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the solution of athletic problems, expressed this viewpoint: "They will be solved the way most other difficult problems are solved, which is by careful, dispassionate study and a great deal of trial and error." It has been the primary purpose of this study to contribute in an introductory way to the extensive type of knowledge on the socio-psychological forces which have affected the development of sports and athletics.

While it is evident from physical education literature of the past few years that more interest has developed in the social background of sports, it is certain that many years will pass before a significant body of social background knowledge will be available for use by those concerned with sports and athletic problems.

Because of this scarcity of socio-psychological information and research on the problems of both sports and athletics, much of this study is by necessity of a general introductory nature. As Jahoda and her associates have pointed out:

The relative youth of social science and the scarcity of social research investigations, however, make it inevitable that much of social research, for a time to come, will be of a pioneering nature.7


7 Marie Jahoda and Others, Research Methods in Social Relations, p. 33.
regarding sportsmanship practices?" Forty-four per cent of the men compared to only 32 per cent of the women believed that a difference could be justified. Considering all the interviewees as one group, almost two out of every five acknowledged that there could be justification for a difference.

Appraising the replies according to age groups, it was apparent that the men in their teens and twenties and women in their thirties and forties were most convinced that a difference could be justified. Men in their forties and women in their twenties were most prone to reject a justification for differences. Among the men advances in age were related to greater rejection, but among the women the younger age groups\(^{21} \) were least accepting of justification and the older age groups were next, according to percentages.\(^{22} \)

When the interviewees responded to question five, "In your opinion do you feel that sportsmanship standards are changing or have changed in the last 5 (10 . . . 70) years?", those with the longer time periods for observation, as might be expected, were more aware of changes in sportsmanship. Results which could not be logically anticipated included the distinct differences in awareness of change between men

\(^{21}\)To simplify discussion 14-20 and 21-30 are classified as the younger age groups, 31-40 and 41-50 as the middle age groups, and 51-60 and 61-88 as the older age groups.

\(^{22}\)See Appendix B, Table 8.
and women for ten years or less and between ten and twenty years and the marked contrast between women's opinions for the same two time periods.

The men were almost evenly divided regarding changes for both periods, but the women who felt that changes have not occurred in the last ten years were a decisive majority while those with similar opinions for the ten-to-twenty year interval were part of a small minority.

Those whose experiences placed them in the twenty-to-thirty and the forty-to-fifty year periods were fairly evenly divided although their numbers were too small to justify any substantial conclusions. The only interviewee who could look back over fifty years noted changes. In the thirty-to-forty year span the results were most convincing because twelve of the fourteen people expressing an opinion acknowledged changes.23

All interviewees who felt that sportsmanship standards are changing or have changed were asked to make a qualitative evaluation of such changes on question six, "... How do you feel they have changed?" For the shortest time period used in the survey, five years, all those who experienced changes commented that these changes involved lowered standards. For a ten-year period the responses were very similar although one man and one woman felt that the

23See Appendix B, Table 9.
situation was improving. The only interviewee who reviewed the past fifteen years noted improvement.

For a twenty-year period interviewees were almost evenly divided in their opinions about whether the changes have involved raised or lowered standards. The effects of professional sports were mentioned by several people. Reviewing the last twenty-five years, interviewees were impressed by the influence of professionals and commercialism on sportsmanship.

The only interviewee who was aware of changes for the past thirty years noted that people are more aware of sportsmanship, but she did comment on the gambling scandals in recent years. For a forty-year period those who acknowledged improvement in standards formed a slight majority, but the minority brought out the negative effects of the stress on winning and commercialism.

Changes during the past fifty and the past seventy years were associated with improved conduct and better understanding by the three interviewees who were able to judge those periods.  

Disgust, irritation, and anger were the most prevalent reactions by interviewees to public displays of poor conduct in sports according to their responses on question seven, "How did you feel when you observed or experienced

24See Appendix B, Table 10.
misconduct at a sports event?" By both numbers and percentages more women than men were disgusted, but the situation was reversed for cases of irritation. Equal numbers of both sexes expressed feelings of anger. All other responses combined included only 14 per cent of the total.  

Interview question eight, "Based on your observations and playing experiences, in which sports do you feel that the players display the best standards of sportsmanship?", revealed that the interviewees were most impressed by the sportsmanship in baseball, tennis, and basketball. Track, golf, football, swimming, and bowling were the only other sports mentioned by more than one interviewee. There was very little difference between the men's and the women's responses.  

Football, hockey, and wrestling were selected most frequently by the interviewees for bad sportsmanship on question nine, "Based on your observations and playing experiences, in which sports do you feel that the players display the worst standards of sportsmanship?" Basketball, boxing, and baseball were the only other sports which were mentioned by two or more interviewees. Hockey, football, and wrestling were the first three choices for the men while football,

25See Appendix B, Table 11.

26See Appendix B, Table 12.
wrestling, and basketball were selected most frequently by
the women.\textsuperscript{27}

The men were more discriminating than the women on the
tenth question, "Have you observed or experienced any dif­
ferences in the sportsmanship practices of players in indi­
vidual sports as compared with those in dual sports?"\textsuperscript{28}
Half of the women who made a definite response detected no
differences compared to only about one-fourth of the men.
Of the men who felt they could make a decision 41 per cent
thought that the individual sports were better, and 31 per
cent selected dual sports for better sportsmanship. Compar­
ative figures for the women were 29 and 21 per cent.

The interviewees as a group were evenly divided between
those who considered individual sports better and those who
felt that there were no differences. Compared to these two
factions only about three-fourths as many interviewees chose
dual sports for better practices.\textsuperscript{29}

A convincing majority of both men and women mentioned
that dual sports are superior to team sports in sportsman­
ship practices in their responses to question eleven, "Have
you observed or experienced any differences in the

\textsuperscript{27}See Appendix B, Table 13.

\textsuperscript{28}Individual sports were defined as those in which the
players do not directly oppose each other: archery, golf.
Dual sports were defined as those in which two players are
opposing each other: tennis, boxing.

\textsuperscript{29}See Appendix B, Table 14.
sportsmanship practices of players in dual sports as com-
pared with those in team sports?"  

About one-fourth of the 
men selected team sports for better sportsmanship, and less 
than one-eighth could not detect differences. The ratios 
for women were almost reversed as close to one-fourth were 
not aware of differences, and slightly more than one-sixth 
felt that teams display better sportsmanship.  

Collectively the interviewees who considered the prac-
tices in dual sports to be better were in the majority with 
those who favored team sports and those who could not dis-

criminate between the two comprising small minorities.  

Only one person rejected the basic claims for sports as 
they were stated in question twelve, "Do you feel that 
sports have significantly aided individuals in our society 

to have better health, a more pleasurable life and an in-

creasing sense of general satisfaction and well-being?" Of 
the ninety-one who said yes without reservation thirty-three 

made very positive statements. On the other hand, six felt 
that the situation is only generally true, and two said yes 
only with reservations. More men than women were both pos-
itive and doubtful in their decisions.  

When they were asked about the social significance of 

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30 Team sports were defined as those in which two or 
more players formed a team: basketball, baseball.

31 See Appendix B, Table 15.

32 See Appendix B, Table 16.
sports, the interviewees in decisive numbers agreed with one of the author's basic premises through their responses on question thirteen, "Do you think that sports play an important part in our social patterns, such as our speech, conversation, dress, social gatherings?" Eighty-nine interviewees acknowledged the importance of sports in society while only five refused to accept their social value. Four others recognized the social functions of sports but qualified their statements in one way or another.\(^{33}\)

The impulse for community control of local sports and athletics programs is apparent in the responses to question fourteen, "Do you feel a personal feeling of pride and accomplishment when your team or a team to which you are attached wins or performs outstandingly?" Ninety-three of the interviewees had experienced this personal satisfaction associated with team achievement. Three people derived only mild personal benefit from team triumphs, and two people felt that they had received no personal benefits.\(^{34}\)

The amount of applause given to an outstanding display of sports skill was regarded by the interviewees as a questionable measure of the true worth of the skill involved. On question fifteen, "Do you feel that the amount of applause following an outstanding display of sports skill is

\(^{33}\)See Appendix B, Table 17.

\(^{34}\)See Appendix B, Table 18.
an adequate measure by those who see it of the importance of
the feat?", the responses which could be classified as yes
or no revealed that a slight majority of the people rejected
applause as a measure of skill. Almost one-third of the
interviewees felt that applause is an adequate indication of
skill, and another fourteen accepted applause as a general
measure. Almost two-fifths of the interviewees denied that
applause is an appropriate evaluation of skill, and nine
people felt that applause is generally not an accurate guide
to determination of skill.35

That the amount of applause associated with a display
of sportsmanship is a good or fair indication of the sports­
manship involved was generally accepted by the interviewees
through their reactions to question sixteen, "Do you feel
that the amount of applause following an outstanding display
of sportsmanship is an adequate measure by those who see it
of the value of the act?" Sixty people stated that applause
is an adequate or fairly adequate indication of sportsman­
ship while twenty-five others regarded applause as generally
inadequate or definitely inadequate in this respect. More
men than women accepted applause as an accurate sportsman­
ship guide.36

Comparing individual interviewee's replies to questions

35See Appendix B, Table 19.
36See Appendix B, Table 20.
fifteen and sixteen, thirty-eight people indicated through their responses that they felt applause for sportsmanship is more accurate than applause for skill. Eight interviewees viewed applause for skill as more accurate than that for sportsmanship. One person stated that applause for either is equally accurate, and the replies of the other fifty-three people did not reveal a distinction between the two. There was very little difference between the men and the women for any classification.37

