future.

Evaluation of the Program

Supplementing the presentation of the aforementioned program are evaluations of the proposed program by professionals in the field of education and athletics,
Comments were requested from the following professionals: Dr. Wilford Bailey, President Emeritus Auburn University and past President NCAA; Dr. Joseph Crowley, President University of Nevada at Reno and current President NCAA; Dr. Donna Lopiano, Executive Director, Women's Sports Foundation and; Dr. Nancy Zumper, Dean, College of Education at The Ohio State University. Each professional was mailed a copy of chapters one, four, and five, together with the supporting appendices of the dissertation. They were asked to comment on the proposed program, highlighting the strengths and weaknesses of the program. A copy of the request letter appears in Appendix F.

Dr. Wilford Bailey (1993) wrote the following about the proposed program:

I appreciate the opportunity to read and comment about the sections of your dissertation sent to me with your letter of December 12. My delay in responding is due to the fact that I wanted adequate time to reflect on your proposed program and, as you probably anticipated, to discuss it with my colleague Taylor Littleton.

You are to be commended for your interest in the unity of sport and education, and for your creative approaches to help achieve this unity.

I concur with your basic concept relative to the value for student-athletes of courses such as those proposed in section III ("DEPARTMENTAL COURSES"), as well as other relevant courses, such as history, psychology, and sociology of sport. However, I cannot support the amount of credit proposed for "Practice and Performance" in section IV of your proposed curriculum. Stated simply, my reason for this is the conviction that the extensive time devoted to practice and competition by contemporary student-athletes is required primarily for the purpose of winning in
athletics, rather than personal achievement as in activities such as dance and music.

From the philosophic perspective, I view "athletics" (including contemporary intercollegiate athletics) as the extreme end of the continuum that includes "play" on the other end and "sport" in the middle of that continuum. This philosophic view is consistent with that set forth by Vanderzwaag, Toward A Philosophy of Sport (Addison-Wesley, 1972). Given certain of the attributes of intercollegiate athletics, especially in the "big-time" programs of the major universities, I think it unacceptable to consider the extensive time devoted to practice and competition as a part of a formal curriculum in "sport" studies.

I think this philosophic view is consistent with that expressed by Hodge and Tod in their article, "Ethics of Childhood Sport" (Sports Medicine 15 [5]291-298, 1993) in which they "...encourage players to focus more on the 'process' of performing well (i.e. personal standards) than on the 'product' (i.e. having to win)." This brings me back to the point I have tried to make earlier: the extensive time required of contemporary student-athletes is the result of the pressures to win, not merely to perform well (the "product" and not the process"). When this occurs, I feel that we take the activity out of "sport" as an experience comparable to dance, music, and theatre and move it into "athletics" as an activity for "commercial entertainment." When that occurs, I do not believe it is tenable to consider the extensive time required for practice and performance to be counted as academic experience.

I hasten to add that I recognize the benefits of competition and the potential educational value of intercollegiate athletics that are properly conducted to promote moral reasoning, positive character development, and ethical conduct. However, this does not -- for me -- justify counting the time devoted to practice and performance in intercollegiate athletics as twenty-five percent of the academic curriculum.

Even though I do not agree completely with your proposed program of "sport studies and performance" for student-athletes, I want to emphasize again my sincere appreciation for your interest in and concern about the unity of sports and education.
Best wishes for success in your efforts (Bailey, 1993).

I sincerely appreciate and respect the remarks that Dr. Bailey shared regarding the proposed program. However, I must disagree with his comment that activities such as dance and music are for personal achievement only. I would argue that winning is just as important to the dancer as it is to the athlete. I would refer Dr. Bailey to Chapter III of the dissertation (page #58) where competition is discussed as it relates to both dance and sport. Moreover, as a professional dancer who has attended many auditions for both teaching and performance jobs, I would argue that winning is just as important to the dancer as it is for the athlete. Winning for the dancer may take many forms. It may manifest itself in the struggle to reign supreme over one's body. It may also show itself in the struggle between dancers in technique class or at an audition.

Dr. Joseph N. Crowley (1993) wrote the following about the program.

A tardy thanks for the material you provided me regarding your interest in (and dissertation focus on) teaching people in sport about sport. I read the material from a perspective informed by our conversation. You have something worth exploring here, clearly. I hope you will pursue opportunities to get your research and ideas a wider audience, and I am willing to help as I can in that regard. In that connection, I hope you won't mind if I send a copy of your paper to the chairman of the NCAA (Presidents Commission) Committee on student-athlete welfare. I don't know that this committee's responsibility will
cover your concerns, but it seems useful to call those concerns to the attention of the chair. This is the committee, by the way, which is to develop reform legislation to bring before the 1995 NCAA Convention (Crowley, 1993).

Dr. Crowley's remarks, although brief, clearly suggest that the agenda proposed in this dissertation deserves further consideration. His comments demonstrate that persons in leadership positions at colleges and universities do support innovative agendas to facilitate the reform of college sport.

The comments from Dr. Lopiano and Dr. Zimpher were not received and therefore will not be included in the final draft of the dissertation.
CHAPTER VI
Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

This dissertation was born out of a perceived need to find meaningful and lasting solutions to the many problems that plague intercollegiate sport.