As any person familiar with American society could predict with reasonable security, more men than women adopt a college team to follow and support. On question seventeen, "Have you ever adopted a college team which was not close to your home and which you nor any of your relatives and close acquaintances had attended or are attending?", twenty-eight people gave an affirmative reply, and the men outnumbered the women more than two to one in this respect.38

To determine the relationship to their adopted team these twenty-eight interviewees were asked question eighteen, "Have you supported the team or school by any type of action?" Three-fourths of the men and half of the women limited their support to following the team through public communications. More women than men limited their support

37See Appendix B, Table 21.
38See Appendix B, Table 22.
to attendance at games, but the men reversed the situation when attention to publicity in public communications was added to attendance at games. Women who adopted college teams were more prone to give active support than the men were.39

The interviewees overwhelmingly rejected the concept that sportsmanship is an inherited quality, which was the implication of question nineteen, "Do you feel that people are born with good or bad sportsmanship traits?" Eighty-eight of the ninety-nine people who gave a definite reply to the question denied that sportsmanship traits are hereditary while only nine people accepted this belief. One person felt that sportsmanship is half determined by heredity, and another felt good sportsmanship traits are present at birth. Women were much more prone than men to attribute sportsmanship qualities to heredity.40

Question twenty, "If an individual had to make a decision in a game situation in which the decision would be the sportsmanlike thing to do or would affect the outcome in favor of his team, which choice would he make?", was illustrated by a specific basketball situation. The interviewees were requested to evaluate an incident in which a basketball player who touched the ball before it went out of bounds was

39See Appendix B, Table 23.
40See Appendix B, Table 24.
Turning now to the basic organization and intentions of this study, the second chapter attempts to establish through selected references from various publications that sports are socially significant in the American way of life. Those functions of society in which sports play a unique role or make an important contribution are pointed out to support this concept.

The fundamental relationships between sports and culture and the importance of sports and their use by other phases of culture are discussed in the second part of chapter two. Evidence is presented to support the proposition that not only does culture mold and give direction to sports but also sports function in a reciprocal way to influence the culture of which they are a part. In addition specific examples are used to illustrate the ways in which sports have been utilized or exploited by other phases of culture.

Principles and mechanics of social change as they have functioned to mold and direct sports and athletics form the foundation for chapter three. The introductory part of the chapter covers very briefly principles and mechanics of social change which have been active in American society. Next, applications of these principles and mechanics within sports and athletics are pointed out to indicate how extensively social forces have influenced their status, growth, and direction. The closing section of the chapter illustrates by selecting examples of sports evils from earlier
asked by the referee if he had touched the ball. Also, it was stressed that the decision must be made in the final minutes of a close game when honesty could result in defeat.

Sixty-eight interviewees had faith that a majority of players would be truthful, compared to nineteen who assumed that a majority of players would lie. Nine people estimated that half of the players would be honest, and two others expected the good players to be honest. The men were much more skeptical of players' honesty than the women were.\textsuperscript{41}

When the interviewees were asked to judge how a player would be treated by his teammates under the circumstances presented in question twenty-one, "If he chose the sportsmanlike act and his team lost because of it, how do you assume his teammates would treat him?", the results were very similar to those of the previous question.

Sixty-seven people assumed that his teammates would accept or support or respect him while twenty-two anticipated that he would be treated badly. Two interviewees expected that half of his teammates would accept him. Six others related acceptance to some special condition, and one person believed that his teammates' anger would be directed toward themselves. Comparison of the women's and men's replies indicated that men, although they were more skeptical of

\textsuperscript{41}See Appendix B, Table 25.
players' honesty, had more faith than women in players' loyalty and understanding.\(^{42}\)

When they were requested to estimate how the community would treat the same player in question twenty-two, "Under the same conditions, how do you think the people in his community would treat him?", more than three-fourths of the interviewees presumed that the player's treatment would be good or excellent. More than one out of every six, however, expected him to be treated badly by the community.

Two individuals felt that half of the people in the community would treat him well, and the other four definite replies were qualified to the extent that they could not be classified with the other answers. There was very little difference between the men's and the women's responses.\(^{43}\)

A comparison of individual interviewee's reactions to questions twenty-one and twenty-two revealed that about 30 per cent of the interviewees assumed there would be a difference between the acceptance he would receive from his teammates and the acceptance he would receive from community people. Twenty-one of these people believed the community would treat him better than the team while eight expected the community to treat him worse than his teammates.

\(^{42}\)See Appendix B, Table 26.

\(^{43}\)See Appendix B, Table 27.
Differences between the responses for women and those for men did not appear to be significant.\textsuperscript{44}

On the last question of the interview, "If he made an unfair choice, do you think that his conscience would bother him because of it?", about the same number of people who expected that a player would tell the truth also assumed that his conscience would bother him if he lied. In this case, 66 per cent of the interviewees felt that a player who lied would be disturbed by deception, but 18 per cent did not believe that a player who lied would be bothered.

One person estimated that half of the players would be bothered, and seven people assumed that the player would be slightly bothered by his conduct. The eight other people specified some special condition or related their answer to a special factor. Responses for men and women were similar.\textsuperscript{45}

To summarize the results of the survey the author has selected for review those findings which appeared to be most significant. First, there was almost unanimous agreement that sportsmanship is an essential part of sports, but a considerable number of people believed that there could be justification for differences in sportsmanship practices by professionals as compared to those by amateurs.

Although sportsmanship was considered better now than

\textsuperscript{44}See Appendix B, Table 28.

\textsuperscript{45}See Appendix B, Table 29.
fifty to seventy years ago, those who weighed their experiences for forty years or less were almost evenly divided in their opinions whether sportsmanship is better or worse now than during their high school or college days.

A decisive majority upheld the validity of the basic claims made by sports enthusiasts for their contributions to health, pleasure and well-being, and almost as many agreed that sports are an important factor in our social patterns.

Most people experience a personal feeling of pride and accomplishment when a team to which they are attached wins or performs well.

Applause for outstanding displays of sportsmanship was regarded as a more accurate measure of sportsmanship than applause for outstanding acts of skill was a true measure of skill.

A majority of the interviewees had faith in players' honesty, teammates' loyalty, and players' moral conscientiousness. An even greater number of interviewees had faith in the moral judgment of people in the community.
Chapter VI

THE EFFECTS OF CHANGED SPORTS PROMOTION METHODS

Changed sports promotion methods seem to be related to three different but interrelated factors: the development of mass audiences in sports, the effects of mass audiences on sports participants and practices, and the effects of mass audiences on the administration or promotion of sports events. These three factors will be presented in the first part of this chapter. The last part of the chapter will review and summarize comments from the results of questionnaire-type letters sent by the author to twenty-four college coaches and athletic directors.

The development of mass sports audiences dates back to the 1820's when crowds ranging from twenty thousand to one hundred thousand people were on hand to watch professional horse and foot races and boat regattas.¹ Two conditions were necessary for this development: agencies to organize and promote sports events capable of drawing crowds and desires or impulses causing people to want to observe sports events.

Even before promoters arrived on the American sports scene to organize events for the financial returns from gate receipts, resort proprietors and transportation system owners lured spectators to shooting matches, wrestling matches, and foot races for the profits which resulted from transporting and lodging them.²

The general superintendent of the Boston, Concord and Montreal Railroad promoted the first intercollegiate rowing match in 1852 between Yale and Harvard by offering free transportation to the two crews, a money-making event for the railroad through their excursion trains.³

Lerner has indicated that one of the conditions which is a prerequisite to the development of sports crowds is the satisfaction of psychological needs of individuals for association with prestige events. Many of the sports prevalent today began as fashionable and genteel pastimes of the wealthy before they expanded to middle class diversions and then popular activities for all classes.⁴

Several phases of the urbanization movement in America were conducive to the development of large crowds at sports


⁴Max Lerner, America As a Civilization: Life and Thought in the United States Today, pp. 813-4.
events. First, the urban movement at its inception involved large numbers of people from the country, and these people had crowded the country theatres for years. As city crowds they developed early the habit of watching others perform.  

People accustomed to living with the frontier traditions were restless in their city confinement. Opportunities to relieve this restlessness through active sports participation were not available because cities at this time had not developed the facilities to accommodate them. Therefore, they were forced to participate in sports vicariously or not at all by cheering their favorites from the grandstand.  

Industrial crises periodically left large numbers of city people with unemployment and time on their hands. Theatrical productions did not possess the qualities to satisfy their need for excitement and competition, and spectator sports appeared as a natural reaction to this need.  

From these beginnings, as Scott has pointed out, interest in competitive sports grew until it was impossible to provide enough seats for all those who wanted to watch college and high school sports events. Both the increase in

5Dulles, op. cit., p. 136.  6Ibid., p. 137.  
7Don Martindale, American Society, p. 464.  
8Harry A. Scott, Competitive Sports in Schools and Colleges, p. 76.
high school and college enrollments and the comparatively rapid development of several potential spectator sports during the period around the turn of the century would seem to be significant factors in the expansion of sports crowds.

One of the results of this development was that Yale built up a $165,000 surplus in its athletic fund during the 1910-11 academic year, and comparable sums were accrued by other colleges. These sums provided "the base for the first American era of college-bowl building."9 The cycle which followed is too familiar to require its review in this study.

The gradual shortening in the work week of the American male and the progressive development of labor-saving devices for the American female have provided both the time and the energy for recreational pursuits, particularly spectator sports. Acknowledging the success of American enterprisers in adjusting to social conditions, the professionalization of new sports and the increase in night games are not unexpected reactions.10

The great increase in the number of major professional teams and the drop in number of minor professional teams during the last decade or two appears to be related to a

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10Dulles, op. cit., p. 355.
recent development of American society in which large numbers of people are willing to attend games, but they expect to see the best for their money. Many people today prefer watching televised games of the better teams, even from distant locations, to attending local games of lesser teams. The same standards seem to apply to major and small college games.

Gregory Stone, a sociologist with a special interest in the social ramifications of sports, maintains that the development of large crowds in sports, in other words the massification of sports, inevitably alters the values of these sports. He also relates professional-type sports promotions with the disappearance of socio-economic differences in the crowd and its massification.11

Although success in sports by itself will give a player a long or short time feeling of satisfaction, the presence of spectators increases the extent of satisfaction. In all games it is important for the triumphant player to be able to boast of his success to others.12 To go a step further in the development of American sports, it seems that the extent of satisfaction for the player is associated with the


size of the crowd observing. The presence of large crowds at sports events cannot avoid changing the basic values of sports because it cannot avoid changing the values of sports events for the players.

Perry has pointed out a social mechanism which must have been a factor in the large crowd effects in sports, "Applause must follow hard upon achievement; and the volume of applause tends to become the measure of achievement."13

Two distinct applications in sports bear out Perry's concept: increased frequency in scoring and the development of individual styles by the players. Since scoring, especially by a spectacular technique, is one of the most frequently applauded incidents in a game, it is natural that players can destroy the value of a sport by always seeking this rewarding role for themselves. Also, as Lerner has indicated, large sports crowds promote the development of an individual style by each player.14 When these stylized players are encouraged to exhibit their talents, the playing concepts of a sport must be altered.

The most important characteristic of mass leisure activities in America is their ability to astonish, excite and

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13 Ralph B. Perry, Characteristically American, p. 10.
14 Lerner, op. cit., p. 816.
American sports history and by comparing them to accepted practices of the present time how general adoption through the passage of time can bring about status and acceptance of a questionable item.

Chapter four is very similar to chapter three in organization and development, but the content is distinctly different. The principles and dynamics of ethics introduce and provide orientation to the development, status, and conflicts in sports ethics which are presented in later sections of the chapter.

Then, the fundamental conflicts in ethical values and between ethical systems which exist in our society are reviewed because they illuminate the evolution and current conflicts in sports ethics. Some of the developments in sports ethics, both ancient and modern, are outlined next. The chapter ends with a discussion of the sportsmanship codes of several sports and the conflicts which exist between these codes.

The organization and results of an interview-survey by the author are contained in chapter five. The twenty-three question interview which determines some of the convictions of one hundred people about sports ethics and various conditions in sports is introduced by a section outlining the guidelines and standards for interviews.

The effects of changed sports promotion methods are classified and discussed in the sixth chapter according to
distract the people.\textsuperscript{15} If these qualities become important to the players of a sport, the true values of that sport will be diminished.

Stone has summarized the effects of large sports crowds on sports with a distressing comment, "The game, inherently moral and ennobling of its players, seems to be giving way to the spectacle, inherently immoral and debasing."\textsuperscript{16}

The development of large crowds at sports events has been the most important factor in the changes which have occurred in the administration and promotion of sports. Even in the beginning of intercollegiate and interscholastic sports the general public had considerable interest, and almost from the very beginning the public had a role in the formation and development of these sports because it was asked to support them financially.\textsuperscript{17}

Prior to this time, however, professional baseball had established the spectator angle as a factor in the promotion of sports. Admission charges were first used to discourage spectators at baseball games, but later spectators were encouraged for the gate receipts involved.\textsuperscript{18}

\textsuperscript{15}C. Wright Mills, \textit{White Collar: The American Middle Classes}, p. 236.


\textsuperscript{17}Scott, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 106.

\textsuperscript{18}Robert Smith, \textit{Baseball in America}, pp. 22-3.
College sports relied on admission charges early in their history. In 1872 Yale played a football game with Columbia at which spectators were charged twenty-five cents. Only three years later the price had risen to fifty cents for the game between Yale and Harvard.19 Although the bond between college sports and gate receipts had formed, a class reunion at Harvard in 1903 is a more significant date in the development of this relationship. At the reunion $100,000 was offered to the University for a football-track stadium with the understanding that Harvard alumni would be admitted free to stadium events. Increased construction costs and then maintenance expenses boosted the admission price to one and then three, four, and five dollars.20

Gradually the spectators' interests and desires became objects of greater concern for the sports promoters. For example, colleges originally took the position that the students and alumni of the college could recognize players without numbers and the other people were of no concern. By the 1920's, however, numbering of players was a general practice.21

Basketball backboards were first constructed of chicken

wire to keep spectators from interfering with the game. Then they were constructed of wood and made part of the game. The last step was a backboard made of glass to permit the spectators to have a better view of the game.22

In addition to adjusting college sports for the benefit of the spectators, sports promoters made great advances in the provision of comfortable and commodious seating for spectators.23 Another concession to the spectators was that the few rules of conduct established to regulate spectator conduct were not enforced.24

The development and widespread use of the automobile benefited sports more than any other form of spectator entertainment. Because the stadium or ball park in a city is prone to be located some distance from the residential centers, the automobile encouraged spectators to attend sports events by providing better transportation to the comparatively inaccessible locations.25

The result of these and other developments mentioned earlier was the clicking of turnstiles and the taking of

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24Warren Brown, Win, Lose or Draw, p. 214.
tickets to such an extent that huge stadiums were built and later tremendous field houses. Profits at some colleges were great enough to finance laboratories, dormitories, chapels, and other structures on the campus.  

Unfortunately, these developments had some serious consequences for high schools and colleges. Public conduct at professional sports events traditionally had been boisterous and extremely partisan, and it permeated high school and college sports to the extent that there is now little distinction between spectator behavior at amateur and professional events.

Public pressures to shape the administration and promotion of college sports became so influential that only the administrators of the colleges could resist them. Since on the whole administrators have not been inclined to oppose public opinion, the result has been that the public rather than the colleges direct college sports. Also, the administrators found out to their sorrow that the public demands a winner for its support.


27Scott, op. cit., p. 112.


29Gardner, loc. cit.
In the process college students possessed a decreasing sense of pride in their teams, and their interest in college sports events centered on the spectacular aspects. Traditional examples of spontaneous interest, such as pep rallies, were decreased, and an apparent drop in student body sportsmanship ideals were reflected in increased crowd behavior problems.30

A study of spectator problems at high school sports events revealed that contests held at outside arenas caused the most problems for sports promoters and urban areas had more problems than rural areas. It was also discovered that non-students in the community and people from outside the community were the main sources of problems.31 All of these findings indicate that the promoters of sports are experiencing first hand the results of massification in sports.

Al Lightner, a well-known college sports official, has blamed the spectator problems in basketball on the poor supervision college administrators provide at games,32 but an experienced Oklahoma sports figure feels that some spectator


32 Al Lightner, "Basketball's Bullies," The Saturday Evening Post, CCXXXVI (January 5-12, 1963), p. 31.
misbehavior is unavoidable for even the best-intentioned administrators.\textsuperscript{33}

Three principles of social behavior relating to large crowds point out how the massification of sports has created these situations which are reflected in sports promotion.

First, collective behavior acts to remove the traditional restraints on the individual so he is free to indulge his deepest fears and hatreds.\textsuperscript{34}

Second, the spirit of mob unity and the helpless but ever present desire of partisan spectators to assist their team combine so that the sportsmanship of a crowd is rarely equal to the average sportsmanship of its individual members.\textsuperscript{35}

Third, the mere physical nearness of large numbers of people in a sports crowd acts to promote an increase in the emotional level of these people. A person stimulates those near him, stimulates himself, and is in turn stimulated by those around him.\textsuperscript{36}

A comment by Robert Weber seems pertinent to close this section, "The problem of the educational administrator today


\textsuperscript{34}Francis E. Merrill and H. Wentworth Eldredge, \textit{Society and Culture: An Introduction to Sociology}, p. 491.

\textsuperscript{35}Charles W. Kennedy, \textit{Sport and Sportsmanship}, p. 49.

\textsuperscript{36}Merrill and Eldredge, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 494.
is how to keep the interest of the public and yet control or eliminate various pressures."37

In an effort to secure additional information about the long-term effects of rule changes, larger crowds, and professional type play on college players and crowds, the author sent personal questionnaire-type letters38 to fifty-five college athletic directors, basketball coaches, and football coaches.39 Because this type of information could be secured only from individuals with extensive backgrounds in sports and athletics, the main criterion for selecting letter recipients was length of service in the field. The only other factor influencing the selection was the decision to include both small college and large college coaches and athletic directors in the survey.

The ten large college basketball coaches and the ten small college basketball coaches with the most years in college coaching, according to the latest NCAA official basketball guide, were selected. The same procedure was used to select football coaches. Fortunately, selection on the


38 See Appendix A for the letter form.

39 See Appendix C for a list of the athletic directors and coaches who answered the letters.
basis of length of service also provided a good geographical distribution.

Fifteen athletic directors were selected according to the following criteria: small or large college background, coaching speciality, geographical location, and length of service.

Nine out of the twenty basketball coaches, eight of twenty football coaches, and seven of fifteen athletic directors responded. The balance between large and small college personnel was good except for the athletic directors, which involved a disappointing return by small college directors.

Reactions to question number three, "How have changes in basketball (football, major sport) rules affected the conduct of players or the behavior of crowds?", were most positive among the football coaches. Five of the football coaches felt that rules changes have improved player conduct or attitude. None of the basketball coaches connected rule changes with player conduct, and only two of the athletic directors implied that rule changes have affected player conduct, both mentioned improvement. Football Coach Aldo "Buff" Donelli of Columbia University evaluated rule changes on the following basis:

I am not sure that football rules have affected the conduct of the players at all. It has undoubtedly affected the play of the players. However, since some rule changes have eliminated many
instances of rough or dirty play, I am sure the conduct of players has been affected to the good of the game.