Problems have accompanied the attempt to align athletics with academics since the mid-nineteenth century. Efforts to merge the two have been persistent from the outset, with major reform movements in college sport occurring on a regular basis.

Chapter Two, "A Review of the Literature on the History of Intercollegiate Athletics: The Problems and Corresponding Reform Agendas," examined the attempts to solve the problems related to the aforementioned marriage. These attempts began as early as 1880 when Princeton faculty formed the first college athletic committee to address the students' unwillingness or inability to control their athletic programs. This was followed by the efforts of The Intercollegiate Conference of Faculty Representatives in 1895, and the Brown Conference Committee in 1898. With problems multiplying President Theodore Roosevelt (1905) called together college representatives in
an attempt to remedy the abuses in college sport. His efforts led to the eventual formation of the National Collegiate Athletic Association. This effort was followed by the Carnegie Commission Report in 1929 which criticized the commercialization of college sport. The Carnegie Report called for college presidents and faculty to bring athletics into a balanced relationship with intellectual life. Most colleges and universities denied any wrong doing and the problems continued to escalate.

Following World War II the bridge between athletics and academics was still weak. College sport became an entertainment enterprise while physical education became part of the academic hierarchy. With increased exposure, popularity, and revenues came more pressure on programs and coaches to win. This led to even more abuses and scandals.

Following a pattern that was established at the onset of college sport, problems continued through the 1960's, 1970's, and 1980's. During this period there were numerous proposals and agendas suggested and adopted to eradicate the problems in intercollegiate sport. Unfortunately none of these agendas provided a solution to the escalating problems. The most recent effort was the Knight Commission Report (1991), the most significant of a host of scholarly and popular efforts over the past few years to explicate the causes and provide a solution to the continuing problems in collegiate sport.
While differences exist between the numerous reform movements, certain commonalities emerged in the review presented in chapter two. Most of the reform agendas called for greater faculty control and involvement in collegiate athletics; they demanded a more proactive role from University Presidents in promoting a reform climate; and, most importantly, they insisted that athletes on college campuses be students first.

Missing from the reform efforts was the need to address the concerns, interests, and needs of student-athletes. For more than one-hundred years those charged with the reform of college sport have failed to address the significant questions about how student-athletes comprehend, give to, and extract meaning from their athletic experiences. The reform efforts failed to empower student-athletes through knowledge about sport and sport performance.

The review in chapter two verified the fact that those charged with reform have never thought it necessary to teach those in sport about sport. This oversight has resulted in several generations of athletes, coaches, athletic administrators, and sports broadcasters, who have a limited understanding of the nature of sport in society. It has also resulted in significant numbers of sport leaders in the sport establishment whose knowledge and understanding of sport is extremely limited.
The data from chapter four, "A Survey to Document the Availability of Sport Studies and Performance Courses and Programs of Study," substantiated the aforementioned oversight. The data suggest that the majority of colleges and universities competing at the elite level of college sport have failed in their responsibilities to require educational experiences in, through, and about sport for intercollegiate athletes. The notion of empowerment through education and the coming to terms with the meaning of sport and sport performance is simply not included in the educational experiences for student-athletes in higher education. Moreover, the survey data shed light on the fact that none of the responding colleges and universities offered a program of study in sport performance. Student-athletes, unlike other college and university students who are interested in performance, i.e., dance, music, and theatre, are not provided opportunities to learn about or study in depth the nature of their performance medium. What higher education has overlooked are the academic dimensions of sport and the role of student-athletes as performers.

The survey data gathered for this dissertation is just a beginning. Future researchers may wish to utilize more sophisticated methods to analyze the availability of sport studies and performance curricula in higher education. In addition, future researchers might wish to gather data that
delineates the academic programs that student-athletes select in higher education. Moreover, future studies may solicit the comments from student-athletes and coaches to see if they are interested in sport studies and performance courses and programs of study.

Considering the history of intercollegiate athletic reform and the existing problems it seemed only logical to explore alternative agendas for the marriage of athletics to academics. If colleges, universities, and governing bodies are to be sincere about their efforts to reform intercollegiate sport they must consider the development and implementation of courses and programs of study for athletes as students, programs which blend and incorporate who the athlete is with what he/she experiences in an academic environment. Colleges and universities need to insure that young student-athletes are not only taught the "arena" game, but that sport performance itself has academic dimensions and possibilities heretofore unexplored and little appreciated. Specifically colleges and universities need to provide an appropriate curriculum for student-athletes which merges their legitimate needs and interests within an academic framework consistent with the mission of higher education.

Chapter Three, "Sport and Dance: The Relationships," detailed the commonalities in sport and dance. The historical relationships between sport and dance combined
with their common elements, i.e., human movement, ritual, play, competition, and aesthetic value validated the interconnectedness that exists between these two forms of human performance. Sport as performance was also discussed. Consideration of sport performance, like dance performance, as a discipline of study in higher education might be one way to facilitate the marriage of athletics to academics.

Chapter Five, "The Development and Evaluation of a Sport Studies and Performance Major for Student-Athletes," was an attempt to legitimize sport performance as a bona fide program of study (major) in higher education. Using a model developed for dance performance in higher education, chapter five suggested a program of study that will lead up to and culminate in the development of the skilled and maturer performer. Through the study and practice of sport and sport performance, the program provides the gifted student-athlete with a program of study where they may pursue their interests and prepare for their future.

The major in sport studies and performance provides student-athletes with opportunities to fully integrate themselves into the academic fabric of higher education. Through the dissemination of knowledge and experiences related to sport and sport performance, the program will serve the student-athlete and act as a force to make college sport, consistent once again, with the mission of
higher education.

The notion of athletic reform through education and coming to terms with the meaning of sport for the athlete, as well as for the culture at large, is at the core of, "Building A Bridge Between Athletics and Academics." In writing this dissertation I was well aware that there is much to accomplish and that implementing programs of study in sport studies and performance for student-athletes will not be easy. While keeping their intellectual aspirations and objectives, colleges and universities need to begin the process of making available to student-athletes curriculum for athletes as students, courses which blend and incorporate the lifeworld of sport into the student-athlete's academic environment.

As a first step, colleges and universities might make available to students an introductory sequence of courses that enlightens and informs the student-athlete about sport and sport performance. Included in these courses would be the cultural significance of sport from historical, philosophical, humanistic, economic, and ethical perspectives. In addition the courses would examine the social and health related issues affecting student-athletes.

The rationale for having student-athletes in these courses is based on the conviction that if they are encouraged to pursue the aforementioned subjects they will
come to a more meaningful understanding of their role as students and as athletes. Moreover, by examining topics and issues related to sport the students will discover how sport serves as a metaphor to examine important questions of race, gender, business, politics, and culture. The usage of familiar and relevant subject matter provides a link to broader issues that are important to the undergraduate experience.

Bailey (1993) and Crowley (1993), evaluators of the program proposed in the dissertation (Chapter Five), support the notion of providing student-athletes with academic opportunities in sport studies.

This first step towards the eventual goal of a bona fide program of study (major) in Sport Studies and Performance is both timely and unique. It will attempt to shift some of the responsibility for merging athletics with academics onto the faculty, coaches, and most importantly the student-athletes themselves. Student-athletes will develop the capacity to understand, think, and perform. Moreover, the student-athlete will come to terms with the culture of sport and the culture of the athlete. Through the dissemination of knowledge and experiences related to sport, the curriculum and eventual program of study, can serve the student-athlete and act as a force to shape college sport and society for the common good.
APPENDIX A

NOTES RELATIVE TO CHAPTER II
1. **Athletics and Academe: An Anatomy of Abuses and a Prescription for Reform** (1991), by Wilford S. Bailey and Taylor D. Littleton, uses medical metaphors to diagnose the problems with, and prescribe remedies for, college sports. The book is divided into five sections. The first chapter, "Case History," shows how the forces of American culture have contributed to the development of the current state of college sports. The second chapter, "Diagnosis: The Pathology of Infractions," details the causes of the abuses in college sports. The third chapter, "Prescription for Reform: The Essential Ingredients," suggests that control of intercollegiate sport must begin at the institutional level. In this chapter the authors also give detailed attention to the importance of building cooperative relationships between the disparate parties involved in college sport. Chapter four, "Prescription Refinement," elaborates on the previous chapter, focusing on specific changes that must take place at the national administrative level. The final chapter, "In the Waiting Room," suggests that the time has never been better to address the problems in college sport. The book ends on a positive note, providing hope for the future of college sports.

2. **The Character of American Higher Education and Intercollegiate Sport** (1989), by Donald Chu, focuses on the educational integrity of college athletics. Chu relates intercollegiate sport to the historical development of higher education. In addition Chu discusses the political forces that have motivated and tarnished the relationships between higher education and intercollegiate sport.

3. **Sport and Higher Education** (1985), by Donald Chu, Jeffrey O. Seagrave and Beverly J. Becker (eds.), is a candid look at the complex relationships that exist between intercollegiate sport and higher education. Topics include the historical roots of intercollegiate sport, the unequal treatment of athletes, contemporary controversies, and proposals for reform and change.

4. "An Inquiry into the Need for and Feasibility of a National Study of Intercollegiate Athletics. A Report to the American Council on Education" (1974), by George H. Hänford, is an inquiry to assess the need for a more comprehensive study of intercollegiate sports in the United States. A number of observations were made in the inquiry. These observations are as follows:
A. Although sports as entertainment can be expected to continue to play an increasingly important role in our society, big-time collegiate athletics can be expected to continue to lose ground, despite some appearance to the contrary;

B. today the definition of amateurism must be given in degrees of nonprofessionalism, and even so, the concept remains controversial;

C. national solutions will be difficult to develop in light of regional differences;

D. colleges and universities are not at the same stage of development in the evolution of their athletic programs (Hanford, 1974:document abstract).

5. "An American Disgrace," Sports Illustrated (Feb. 27, 1989), by Jerry Kirshenbaum, chronicles the violent and unprecedented lawlessness that has arisen among college athletes in America. He suggests that college sports be made to fit more securely within the framework of university life. Kirshenbaum puts forth that the responsibility for bridging athletics with the missions of colleges and universities lies with college and university presidents.