Only two other reactions to football or basketball rule changes were listed by more than one coach or director. One of these was that rule changes have confused both players and spectators, and the other was that rule changes have increased the speed and action of basketball. One-third of the respondents detected no reaction of any type caused by rule changes.40

The development of large crowds has not affected the conduct of players or the behavior of crowds according to the responses of more than one-half of the coaches and directors on question number four, "How has the development of large crowds at basketball (football, sports events) games affected the conduct of players or the behavior of crowds?" One-fourth of the coaches and directors felt that large crowds have improved conduct or behavior, and only one-eighth felt that large crowds have caused an increase in crowd misbehavior or the need for more crowd control. Basketball Coach Adolph Rupp of the University of Kentucky denied that large crowds have adversely affected crowd behavior, "The size of a crowd does not control the behavior of a crowd. A small crowd can be just as nasty as a big crowd."

40 See Appendix C, Table 30.
Three of the coaches observed that large crowds inspire football players while three basketball coaches felt large crowds increase the pressure on players. The number of players involved and the proximity of the spectators to the players in each sport could easily account for the differences between the coaches' opinions about crowd influence. One coach felt that large crowds inspire players at home games and depress them at away games.\textsuperscript{41}

Joe Aillet, football coach at Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, made an interesting observation on the development of large crowds in football, "Large crowds have forced the construction of stadia which keep the crowds away from the playing field. Years ago the crowds were on the sidelines with little restriction."

The development of professional-level play in college sports has had detrimental effects according to a substantial number of responses by coaches and directors on question number five, "How has the development of professional level play in college basketball (football, sports events) affected the conduct of the players or the behavior of the crowds?" Seven coaches and directors indicated the effects on players and crowds have been undesirable. Some of the specific reasons they gave for their opinions were the increase in the number of arguments, the emphasis on winning,\textsuperscript{41}See Appendix C, Table 31.
the basic sources which shaped their growth and development. Because its existence was fundamental to all the other factors, the growth of mass audiences in American sports is presented first. Next, the effects of mass audiences on the sports participants and upon the sports themselves are evaluated.

The effects on the mass audiences produced by changed methods of organizing and promoting sports are analyzed in the following section. The chapter closes with individual comments and group conclusions of long-time coaches and athletic directors from large and small colleges across the country. Their evaluations of the effects of rule changes, growth of larger sports crowds, professional-level play in college sports, and ethical conduct by coaches and athletic administrators have been determined by a letter-survey.

The last chapter opens with a summary of the highlights from the whole study. Then, on the basis of principles and guidelines set forth in the study some suggestions about future developments of sports are proposed. Some recommendations about greater use of sports for social improvement are presented to conclude the study.
and the tendency for more criticism. Athletic Director William T. "Buck" Lai of Long Island University made this comment, "Crowds expect players to be good. Spectators continue to judge the success of a team by its won and lost record."

Only one coach felt that professional-style play has improved conduct, and seven coaches and directors were unaware of any effects on players or crowds. Three people mentioned that the effect has been to create a situation in which the crowds expect too much from the players.42

Two-thirds of the directors and coaches judged that ethical practices of coaches and administrators in sports have improved or greatly improved since they first began coaching or administration, according to their answers to question number six, "How would you compare the ethical practices of coaches (sports administrators) now with those when you first began coaching (or administration)?" Football coaches were most impressed by the improvement in ethics in their sport while the responses of athletic directors and basketball coaches were favorable but not as positive.

The most prevalent reason given for a decline by those directors and coaches who felt that ethical practices have declined was that the pressure to win has increased. Douglas Mills, the athletic director of the University of

42See Appendix G, Table 32.
Illinois, reviewed the situation in these terms, "There is a greater pressure to win now than twenty-five years ago. Most of this caused by the budget problems of a losing team."

A long-term appraisal by Athletic Director Clarence "Biggie" Munn of Michigan State University seems like a good summary of this section:

The ethical practices in sports I think have increased all of the way along. When I was a kid playing soccer and football up in Minnesota, of course, this was one of those leagues you played in and we used to battle our way home after the game. I think sports ethics have increased tremendously throughout the years—better facilities, better coaching, better organized officiating and I think overall better administration.
Chapter VII

REVIEW AND GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

The devotion of Americans to the mechanics of sports and athletics has been a dominant feature of their approach and development of these two areas.

Sports changes and associated developments in athletics have been closely related to social and cultural conditions. Originally pushed by the community into the educational curriculum and more recently pushed by adults into the child's world, the social forces which influence sports have demonstrated their potent and persistent power.

Because non-educational control and influence in high school and college sports have been so prevalent and so virulent educationally sound sports and athletic programs have been improbable or impossible in some areas under the existing social conditions.

The psychological values that sports impart to the community have resulted in the creation of situations which frequently have distorted the true values of sports. This has been most apparent in the feeling of honor and pride which members of a community derive from a victorious local team.
From the earliest days in sports when student control allowed the big problems to develop to the middle years when alumni control proved to be undesirable, the story of college sports has been a long uphill fight to overcome the abuses which mushroomed in the early years. The failure of faculty groups to eliminate or greatly minimize these problems has been due to the entrenched social forces in the community which have strongly resisted changes.

The social significance of sports is most clearly demonstrated in the large cultural complexes which have built up around sports cores and in the common social bond and communication tool which sports have provided to members of today's mass society.

Additional significance can be detected in the importance of the various phases of sports to the nation's economy and industry, in the deep emotional and memory values placed on sports experiences by the individual, and in the catharsis and togetherness situations which sports crowds provide.

Exploitation of sports by other phases of culture are easily recognizable in modern society, and the practice dates back to the earliest civilizations. Sports in America were promoted long ago for various outside commercial benefits, and their value as a source of public entertainment has been the crux of most sports and athletic problems.

Besides their commercial exploitation, the use of
sports as a means for promoting the public image of a specific college has encouraged or allowed situations to develop which would never have been condoned in other areas of the college program. Almost from the very beginning and continuing with recent developments in high school and college sports the public has been encouraged and relied on for financial support.

The desire and drive for informal public control of educational sports were almost a natural development from the way sports were promoted early in their history. The major attempts to restore sports and athletics to a sound, educational basis have resulted in dramatic failures because the public either rejected the objectives or refused to supply the support which was essential to success.

The educational concept that sports must pay their own way and not infrequently pay the way for other phases of the college program has created many of the problems that exist and persist today. Many of the undesirable practices which prevail in sports seem related to this financial problem and the related belief that generally sports personnel are breaking or circumventing the existing rules and regulations. In sports situations outside the schools and colleges the emphasis on gate receipts has distorted the concept of amateur play almost beyond recognition or recall.

The continued high standards in English sports developed and were maintained by various social conditions which
might be very difficult to duplicate in other countries.

It has been a normal development for the ethical concepts in sports, as in other areas of society, to be higher than the actual practices. In the final analysis it has been the operating codes rather than the idealistic standards in sports and athletics which have influenced and shaped the prevalent and accepted practices.

The development of ethics in American sports has been distinctive in two areas: the conflict between players and officials in team sports and the diffusion of team sports concepts of sportsmanship into individual and dual sports.

The conflicting standards of the various sports in America have placed a responsibility on the individual player and spectator to learn the specific ethical practices for each sport.

Social conditions conducive to the development of mass entertainment and methods of sports promotion have resulted in a massification of sports that acted to destroy the true values of sports. The spectacular aspects of sports have been enlarged to astonish and excite the observing masses, and in the process the play quality of sports has gradually diminished.

Current practices in the administration and promotion of sports have created a situation in which supervision of sports events is a difficult problem and by which student pride and interest in their teams has continually decreased.
The findings of a letter-survey involving college athletic directors, basketball coaches, and football coaches revealed these general conclusions:

1. Rule changes in basketball and football have influenced in a general way only the conduct of football players.

2. Development of large crowds in basketball and football has produced some good and some bad effects, but a majority of the coaches and athletic directors felt that changes are not significant.

3. Development of professional-level play in college basketball and football has improved play but also created some undesirable situations.

4. Ethical standards of the coaching profession have improved, in some cases to a great extent.

On the basis of the current relationship between sports and culture and the existing social forces and conditions influencing sports the author suggests that the following sports situations will not appreciably change in the next decade or two:

1. The emphasis on the administrative aspects of sports and athletics.

2. The existence of sports as a social problem.

3. The use and exploitation of sports by other areas of culture.
4. The failure of regional and national efforts to control and regulate athletics in a practical sense.
5. The persistence of so-called athletic evils.
6. The conflicts in ethical codes between the various sports.
7. The emphasis on the spectacular and mass aspects of sports.
8. The existence of supervision problems at sports events.

With the same cultural and social background it is suggested that the following sports situations will decline in emphasis or value:

1. The use of sports as a tool of educational institutions for their own promotion.
2. The level of student interest and spontaneous participation in sports events and their associated activities.
3. The number and extent of rule changes and new inventions in sports.
4. The concept that sports and athletics must be financially self-sustaining.

On the same basis it is suggested that the following sports situations will increase in emphasis or value:

1. Expansion in the number of popular interscholastic and intercollegiate sports.
2. The need for sports as a national physical fitness promotional device.