6. "Keeping Faith With The Student-Athlete: A New Model For Intercollegiate Athletics" (1991), by the Knight Commission, is a report on the findings of a year long study and debate of intercollegiate sport. The Commission solicited the advice and suggestions of more than 80 experts, including athletic administrators, coaches, student-athletes, scholars, journalists, and leaders of professional sports. The report proposed a "one-plus-three" model for reform. The "one" -- presidential control is directed towards the "three" -- academic integrity, financial integrity, and independent certification. The report warned that if such a model is not put into place athletics will continue to be a trouble spot for colleges and universities.
7. **American College Athletics** (1929), by Howard J. Savage, is an inquiry into the state of college athletics in the United States. It presents a history of American college athletics and summarizes the current state of college athletics in the 1920's. The report highlights the merits and defects of intercollegiate sport. In addition the report offers suggestions for the reform and the future of college athletics.

8. **Sports and Freedom** (1988), by Ronald A. Smith, is a thorough examination of the history of intercollegiate athletics. The examination concentrates on four sports: crew, baseball, football, and track and field. In addition to the history of college sports, the book speaks to five significant influences on the growth of college sports: changing patterns of institutional athletic control; early failure to bring about institutional control; the impact of the professional coach on big-time athletics; the false concept of amateurism in college athletics and; the need to develop eligibility rules. The book closes with historical insights into two issues critical to college sports. The first issue is the freedom of the institution to deal with intercollegiate athletics and the freedom of the individual athlete relative to the institution. The second issue is the relationship between early college sports and the development of college sports through the twentieth century.

9. "Student Athletes: The Sham, The Shame," **Sports Illustrated** (May 19, 1980), by John Underwood, talks about the moral-less-ness of intercollegiate sport. Underwood's article is a lengthy examination of the contemporary problems that plague college sports. He details many of the problems and cites numerous persons involved in the controversies.
APPENDIX B

PRETEST COVER LETTER, SURVEY COVER LETTER AND SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE
January 30, 1993

Mr. John Kilbourne
The Ohio State University
337 W. 17th #344
Columbus, OH 43210

Athletic Academic Advisor
NCAA Member Institution

Educator in Sport Studies or Physical Education
NCAA Member Institution

To Whom It May Concern,

I am writing this letter to introduce myself to you and to ask for your assistance in completing, or commenting on, the enclosed pilot questionnaire.

My name is John Kilbourne and I am a Doctoral candidate at The Ohio State University. My dissertation topic is "Building a Bridge Between Athletics and Academics."

The questionnaire I have asked you to complete or critique is the pilot study that will contribute to one chapter of my dissertation. The questionnaire is designed to survey classes and programs of study in sport at your institution that are available to student-athletes. After consideration of your answers and comments I will send a revised version to the 106 NCAA Division I-A college and university athletic academic advisors.

I realize that not all of you will be able to complete the questionnaire in its entirety. Please do the best you can with your available resources and knowledge of the subject area. Your answers and comments will be greatly appreciated.

Thank you very much for your time and efforts...

Sincerely,

John Kilbourne
Graduate Teaching Assistant
The Ohio State University
March 20, 1993

Athletic Academic Advisor
NCAA Division I-A Member

Dear Academic Advisor,

I am writing you to introduce myself and to ask for your cooperation in completing the enclosed questionnaire that will survey curriculum and programs of study available to student-athletes.

My name is John Kilbourne and I am a doctoral candidate at The Ohio State University in the area of "Sport and Leisure Studies." Specifically I am interested in curriculum and programs of study for student-athletes that, 1.) address the socio/cultural significance of sport in contemporary society and, 2.) address the special needs and interests of student-athletes.

Your responses to the questions will remain anonymous. The responses will be tabulated to provide insight into the availability of courses of study in higher education that address the unique needs and interests of student-athletes.

Your cooperation in completing the questionnaire will be of great value to my research and to the future of intercollegiate athletics. The questionnaire will take approximately twenty minutes to complete. Results of the survey will be made available to you upon request. Please return the questionnaire in the enclosed envelope at your earliest convenience. Thank you very much for your assistance.

Sincerely,

John Kilbourne
The Ohio State University
344 Larkins Hall
337 W. 17th St.
Columbus, OH 43210
(614)292-2504
SOCIO/CULTURAL CURRICULUM QUESTIONNAIRE

The following questions are to survey available courses of study ONLY. Some or all of the subject areas listed below may be available through other campus support services. This survey is only interested in classes that are available to the student-athlete at your college or university.

I. Does your college or university offer courses in the following areas of study? If the courses are available, are student-athletes required to enroll?

A. Sport In Contemporary America

A study of the contemporary sport scene in America; the issues, the controversies confronting the athlete, the coach, the administrator and the general public.

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B. Special Issues Affecting Student-Athletes

An exploration of current topics and problems concerning athletes and the decision-making skills needed to facilitate college adjustment.

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C. Sport History

An overview of sport history which includes primitive societies, Greek and Roman civilizations, the medieval period, European countries in the 18th and 19th centuries, and the development of sport in the United States.

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D. Sport Psychology

Psychology applied to sport; focus on athletic performance; the sports psychologist's role.