3. Sportsmanship practices of the general public in dual and individual sports.

4. The diffusion of sports techniques and their associated activities.

5. The importance of sports as a social common denominator and outlet for emotions and aggressions.

On the basis of the research and thought which the preparation of this study has required the author proposes the following recommendations:

1. The recognition that sports and athletic problems are essentially social problems and will never be solved solely by the efforts of educational institutions or athletic associations.

2. The recognition that sports are an integral phase of culture and as such cannot be expected to exist on a level higher than the supporting society.

3. The promotion and educational emphasis on sports as a true outlet for play in which the enjoyment values are emphasized and the perfection of technique is de-emphasized.

4. The promotion of sports for the individual citizen as the only effective and self-sustaining solution to the national physical fitness problem.
5. Greater emphasis in physical education programs on sports ethics and the practical codes and conflicts which are involved.

6. The recognition that sports ethics and athletic policies are really the responsibility of the individual educational institution and will improve only at that level.

7. The recognition that athletic evils will never be eliminated unless administrators are fully aware of the situations existing in their own institutions and take the necessary steps to eliminate the mal-practices and to support vigorously the educationally sound practices.

8. Greater emphasis on the true functions of officials in sports contests with a renewed respect for the authority which an official represents.

9. The de-emphasis of sports in educational institutions as sources of community entertainment to the extent that games are scheduled on the school or college grounds at hours convenient for students.

Sports have been and almost definitely will continue to be important and beneficial to society generally and to educational institutions especially. Because sports can be taught and played in ways that produce from very positive to undeniably negative outcomes and values, it is essential that sports be used by all phases of society toward their
Chapter II

THE SOCIAL SIGNIFICANCE OF SPORTS AND THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SPORTS AND CULTURE

The social significance of sports was evident from the failure of colleges\(^1\) to suppress the undesirable situations associated with the earliest intramural and intercollegiate sports contests. Sports forced their way into a recognized position as part of college life through the problems and social pressure exerted by the students' participation in and especially their promotion of these activities.\(^2\)

After the great expansion of sports in the 1870's and 1880's, the social significance of sports, indicated by their widespread popularity, caused them to be adopted by many of the nation's high schools. Current social pressure in sports and athletics probably is most evident from the insistent and persistent efforts to push athletics down to the junior high school and even to the elementary school levels.

\(^1\)The term colleges is used throughout this report to refer to all types of four-year institutions of higher education.

\(^2\)Harry A. Scott, *Competitive Sports in Schools and Colleges*, pp. 87-91.
most productive ends. The choices made by society in their sports values can have an important effect on the course and development of the society itself.
APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW FORM

AND

FORM FOR QUESTIONNAIRE LETTERS
INTERVIEW FORM

Age
Sex
Occupation

1. In the past when you have heard or read the term sportsmanship what were your general ideas about the word?


2. Do you feel that sportsmanship is an essential part of sports regardless of the level of play of the players or the importance of the event?


3. Do you think there is a difference between amateurs and professionals regarding sportsmanship practices?


4. Do you think there could be justifiably a difference between amateurs and professionals regarding sportsmanship practices?


5. In your opinion do you feel that sportsmanship standards are changing or have changed in the last 10 (20, 40, 60) years?


6. If yes on No. 5, How do you feel they have changed?
7. How did you feel when you observed or experienced misconduct at a sports event?

8. Based on your observations and playing experiences, in which sports do you feel that the players display the best standards of sportsmanship?

9. Based on your observations and playing experiences, in which sports do you feel that the players display the worst standards of sportsmanship?

10. Have you observed or experienced any differences in the sportsmanship practices of players in individual sports as compared with those in dual sports?

11. Have you observed or experienced any differences in the sportsmanship practices of players in dual sports as compared with those in team sports?

12. Do you feel that sports have significantly aided individuals in our society to have better health, a more pleasurable life and an increasing sense of general satisfaction and well-being?

13. Do you think that sports play an important part in our social patterns, such as our speech, conversation, dress, social gatherings?

14. Do you feel a personal feeling of pride and accomplishment when your team or a team to which you are attached wins or performs outstandingly?
15. Do you feel that the amount of applause following an outstanding display of sports skill is an adequate measure by those who see it of the importance of the feat?

16. Do you feel that the amount of applause following an outstanding display of sportsmanship is an adequate measure by those who see it of the value of the act?

17. Have you ever adopted a college team which was not close to your home and which neither you nor any of your relatives and close acquaintances had attended or are attending?

18. Have you supported the team or school by any type of action?

19. Do you feel that people are born with good or bad sportsmanship traits?

20. If an individual had to make a decision in a game situation in which the decision would be the sportsmanlike thing to do or would affect the outcome in favor of his team, which choice would he make? (With illustration)

21. If he chose the sportsmanlike act and his team lost because of it, how do you assume his teammates would treat him?

22. Under the same conditions, how do you think the people in his community would treat him?
23. If he made an unfair choice, do you think that his conscience would bother him because of it?
Date

Name
Athletic Department
Institution
City, State

Dear ______________,

I am attempting to determine what basic changes have occurred in the sportsmanship standards of players and the behavior of crowds at sports events during the past twenty years or more. I strongly feel that these changes can only be determined by those who have been active and closely associated with sports during that period. Since you are one of the few coaches qualified on this basis your observations are essential to an evaluation of such changes.

I am sure that you will find only a few minutes are required to record your observations, and this form-type letter and self-addressed, stamped envelope have been provided for your convenience.

1. Do you object to being quoted on your observations?
   Yes_______ No_______

2. What year did you begin coaching (became active in high school or college sports coaching or administration)?

3. How have changes in basketball (football, major sport)** rules affected the conduct of players or the behavior of crowds?

*Difference in wording for the letters to athletic directors.

**Difference in wording for the letters to football coaches and athletic directors.
4. How has the development of large crowds at basketball (football, sports events)* games affected the conduct of players or the behavior of crowds?

5. How has the development of professional-level play in college basketball (football, sports events)* affected the conduct of the players or the behavior of the crowds?

6. How would you compare the ethical practices of coaches (sports administrators)** now with those when you first began coaching (coaching or administration)?**

7. Any additional comments you would care to make would be appreciated.

Sincerely yours,

Robert Laughter

*Difference in wording for the letters to football coaches and athletic directors.

**Difference in wording for the letters to athletic directors.
APPENDIX B

TABULAR RESULTS OF THE INTERVIEW SURVEY
TABLE 1

DISTRIBUTION BY AGE OF THE INTERVIEWEES

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The social significance of intercollegiate sports has forced some of the nation's larger colleges into situations which make the return to educationally justifiable sports and athletic programs improbable if not impossible. Many high school and college administrators are well aware of the fact that sports are conducted for institutional promotion rather than institutional education. The general public, encouraged almost from the very beginning to support sports financially, has been insistent about its right to attend interscholastic and intercollegiate games and, in some cases, to control sports and athletic policies. Cozens and Stumpf point out that the public's attitude toward college and school sports is very possessive:

The great American public has always seemed to feel that the sports activities of the schools and colleges somehow belonged as much to them as they did to the institutions that sponsored contests and the students who participated.

In those areas where unofficial public control and pressure on college and high school sports policies are very influential, educational principles are not the primary determiner of these policies. The influence of economic factors, sociological factors, public relations objectives,

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4Frederick W. Cozens and Florence S. Stumpf, Sports in American Life, p. 150.
<table>
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**Distribution by Occupation of the Male Interviewees**

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</tr>
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<tr>
<td>Electroplater</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>High School Principal</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School Teacher</td>
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<tr>
<td>Insurance Agency Owner</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior High Sch. Teacher</td>
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<tr>
<td>Judge</td>
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<tr>
<td>Librarian</td>
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<td>Merchant, Clothing</td>
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<td>Painter, House</td>
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<tr>
<td>University Intramural Dir</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>University President</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>University Vice-President</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wholesaler, Lumber</td>
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<td>Nursery School Teacher</td>
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<td>Number</td>
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<td>-------</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>14-20</td>
<td>9</td>
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<td>21-30</td>
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<td>21-30</td>
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<td>51-60</td>
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<td>Women</td>
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<td>26</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courtesy</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>23</td>
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<td>Winning and losing well</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>20</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>15</td>
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<td>Attitude toward the game</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being game</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>Enthusiasm</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>All others</td>
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<td>6</td>
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### TABLE 6
RESPONSES TO QUESTION NUMBER TWO

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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definitely</td>
<td>16</td>
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<tr>
<td>Only for amateurs</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Response</td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definitely yes</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probably yes</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not great</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not know</td>
<td>4</td>
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TABLE 8
RESPONSES TO QUESTION NUMBER FOUR

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<th>Ages</th>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>14-20</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-60</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61-88</td>
<td>3</td>
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</tbody>
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**TABLE 9**

RESPONSES TO QUESTION NUMBER FIVE

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Time Span</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Response</td>
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</tr>
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<td>5 years</td>
<td>Definitely</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Do not know</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 years</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Do not know</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 years</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 years</td>
<td>Definitely</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not greatly</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Do not know</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 years</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not much</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 years</td>
<td>Not noticeably</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Do not know</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 years</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Some</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Do not know</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 years</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70 years</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>49*</td>
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</tr>
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*Three boys and two girls were not interviewed on this question because of their youth and lack of sports experiences*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time Span</th>
<th>Responses by Men</th>
<th>Responses by Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5 years</td>
<td>Sportsmanship is less and less all the time Will win at any cost</td>
<td>More problems are coming to light</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 years</td>
<td>They are becoming poorer Will win at any cost now They are somewhat better Earlier good time with traditional rival was stressed, now consistent winning is stressed</td>
<td>They must be better</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 years</td>
<td>Do not play as rough; are more confined to rules</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 years</td>
<td>Not as strict as they were They are becoming more professional They are better understood because of more teaching They have changed only to extent of commercialism They have improved There is a slight change for the better</td>
<td>They are better now They are not as strict as they used to be All levels reflect the attitude of the pro's There is more emphasis on winning and less on the game's sake They are better because of sportsmanship recognition There is less sportsmanship among players and spectators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 years</td>
<td>Some standards have deteriorated because of the spectators The pro's have risen to prominence They are safer</td>
<td>Relationships are not as close; players are more highly publicized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 years</td>
<td></td>
<td>People are more conscious of sportsmanship Gambling scandals have occurred in recent years</td>
</tr>
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</table>
and, sometimes, strong political pressures subordinate the role of educational philosophy as a policy maker.⁵