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E. Sport Philosophy

An exploration of philosophy and its application to sport. Ethics, morality, aesthetics, and religion will be discussed in relationship to sport.

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F. Sport Sociology

Sport from a sociological perspective; relationship of sport to social institutions.

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II. If the aforementioned subjects are not available in separate classes, are they available in a class or classes that cover a wide range of sport studies topics?

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<th>yes</th>
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1. What is the title of that class or classes?

________________________________________________________________________
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2. Are student-athletes required or not required to enroll in the aforementioned class or classes?

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3. What specific subjects are covered in the aforementioned class or classes?

III. To the best of your knowledge which of the following topics are covered in a class or classes at your college or university? Are these topics of study required or not required of student-athletes?

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<td>B. Rape Education</td>
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<td>C. Agents</td>
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<td>D. Being A Public Figure</td>
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<td>E. AIDS Education</td>
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<td>F. Eating Disorders</td>
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<td>G. Gambling</td>
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<td>H. Drug/Substance Abuse</td>
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<td>I. Race and Sport</td>
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<td>J. Gender and Sport</td>
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<td>K. The Media and Sport</td>
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<td>L. College or University Counseling Services</td>
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<td>M. Study Skills</td>
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<td>N. Test Taking Skills</td>
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<td>O. Career Planning</td>
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<td>P. Time Management</td>
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<td>Q. Other</td>
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<td>R. Other</td>
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IV. 1. What is the total full-time enrollment of your institution?_________

2. How many intercollegiate sports are there at your institution_________.

3. How many intercollegiate athletes are there at your institution_________.
4. How many academic advisors are available to assist your student-athletes? Full-time?_____; Part-time?_______.

5. What majors or programs of study exist at your college or university in Health, Physical Education, Recreation, or Dance for student-athletes? Please list.
   1. __________________________
   2. __________________________
   3. __________________________
   4. __________________________
   5. __________________________
   6. __________________________

6. What percentage of your intercollegiate athletes major in the aforementioned majors or programs of study?
   1. ________________%
   2. ________________%
   3. ________________%
   4. ________________%
   5. ________________%
   6. ________________%

7. Does your college or university offer degrees in Dance Education or Performance? Yes or No?
   
   Bachelors  
   Masters  
   Doctorate  
   Yes  
   Yes  
   Yes  
   No  
   No  
   No
8. Do the intercollegiate athletes at your college or university receive course credit for their participation in intercollegiate sport?

Yes    No

9. How many credits per year do they receive for their participation in intercollegiate sport?

Freshman

sem.    qtr.

Sophomore

sem.    qtr.

Junior

sem.    qtr.

Senior

sem.    qtr.

10. Are there courses at your college or university available to student-athletes where they can receive college credit for the practice and refinement of their sport skills and techniques?

Yes    No

Comments:
SPORT STUDIES CURRICULUM QUESTIONNAIRE

The following questions are to survey available courses of study ONLY. Some or all of the subject areas listed below may be available through other campus support services. This survey is only interested in classes that are available to the student-athlete at your college or university.

62 Respondents from 106 NCAA Division I-A Schools.

N=62

58% of 106 NCAA Division I-A Schools Responding.

I. Does your college or university offer courses in the following areas of study? If the courses are available, are student-athletes required to enroll?

1. Sport In Contemporary America

A study of the contemporary sport scene in America; the issues, the controversies confronting the athlete, the coach, the administrator and the general public.

60% offered 40% not offered

2% req. 98% not req.

2. Special Issues Affecting Student-Athletes

An exploration of current topics and problems concerning athletes and the decision-making skills needed to facilitate college adjustment.

32% offered 68% not offered

15% req. 85% not req.
3. Sport History

An overview of sport history which includes primitive societies, Greek and Roman civilizations, the medieval period, European countries in the 18th and 19th centuries, and the development of sport in the United States.

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<tr>
<td>Req.</td>
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<td>2%</td>
<td>98%</td>
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4. Sport Psychology

Psychology applied to sport; focus on athletic performance; the sports psychologist's role.

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<td>30%</td>
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<td>3%</td>
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5. Sport Philosophy

An exploration of philosophy and its application to sport. Ethics, morality, aesthetics, and religion will be discussed in relationship to sport.

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<td>66%</td>
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<td>100%</td>
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6. Sport Sociology

Sport from a sociological perspective; relationship of sport to social institutions.

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<td>53%</td>
<td>47%</td>
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II.

1. If the aforementioned subjects are not available in separate classes, are they available in a class or classes that cover a wide range of sport studies topics?

   | 18% | 82% |
   | yes | no  |

2. Are student-athletes required or not required to enroll in the aforementioned class or classes?

   | 18% | 82% |
   | req. | not req. |
III. To the best of your knowledge which of the following topics are covered in a class or classes at your college or university? Are these topics of study required or not required of student-athletes?

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<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
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<td>A. Steroids</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>73</td>
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<tr>
<td>B. Rape Education</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>74</td>
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<tr>
<td>C. Agents</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>89</td>
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<td>D. Being A Public Figure</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>92</td>
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<td>E. AIDS Education</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. Eating Disorders</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. Gambling</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. Drug/Substance Abuse</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I. Race and Sport</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J. Gender and Sport</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K. The Media and Sport</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L. Coll./Univ. Counseling Svcs.</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M. Study Skills</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. Test Taking</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O. Career Planning</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. Time Management</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IV. 1. Total full-time enrollment of the college or university.