Because the public so wholeheartedly adopts high school and college teams, it takes individual and collective credit for and pride in team performance. Pressure exerted by the college-associated community, which may be a single town or a large multistate region, to gratify its pride by a sense of supremacy through a winning team can almost overwhelm any opposition. James B. Conant after appraising the sports situation made this comment, "As in the case of most distortions of values in our schools, it is the community that is primarily responsible."⁶

The social significance of play in the development of culture and fundamental social forms has been stressed by Johan Huizinga, who wrote a book to expand and support his theory that "the spirit of playful competition is, as a social impulse, older than culture itself and pervades all life like a veritable ferment."⁷

In this historical sense Butler has emphasized that the


<table>
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<tr>
<th>Time Span</th>
<th>Responses by Men</th>
<th>Responses by Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>40 years</td>
<td>Winning is more predominant</td>
<td>Ethics are less rigid and personal conduct is less controlled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ethics are lower because amateurs are becoming semi-pro's</td>
<td>They play more to win now</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Players are more fair and less prejudiced now</td>
<td>People are better sports with better understanding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>They are better because of less roughness</td>
<td>They have broadened into other fields</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>They have improved</td>
<td>They have improved and are not as rough</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 years</td>
<td>Conduct is higher now than it was then</td>
<td>Players are more trained and better, but they are less interesting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>People are better informed now</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70 years</td>
<td>They are better now with more participation and interest</td>
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### TABLE 11

RESPONSES TO QUESTION NUMBER SEVEN

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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disgusted</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irritated</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mad or angry</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It depends on who has done the act...</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sorry</td>
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<tr>
<td>Embarrassed</td>
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<td>Ashamed</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nervous</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
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<td>Sick</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silly</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerant</td>
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<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>Baseball.</td>
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<td>Tennis</td>
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<tr>
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<td>11</td>
<td>23</td>
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<td>Track.</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Golf.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Football.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming.</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<td>Bowling.</td>
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TABLE 13
RESPONSES TO QUESTION NUMBER NINE

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<tr>
<td>Hockey........</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wrestling.....</td>
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<td>10</td>
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<tr>
<td>Basketball....</td>
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<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boxing........</td>
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<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseball......</td>
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<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All others....</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Do not know...</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<td>Number (Women)</td>
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<td>--------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual sports are better</td>
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<td>11</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dual sports are better</td>
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<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is no difference</td>
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<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This is not detectable by events</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not know</td>
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<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Response</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dual sports' practices are better...</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team sports' practices are better...</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is no difference...</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depends on specific sports...</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depends on specific individuals...</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not know...</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>52</strong></td>
<td><strong>48</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE 16

**RESPONSES TO QUESTION NUMBER TWELVE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definitely yes</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In general yes</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With reservations yes</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not think so</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE 17

**RESPONSES TO QUESTION NUMBER THIRTEEN**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Definitely yes</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>72</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They probably have</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some degree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It depends on the locality</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not know</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>52</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 18
RESPONSES TO QUESTION NUMBER FOURTEEN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Definitely yes</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More or less</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not strongly</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not necessarily</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Only in bowling</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not know</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>52</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 19
RESPONSES TO QUESTION NUMBER FIFTEEN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definitely yes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairly close or generally good</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes if crowd is non-partisan</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes if applause is spontaneous</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probably or questionably yes</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This depends on the audience</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This depends on the individual</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not generally or accurately</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definitely not</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not know</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
social significance of sports dates back to classical times:

The love of sport is a fact in human nature which no amount of austere talk or kindly sentiment can ever banish; and the place of sport in classical life and thought cannot be a matter of indifference—even to classical pedants.8

Major sports form the cores for large and elaborate cultural complexes which involve amazingly large numbers of the American people as participants, spectators, or remote followers.9 The social phenomenon of millions of people huddled in small groups around radio and television sets at "World Series time" or "bowl-game time" is convincing proof of this fact. To these national events can be added the numerous regional contests of traditional and community significance which provide opportunities for social events of more widespread interest and participation than the contests themselves.

Team games, which most characterize American sports, offer a dramatic opportunity for American culture to demonstrate its basic premises and value orientations.10 Erich Fromm expresses basically the same viewpoint regarding sports' function as a ritual:

The only phenomenon approaching the meaning of a ritual is the participation of the spectator

8A. J. Butler, Sport in Classic Times, pp. v-vi.

9National Conference on Social Changes and Implications for Physical Education and Sports Programs, Social Changes & Sports, p. 10.

10Ibid., p. 9.
# Table 20

**Responses to Question Number Sixteen**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes,</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairly close or generally good</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probably or questionably yes</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes if applause is for the loser</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes if applause is spontaneous</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This depends on the audience</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This is proportional to sections</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not necessarily</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No,</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not know</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 21

**A Comparison of the Responses to Questions Number Fifteen and Sixteen**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relationship of Responses</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Applause for sportsmanship is more accurate than applause for skill...</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>38</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applause for sportsmanship has the same accuracy as applause for skill.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applause for skill is more accurate than applause for sportsmanship...</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The responses listed do not indicate any distinction between the two...</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>53</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>52</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Response</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>28</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>72</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE 23
**RESPONSES TO QUESTION NUMBER EIGHTEEN**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attendance at games</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attendance plus attention to team coverage in public communications</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attention to team coverage in public communications</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Response</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>Women</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>These traits are half hereditary</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good traits are inherited</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not know</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 24
RESPONSES TO QUESTION NUMBER NINETEEN
TABLE 25
RESPONSES TO QUESTION NUMBER TWENTY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most would tell the truth......................</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A majority would tell the truth..............</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Half would tell the truth......................</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A majority would lie...........................</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most would lie..................................</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average player would tell the truth..........</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good athletes would tell the truth...........</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not know....................................</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong>......................................</td>
<td><strong>52</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Response</td>
<td>Men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They would agree with and accept him.</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They would blame and treat him badly.</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They would treat him normally or regularly.</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They would respect and support him.</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They would be mad at the time, but later they would accept and support him.</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Their treatment would depend upon the popularity of the individual involved.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Their treatment would be evenly divided, half would be good and half would be bad.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Their treatment would depend on the coach.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They would be mad at themselves.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They would ride or rib him.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The good team would treat him right.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The honest teammates would accept him.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not know.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE 27

RESPONSES TO QUESTION NUMBER TWENTY-TWO

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>They would agree with his decision and treat him well...................</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They would admire and applaud him.........................................</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They would blame and treat him badly.....................................</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Their treatment would be evenly divided, half would be good and half would be bad.......................</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Their treatment would depend on the individual involved..................</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Their treatment would depend on the particular community involved........</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Those who were like him would support him..................................</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The majority would feel that he should have refused to answer...........</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not know.............................................................</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total.................................................................</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE 28

A COMPARISON OF THE RESPONSES TO QUESTIONS
NUMBER TWENTY-ONE AND TWENTY-TWO

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relationship of Responses</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The community would treat him better than the team would........</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The community would treat him worse than the team would..........</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The responses listed do not indicate any distinction between the two....</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE 29
RESPONSES TO QUESTION NUMBER TWENTY-THREE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definitely yes</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Only to a slight degree</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Half would be bothered</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The sportsman would be bothered</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depends on the individual</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depends on moral standards</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depends on religious values</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The habitual liar would not be bothered</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>52</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
in competitive sports; here at least, one fundamental problem of human existence is dealt with: the fight between men and the vicarious experience of victory or defeat.\textsuperscript{11}

Although competition is an undeniable social trait in current American society, there are some parents and some teenage peer groups who subordinate individual excellence to group solidarity. In these situations pressure is placed on the individual not to attempt to achieve goals higher than the group norms. To the individuals involved sports offer one of the few acceptable outlets for demonstration of superiority and aggressive behavior.

In addition, sports allow students in general an opportunity to eliminate their academically incurred anxieties through healthy, emotionally satisfying outlets.\textsuperscript{12} In a similar manner, sports have provided adults with loyalties which in previous cultures were associated with destructive activities.\textsuperscript{13}

Extensive urbanization has increased the significance of sports in America as a social bond, or social common denominator. A sociologist stressed this point in a physical education convention address, "The spectatorship of sport is

\textsuperscript{11}Erich Fromm, The Sane Society, p. 145.

\textsuperscript{12}Isadore Salario, "School Activities on Trial," The Clearing House, XXXVI (November, 1961), p. 146.

\textsuperscript{13}Max Lerner, America As a Civilization; Life and Thought in the United States Today, p. 818.
APPENDIX C

LIST OF THE RESPONDENTS

AND

TABULAR RESULTS OF THE LETTER SURVEY
LIST OF THE RESPONDENTS

Joe Aillet, Football Coach, Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, 1926.


Gale Bullman, Football Coach, Missouri School of Mines and Metallurgy, 1925.

John Bunn, Basketball Coach, Colorado State College, 1921.

Jack Curtice, Football Coach, University of California at Santa Barbara, 1930.