NA

2. Average number of intercollegiate sports per responding institution.

18

3. Total number of intercollegiate athletes represented by survey.

26,842

3A. Average number of student-athletes per responding college or university.

433
4. Average number of academic advisors per responding institution.

2.7 Full-time  1.0 Part-time

5. What majors or programs of study exist at your college or university in Health, Physical Education, Recreation, or Dance for student-athletes? Please list.

6. What percentage of your student-athletes major in the listed programs of study?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program</th>
<th>In # of Univ.</th>
<th>% Student-Ath. Majoring</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Physical Education</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>7.8% in 28 Univ.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Health</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>3.3% in 19 Univ.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Dance</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>1.4% in 7 Univ.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Exercise Science</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>4.7% in 23 Univ.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Sport Management</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>9.9% in 11 Univ.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Recreation</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>5.1% in 17 Univ.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Physical Therapy</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.5% in 3 Univ.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Medical Allied Hth.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0% in 1 Univ.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Nutrition</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.0% in 1 Univ.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Athletic Training</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.5% in 2 Univ.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Sport Media</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.0% in 1 Univ.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Human Performance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20.0% in 1 Univ.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Sports Promotions</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0% in 1 Univ.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Therapeutic Rec.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0% in 1 Univ.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Sports Studies</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.0% in 1 Univ.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Sports Medicine</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.5% in 2 Univ.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Human Biology</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10.0% in 1 Univ.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Adapted</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.0% in 1 Univ.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Human Movement</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.0% in 1 Univ.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. Does your college or university offer degrees in Dance Education or Performance? Yes or No?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Bachelors</th>
<th>Masters</th>
<th>Doctorate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>55%</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>73%</td>
<td>89%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
8. Do the intercollegiate athletes at your college or university receive course credit for their participation in intercollegiate sport?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>42%</td>
<td>58%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. Average credits allowed over four year period.

5.2 semester credits

10. Are there courses at your college or university available to student-athletes where they can receive college credit for the practice and refinement of their sport skills and techniques?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16%</td>
<td>84%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
V. Narrative Responses

Part II

1. What is the title of that class or classes?

2. Are student-athletes required to enroll in the listed class?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Required</th>
<th>Not Req.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Sports Geography</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Drug Education</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Social-Scientific Foundations of Sport and Physical Activity</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Psychosocial Aspects of Physical Activity and Sport</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. Psychology of Sport</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. Special Issues for Student-Athletes</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. Intro. to P.E.</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. Administration of Athletes</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I. *Sport in Society</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J. *The Black Athlete</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K. *Coaching</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L. *Drugs in Perspective</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M. Sports Psychology</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. **Social Psychology of Sports and Recreation</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O. **Athletic Performance and Social Issues</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* = same school
** = same school
V. Narrative Responses Continued

Part III

To the best of your knowledge which of the following topics are covered in a class or classes at your college or university? Are these topics of study required or not required of student-athletes?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Other Topics</th>
<th>Required</th>
<th>Not Req.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Note Taking</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Eligibility</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Campus/Community Resources</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Eating on the Road</td>
<td>no answer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. Alcohol and Drugs on Campus</td>
<td>no answer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. Stress Management</td>
<td>no answer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. Multicultural Issues</td>
<td>no answer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. Habits of Effective People</td>
<td>no answer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Miscellaneous Comments

1. We do not do academic advising. The student-athletes are integrated into the university by being advised by their departmental advisor.

2. Interesting questionnaire. Hope some useful courses come out of this. The way it works here is that professors teach whatever they want and few A.D. personnel teach outside of the activity classes. Our A.D. teaches Sports Psychology and classes have been offered such as Human Biology, Social Aspects (a course focusing on gender), and Race in America.

3. Once students have taken two credits of P.E., the additional credits they earn can only be used as electives, not to meet satisfactory progress.

4. The credits they receive for participation in intercollegiate sport usually do not count towards a degree.

5. Not all credits received for participation in intercollegiate sport count towards a degree. Varies by college.

6. Athletes should not receive credit for participation in intercollegiate sport.
7. The education of drugs, rape, and sexual disease is done through a two-week session with our athletic trainer and the university counseling center. The session is required for all student-athletes.

8. These are quite difficult questions for me to answer since we have no classes here for only student-athletes as it is against school policy to restrict classes. Also recent elections resulted in the passage of ballot measures which have severely affected the university forcing the closure of several schools including P.E. and Health. Out student-athletes, however, have never been relegated to any one particular major; in fact we recently did a survey and found that our athletic population was spread in almost exactly the same percentages in all the majors as the general student body.

There are no classes required of student-athletes; they are simply required to take the general education and major classes required of all other students.

I would be interested in receiving a copy of your results if I could. Best of luck in your research.

9. We have a number of seminars/programs offered throughout each year where student-athletes are exposed to the information in Part III. Good luck! I hope this is helpful.

10. Regarding Part III, one participant responded:

    Although the unchecked items are not covered in classes or seminars conducted by the athletic department, some student-athletes receive instruction on those topics in campus-wide forums. Student-athletes are not required to attend these forums, however.

11. Regarding Part III, one participant responded:

    Most of the topics are covered in our orientation programs and/or special programs set-up for our student-athletes. I did not consider these classes for which the student would receive credit.

12. Regarding question seven from Part IV, one participant responded, "Performance degrees through music -- but no athletes can participate. Practice is the same time."
13. Regarding questions eight, nine, and ten from Part IV, one participant responded:

Student-athletes can receive one credit during their season for participation in intercollegiate athletics (one credit per year). They may also receive one-two credits for conditioning courses during the regular season or the off-season however only four credits in their college career will count toward progress toward their degree as monitored by NCAA guidelines.

14. Regarding question nine from Part IV, one participant responded, "Only six hours can count towards a degree."

15. Regarding question ten from Part IV, one participant responded, "Never."

16. Regarding question ten from Part IV, one participant responded:

There is a weights and conditioning class that all athletes can register for during their off-season and get a grade for the conditioning program for their sport handled jointly by the strength and conditioning coach and a faculty member from H.P.E.R.

17. Regarding question ten from Part IV, one participant responded, "No courses directly offered for their sport. Only courses like aerobic conditioning, martial arts, and dance."
APPENDIX D

DANCE PERFORMANCE PROGRAM OF STUDY
AT THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY
I. GENERAL UNIVERSITY REQUIREMENTS

Listed below are specific Department of Dance B.F.A. degree requirements that also meet General Education Course Requirements (GEC).

1. Humanities
   - Music 141-Introduction to Music 5
   - History 5
   - Literature 5

2. Social Science
   - Anthropology 202--Introduction to Cultural Anthropology 5
   - Social Sciences 10

3. Natural Science
   - 2 Biological Sciences 10
   - 1 Physical Science 5

4. Capstone Experience
   - Issues of the Contemporary World 5

5. Free Electives 15

II. GENERAL COLLEGE AND AREA-RELATED REQUIREMENTS

1. English 110-Freshman English Composition 5

2. Writing Course 5

3. Art Survey 1

III. DANCE REQUIREMENTS

Techniques I (Freshman)
   - Improvisation 1
   - Dance Fundamentals 1
   - Introduction to Composition 1
   - Modern Technique Part I 2
   - Modern Technique Part II 2
   - Modern Technique Part III 2
   - Ballet Technique Part I 2
   - Ballet Technique Part II 2
   - Ballet Technique Part III 2
   - Ethnic Dance Forms 3
   - Dance Production Workshop 3
Techniques II (Sophomore)
- Modern Technique Part I: 3
- Modern Technique Part II: 3
- Modern Technique Part III: 3
- Ballet Technique Part I: 1
- Ballet Technique Part II: 1
- Ballet Technique Part III: 1
- Overview of Dance: 3
- Dance Performance: 2

Techniques III (Junior)
- Modern Technique Part I: 3
- Modern Technique Part II: 3
- Modern Technique Part III: 3
- Ballet Technique Part I: 1
- Ballet Technique Part II: 1
- Ballet Technique Part III: 1
- Notation I: 3
- Notation II: 3
- Notation or Effort or Shape: 3
- Dance Lighting: 5

Techniques IV (Senior)
- Modern Technique Part I: 3
- Modern Technique Part II: 3
- Modern Technique Part III: 3
- Ballet Technique Part I: 1
- Ballet Technique Part II: 1
- Ballet Technique Part III: 1
- Foundations in Dance Composition I: 2
- Foundations in Dance Composition II: 2
- Music and Choreography: 3
- Intermediate Dance Composition: 3
- Repertory: 6
- History of Dance: 3
- Field Experience: 2
- Kinesiology for Dancers: 3
- Individual Studies or Advanced Composition: 6

**TOTAL**: 170
APPENDIX E

SPORT STUDIES & PERFORMANCE
PROGRAM AND SEQUENCE OF STUDY
I. GENERAL UNIVERSITY REQUIREMENTS

1. Humanities
   Three courses selected from
   History, Philosophy, English,
   Black Studies, or Women's Studies 15

2. Social Science
   Three courses selected from
   Sociology, Anthropology, Psychology,
   Communication, or Economics 15

3. Natural Science
   Three courses selected from Math,
   Chemistry, Biology, Statistics,
   or Astronomy 15

4. Capstone Experience
   Portfolio of Sport Education and
   Performance 5

II. GENERAL COLLEGE AND AREA RELATED REQUIREMENTS

1. English--Freshman Composition 5

2. Writing Course 5

3. University Survey 1

III. DEPARTMENTAL COURSES

1. Sport In Contemporary America 3

   A study of the contemporary sport scene in America;
   the issues, the controversies confronting the athlete,
   the coach, the administrator, and the general public

2. Special Issues Affecting Contemporary
   Student-Athletes 3

   An exploration of current topics and problems
   concerning collegiate athletes and the decision-making
   skills needed to facilitate college adjustment (OSU
3. Health and Well Being in American Society

A study of student health problems; designed to foster understandings and attitudes needed for intelligent decision-making related to present and future health needs (OSU Bulletin, 1991:213)

4. Kinesiology

A study of functional anatomy and biomechanics and their application to human movement.