E. A. Diddle, Basketball Coach, Western Kentucky State College, 1922.

Aldo Donelli, Football Coach, Columbia University, 1930.

Joel Eaves, Basketball Coach, Auburn University, 1937.

Charles Engle, Football Coach, Pennsylvania State University, 1930.

Don Faurot, Athletic Director, University of Missouri, 1925.

John Gallagher, Basketball Coach, Niagra University, 1927.

Bernie Hesselton, Football Coach, Lawrence College, 1925.

Paul Hinkle, Basketball Coach, Butler University, 1921.

Stuart Holcomb, Athletic Director, Northwestern University, 1932.

Frank Howard, Football Coach, Clemson College, 1931.

Wilbur Johns, Athletic Director, University of California at Los Angeles, 1925.

*Each respondent is listed by name, position, college, and first year as a coach or administrator.
Alvin Julian, Basketball Coach, Dartmouth College, 1925.

William Lai, Athletic Director, Long Island University, 1947.

L. R. Meyer, Athletic Director, Texas Christian University, 1923.

Raymond Meyer, Basketball Coach, De Paul University, 1942.

Douglas Mills, Athletic Director, University of Illinois, 1930.

Clarence Munn, Athletic Director, Michigan State University, 1925.

Glen Rose, Basketball Coach, University of Arkansas, 1928.

Adolph Rupp, Basketball Coach, University of Kentucky, 1925.
## TABLE 30
### RESPONSES TO QUESTION NUMBER THREE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sports Group</th>
<th>Responses by the Group*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Athletic Directors</td>
<td>Have had very little effect. (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have improved conduct in general.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have confused the spectators.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have made football and basketball harder to officiate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have controlled basketball through the technical foul and have not changed football.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have had no effect on players.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have increased the tempo of basketball.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basketball Coaches</td>
<td>Have increased the action of the players. (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have increased the action of the players and the crowds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have increased the excitement and tension.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have created confusion and misunderstanding of players and crowds. (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have not improved spectator conduct.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have had no effect on players or crowds. (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Football Coaches</td>
<td>Have improved the conduct of players. (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have had no effect on players or crowds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have had no effect on crowds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have improved the level of play.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have improved the attitudes of players.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have slightly improved player behavior.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The number in parenthesis indicates the number of athletic directors or coaches who gave the same response.*
### TABLE 31
RESPONSES TO QUESTION NUMBER FOUR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sports Group</th>
<th>Responses by the Group*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Athletic Directors** | Have improved player and crowd conduct. (2)  
|                     | Have had very little effect. (2)  
|                     | Have had no effect on players.  
|                     | Have had no effect on crowds.  
|                     | Have not caused a decline in crowd behavior.  
|                     | Have improved the conduct of the majority of players but have created a few showoffs. |
| **Basketball Coaches** | Have had no effect on the players. (3)  
|                     | Have increased the pressure on the players. (3)  
|                     | Have increased the misbehavior of crowds.  
|                     | Have increased the need for crowd control.  
|                     | Have increased the tension in crowds.  
|                     | Have inspired players at home and depressed players away from home.  
|                     | Have improved player and crowd conduct.  
|                     | Have had no effect on the players or crowds. |
| **Football Coaches** | Have inspired players. (3)  
|                     | Have improved the behavior of players and crowds. (2)  
|                     | Have had no effect on players. (2)  
|                     | Have had no effect on crowds. (2)  
|                     | Have created more minor crowd incidents.  
|                     | Have increased the tension in crowds.  
|                     | Have caused crowds to be farther away from the field of play. |

*The number in parenthesis indicates the number of athletic directors or coaches who gave the same response.*
### TABLE 32
RESPONSES TO QUESTION NUMBER FIVE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sports Group</th>
<th>Responses by the Group*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Athletic Directors** | Has had no effect on players or crowds. (3)  
Has caused the crowds to expect too much from the players. (2)  
Has improved the level of play.  
Has created an overemphasis on winning.  
Has affected players and crowds.  
Has caused more criticism. |
| **Basketball Coaches** | Have no comment to make. (5)  
Has caused player and crowd conduct to become worse. (2)  
Has created more arguments during games.  
Has caused crowds to expect high level play. |
| **Football Coaches** | Has had no effect on players or crowds. (2)  
Has improved the level of play with less dirty tactics.  
Has caused crowd behavior to become worse.  
Has had no effect on players.  
Has not changed player or crowd behavior to any extent.  
Has changed the nature of sports crowds.  
Has motivated the players to higher level play.  
Have no comment to make. |

*The number in parenthesis indicates the number of athletic directors or coaches who gave the same response.*
### TABLE 33
RESPONSES TO QUESTION NUMBER SIX

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sports Group</th>
<th>Responses by the Group*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Athletic Directors | Have improved greatly. (2)  
|                    | Have improved. (2)       |
|                    | Have improved but problems persist.  
|                    | Have declined and are not adequate at the present time.  
|                    | Have been pressed by the greater pressure to win. |
| Basketball Coaches | Have improved. (3)       |
|                    | Have greatly improved. (2) |
|                    | Have improved except for recruiting. |
|                    | Have not changed to any extent.  
|                    | Have declined because of the pressure to win.  
|                    | Have declined and created a situation in which coaches do not accept responsibility for themselves or others. |
| Football Coaches   | Have greatly improved. (4) |
|                    | Have not changed. (2)     |
|                    | Have improved.            |
|                    | Have declined because of the greater incentives to be successful. |

*The number in parenthesis indicates the number of athletic directors or coaches who gave the same response.*
BIBLIOGRAPHY
BIBLIOGRAPHY


necessary for conversation and provides mutual accessibility to anonymous members of the mass society.\textsuperscript{14}

As mass communications have replaced traditions as the social standard for evaluating individual and group actions, the metropolitan man has anchored his conduct in the spectator sports, the idols of mass communications, and other phases of amusement.\textsuperscript{15} Through changing social concepts since the turn of the century, the "idols of leisure" have replaced the "idols of work" as public images.\textsuperscript{16}

Through these developments sports have become the success story of the twentieth century; the modern way to complete acceptance and social achievement.\textsuperscript{17} An observation by C. Wright Mills seems pertinent to this development:

The image of success and its individuated psychology are the most lively aspects of popular culture. . . . Virtually all the images of popular culture are concerned with individuals, and more, with particular kinds of individuals succeeding by individual ways to individual goals.\textsuperscript{18}

Practical examples of this concept can be observed not only in the social prestige of the champion in an individual

\textsuperscript{14}Gregory P. Stone, "Some Meanings of American Sport," College Physical Education Association 60th Annual Proceedings 1957, p. 27.

\textsuperscript{15}C. Wright Mills, White Collar: The American Middle Classes, p. 238.

\textsuperscript{16}Ibid., p. 236.

\textsuperscript{17}John R. Tunis, The American Way in Sport, p. 18.

\textsuperscript{18}Mills, op. cit., p. 336.


McAfee, Robert A. "Notes and Comments: Sportsmanship Attitudes of Sixth, Seventh, and Eighth Grade Boys," *The Research Quarterly, XXVI* (March, 1955), 120.


McEwen, Dr. Robert W. "We Like to Win But...," *Sports Illustrated, III* (December 5, 1955), 49-51.


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AUTOBIOGRAPHY
I, Robert James Laughter, was born in Turlock, California on July 3, 1930. I attended public schools in several California communities prior to graduation from Fresno High School. During the next four years I completed the undergraduate program in physical education at Oregon State University and received a Bachelor of Science degree. Following a two-year period in the United States Army I enrolled at the Ohio State University, which granted me a Master of Arts degree in 1955. During the next two years of resident work on my doctorate at the Ohio State University I was employed by the Department of Physical Education as a Graduate Assistant and an Assistant Instructor.

In 1957 I became a faculty member of the Department of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation at the University of Nevada in Reno where I am now Division Chairman of Physical Education for Men.
SOCIO-PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF ATHLETIC PRACTICES AND SPORTS ETHICS

DISSERTATION

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

By

ROBERT JAMES LAUGHTER, B. S., M. A.

The Ohio State University
1963

Approved by:

Bruce L. Bennett
Adviser
Department of Physical Education
sport, but also in the widespread publicity and attention sportswriters give to the players who lead in statistics of individuals for an isolated phase of a team sport.¹⁹

In addition to the direct effects sports success has upon the participants, there are secondary effects in the groups with which the participants are associated that have greater social significance. The honor and prestige of the sports victors readily pass to the groups to which they belong.²⁰ The tremendous amounts of alumni pressure which seek to promote the development of a winning team are unmistakable proof of the social consequences of this relationship.

The field of entertainment, especially intercollegiate and professional sports, has been instrumental in the rising status of the American Negro. Through the breakdown of the color barrier by sports, ever-widening opportunities for recognition and reward in other areas of society have been available to the Negro.²¹

The use of sports terms and sports-type competition has been adapted by almost every kind of organization in society to promote increased achievement of the organization's goals.


²⁰Huizinga, op. cit., p. 50.

and projects. Frequently, the membership of these groups is divided into teams to encourage not only interindividual competition but also intergroup competition in fulfilling established group goals. Also, charts using sports symbols and sports terms are prominently displayed because they are easily understood and promote the desire to achieve the group goals.