5. Principles of Physical Education

Origins and nature of modern physical education as developmental experience and medium of education; contributions to organic growth, personal resources, and growth in social relationships.

6. Nature of Human Movement

Consideration of human movement through elementary description, analysis, posture, alignment, style, and technique.

7. Aesthetics

Principal systems of aesthetics; interpretation of the creative activity of the artist, the work of art, and the contemplation and criticism of art objects.

8. Professional Sport In 20th Century America

Examination of the development of professional sport; its economic structure and relationship to mass media; the nature and problems of professional athletics.

9. Problems in Interscholastic and Intercollegiate Athletics

The relation of athletics to education; problems of athletic organization; eligibility; finance, current trends, and developments in management and purpose; public relations.

10. Legal Issues In Sport and Leisure

A study of legal issues affecting the delivery of sport and leisure services; focus on liability in sport activities.
11. Sport and Social Values

Selected value-laden issues current in the conduct of American sport such as the ethics of competition, equality and excellence, and the place of athletics in education.

12. Elective in Dance, Theatre, or Music

Students must choose six hours of activity classes in either dance, theatre, or music.

IV. PERFORMANCE

Techniques I (Freshman)
- Portfolio
- Field Experience or Coaching
- Practice and Performance I
- Practice and Performance II
- Practice and Performance III

Techniques II (Sophomore)
- Portfolio
- Field Experience or Coaching
- Practice and Performance I
- Practice and Performance II
- Practice and Performance III

Techniques III (Junior)
- Portfolio
- Field Experience or Coaching
- Practice and Performance I
- Practice and Performance II
- Practice and Performance III

Techniques IV (Senior)
- Portfolio
- Field Experience or Coaching
- Career Planning
- Practice and Performance I
- Practice and Performance II
- Practice and Performance III

TOTAL

182
Freshman Year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Credit Hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Autumn Quarter</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanities</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special Issues Affecting Contemporary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student-Athletes</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Science</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University Survey</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice and Performance</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Winter Quarter</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freshman Composition</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Science</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport in Contemporary America</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice and Performance</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Spring Quarter</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Science</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field Experience</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portfolio</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice and Performance</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sophomore Year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Credit Hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Autumn Quarter</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanities</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing Course</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice and Performance</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Science</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Winter Quarter</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Science</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanities</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coaching</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elective in Dance, Theatre, or Music</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice and Performance</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Sophomore Year Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Credit Hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Spring Quarter</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aesthetics</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice and Performance</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portfolio</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elective in Dance, Theatre, or Music</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Junior Year</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Autumn Quarter</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kinesiology</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principles of Physical Education</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice and Performance</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elective in Dance, Theatre, or Music</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Winter Quarter</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature of Human Movement</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional Sport in 20th Century America</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice and Performance</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Science</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Spring Quarter</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legal Issues in Sport and Leisure</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portfolio</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice and Performance</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field Experience</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elective in Dance, Theatre, or Music</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Senior Year</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Autumn Quarter</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elective in Dance, Theatre, or Music</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice and Performance</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Planning</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport and Social Values</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free Elective</td>
<td>3</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Senior Year Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Credit Hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Winter Quarter</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problems in Interscholastic and Intercollegiate Athletics</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portfolio</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field Experience</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice and Performance</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elective in Dance, Theatre, or Music</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Spring Quarter</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capstone Experience</td>
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<td>Practice and Performance</td>
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<td>Free Elective</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td><strong>Total Hours</strong></td>
<td>182</td>
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APPENDIX F

LETTER TO PROFESSIONAL EVALUATORS
December 1993

Dr. Donna Lopiano  
Women's Sports Foundation  
Eisenhower Park  
East Meadow, NY 11554

Dear Dr. Lopiano,

I am writing this letter to keep you posted on my progress, to wish you "Season's Greetings," and to ask a favor from you.

I am getting ready to defend my dissertation titled, "Building a Bridge Between Athletics and Academics," at The Ohio State University. As I mentioned to you in Boston, I want to include the comments about my proposal from four leaders in the field of academics and athletics. The four persons I have asked are: 1.) Yourself, 2.) Dr. Joseph Crowley, 3.) Dr. Wilford Bailey, and 4.) Dr. Nancy Zimpher (Dean, College of Education, Ohio State).

Rather than send you the entire 170 page dissertation, I have selected the appropriate sections for your review. Included are the introductory chapter, the program development chapter, and the data relevant to the availability of course work and programs of study in sport studies and performance. What I would like is your comments on the idea of providing opportunities in sport studies and performance for student-athletes. Specifically, I would like you to review the program I have proposed and share your comments and suggestions.

I hope with your busy schedule this is not an imposition. My hope is to have all of the comments returned by January 15, 1994.
In closing I want to thank you for that wonderful ride to the airport in Boston. In addition I want to let you know how much I respect your efforts and pointed enthusiasm. If I can ever be of assistance to you please feel free to write or call. Have a Blessed Holiday and thank you for your time.

In Unity of Sport and Education,

John Kilbourne
The Ohio State University
P.O. Box 3118
Columbus, OH 43210
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