John R. Tunis has summarized the social significance of sports in one short sentence, "To the American everything is a game."22

The close relationship between sports and culture has been stressed by those who have studied sports from the sociological point of view. Margaret Clark has pointed out that many of the social values which were dominant during the first half of this century were conducive to the rapid growth and development of organized sports.23

Cozens and Stumpf have emphasized that the excessive publicity, the overorganization, and the overemphasis of sports and athletics are but a reflection of the culture which nurtured them. In the day of the "organization man" and the "publicity machine" it is only to be expected that sports and athletics will exhibit the "overwhelming trend

22Tunis, op. cit., p. 17.
23National Conference on Social Changes, op. cit., p. 10.
Sports definitely reflect the feeling of the times. The recessions in sports have been associated with the times of national crises, notably war and financial depression.\(^{25}\)

The genius and character of the American people are clearly indicated in their sports. The changes, expansions, and adaptations in sports only parallel the changes, expansions, and adaptations in the culture as a whole.\(^{26}\)

In this sense, it seems appropriate to point out that critical and sociologically questionable comparisons are made of American and British sports and athletics. Everyone should agree that there are fundamental differences in American and British ideals, customs, and standards regarding the social institutions of each nation. Because there is much to admire and to assimilate from British sports and athletic practices Americans should make an earnest and prolonged effort to incorporate these concepts and ideals into their own sports and athletics. But, on the other hand, from the standpoint of sociological principle it seems only fair when making critical evaluations of American sports and

\(^{24}\)Cozens and Stumpf, op. cit., pp. 8-9.

\(^{25}\)Robert L. Burnes, 50 Golden Years of Sports, p. 6.

\(^{26}\)Cozens and Stumpf, op. cit., p. 6.
athletics to use criteria which are consistent with other phases of American society.27

Understanding the relationship between sports and culture requires that the reciprocal nature of the interaction in the relationship be considered. In previous paragraphs the cultural influence of a specific group on its sports patterns has been stressed. It should be stressed also that the sports patterns of a current group will influence the formation of the succeeding culture.28 The impact of sports on culture has been seldom, if ever, more recognizable than in modern America.

The closing pages of this chapter will point out some specific examples of the sports-culture relationship. The general impression of the relationship is well stated by a sociologist who has studied this situation, "As old as the history of sport itself is the story of the use of sport as an instrumentality for accomplishing something else."29

The significance of the sports-advertising relationship is not limited to the amount of advertising for sports equipment but includes in addition extensive use of sports pictures, sports stars, and sports language to promote a wide

27William R. Wood, Francis L. Bacon, and David Cameron, Just for Sport, p. 397.
28Scott, Competitive Sports . . ., p. 83.
variety of products which are not even remotely related to
sports.30 Even before the prominence of radio and televi-
sion in the field of advertising the exploitation of college
athletes was an established practice.31 The influence of
the sports star on the public is so extraordinary that en-
dorsement by a widely-recognized sports hero of even an in-
ferior or questionable piece of sports equipment will pro-
mote an enormous number of sales.32

The popularity of sports and physical recreation has
definitely influenced architectural design and municipal
development. Provision for both indoor and outdoor sports
facilities in homes, schools, churches, and industrial
plants has become a significant factor in much architec-
tural planning. Provision for public sports and recreation
areas has profoundly affected city and regional planning.33

The private swimming pool and developed recreational
sports area are highly desirable outdoor features in the
selection or improvement of a modern home, and an increasing
number of people are willing to pay for these semi-luxury
facilities. The prominent feature inside many modern homes
is the family room which often provides for indoor sports.

30Cozens and Stumpf, op. cit., p. 140.
31Howard J. Savage and Others, American College Athletics, p. 276.
32Tunis, op. cit., p. 74.
33Cozens and Stumpf, op. cit., p. 6.
The remarkable growth of sports and recreation areas in schools, churches, and large industrial plants is one of the highlights of organized recreation in the twentieth century. Because sports facilities are comparatively expensive and the need for new educational and religious facilities is greater than the available resources, the decision to provide sports facilities in a new school or church may relate more closely to matters of finance than to educational or religious philosophy.

A basic part of the management policy in most companies involves provision for good employee recreation programs. A competition in industry to attract and retain skilled employees and to increase production has spurred many industrial firms to develop sports and recreation areas which are superior to many colleges across the nation.

Artists and sculptors for many centuries have depicted athletes at rest and in action. Numerous examples from earlier cultures have endured to demonstrate the effect of sports on the artistic creations of those periods. The reflection of sports in American art has never equaled those earlier periods, but national exhibitions of sports art have


35 Scott, op. cit., p. 163.
been presented at infrequent intervals. The work of R. Tait McKenzie stands out among Americans because his sports sculptures have been recognized not only for their dramatic representation of sports but also for their art value. The use of sports figures and sports implements in commercial art is probably the most prominent illustration of the influence of sports on American art at the present time.

The application of sports outfits to the everyday dress of both men and women is dramatically shown in the evolution of dress for women which was directly the result of women participating in sports and physical recreation. The position of sports as the great social common denominator is reinforced by the standardization of dress in the various sports which has largely eliminated the outward appearances of background and wealth during sports events. On the other hand, long before the first issue came off the press the editors of Sports Illustrated were convinced that the dress of players and spectators was important to modern Americans.

The basic relationship between sports and dramatics or dance is established by the frequent sports situations which

36 Cozens and Stumpf, op. cit., p. 238.
37 Ibid., p. 133. 38 Ibid., p. 224.
afford opportunities for aesthetic appreciation very similar to those offered by dramatics and dance.\textsuperscript{40} One foreign observer of sports and culture went so far as to state, "... I would even assert that spectator sports are the true theatre of our day."\textsuperscript{41} Evidence of the reflection of sports in popular dramatics is seen in the popularity of a recent Broadway show, \textit{Damn Yankees}, which has a sports situation as its basic plot.

Toynbee's \textit{A Study of History} indicates that close ties between sports and economy-industry originated with the rise of Industrialism in England. The growth of organized sports and games was associated with a conscious effort to counteract the demoralizing effects which division of labor and specialization had on the individual. Unfortunately, sports assumed many of the characteristics of Industrialism which limited their beneficial effects in this respect.\textsuperscript{42}

Sports in many respects have grown and expanded to such an extent that they are big business. The promoters of commercial sporting events, excluding racetracks, had a gross income of $121,000,000 for 1958, and in the same year the

\textsuperscript{40}Scott, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 164.


\textsuperscript{42}Arnold Toynbee, \textit{A Study of History}, pp. 305-6.
managers of bowling establishments grossed $433,000,000. The retail sales of sporting goods stores and bicycle shops for this same period totaled more than six hundred million dollars.

Education, higher education especially, is so closely associated with sports that many colleges are nationally recognized not for significant contributions to education but only for a consistent supply of sports stars and outstanding teams. During their off-seasons these institutions receive public attention only through publicity releases about past sports triumphs or future sports prospects.

To many alumni and a substantial part of the general public the basic image of college life and college loyalty is most closely related to college sports events and their attendant activities. Despite many public statements to the contrary, it appears that many college administrators either by open or clandestine support are promoting the development of their sports image. President Dodds of Princeton University has openly stated that the sports-college relationship is beneficial, "I might add that football ... provides a

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44 Ibid., p. 831.
45 Ralph Perry, Characteristically American, pp. 21-2.
healthy focus for college loyalties and public support."46

As early as the 1920's it was pointed out that a college name rather than a specific team or a specific sport had the Midas-touch at the stadium or field house ticket office.47

In a popular magazine article of a few years ago on the high school basketball situation in Indiana the author used several specific incidents to illustrate the effects of sports pressures on secondary education:

More than one school principal has lost his job because he couldn't produce winning teams for the honor of his village or, more likely, because some local big shot lost out in closely guarded local drawings for state tournament tickets.48

Because of the remarkable development and distribution of labor-saving devices, the health and physical fitness of the American people have become a matter of intense concern to national leaders in many fields. It is extremely doubtful that the work-reduction trend can or should be retarded, but it is also very obvious that the biological requirement for a minimal amount of physical activity must be satisfied in other ways. Since Americans have not been inclined to take part in calisthenics or other types of formal

47 Charles W. Kennedy, College Athletics, p. 34.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The completion of this study has been the result of some intensive and extensive efforts by many people, but I would like to especially acknowledge the contributions of the following people: my wife Edna Laughter, for her persevering encouragement and indispensable typing assistance; the physical education staff of the University of Nevada, for their assistance and understanding; Dr. Arthur S. Daniels, now at Indiana University, for his guidance at the beginning; and Dr. Bruce L. Bennett, for his patience at the end.
conditioning programs, it is a strong conviction of the author that a long-range, widespread campaign to encourage self-sustaining participation in sports is the only real solution to the problem.

The use of sports terminology and organizational forms for promotional purposes by various organizations within society has been pointed out earlier in this chapter, but the influence of sports on the everyday speech and writing of Americans is almost incomparably more extensive. Cozens and Stumpf have commented on this social process:

Everyone in America who reads or listens is exposed to sports expressions by means of newspapers, magazines, books, radio, and television. As a result even those unfamiliar with most games inadvertently employ in their daily speech words and phrases which have been absorbed from reading and conversation and which have their source in the field of sports.49

The relationship between sports and the military dates back to the earliest historical periods when proto-sports were used for conditioning and training for combat.50 During World War I private groups with public support emphasized the need for physical recreation activity by armed service personnel. During World War II the armed services undertook responsibility for their own recreation and made extensive use of sports in the convalescent programs for

49 Cozens and Stumpf, op. cit., p. 232.
50 The Encyclopedia Americana, Volume 25, p. 434.
service-incurred injuries.\textsuperscript{51} In addition, the contributions of the service academy sports teams to the morale of the various branches of the armed services may not be insignificant, particularly the interacademy contests.

The contributions of music to sports are evident from the prominence of musical activities in the presentation of many sports events. A comment of sports announcer Lindsey Nelson points out the significance of this situation, "There are almost as many people who watch the TV Game of the Week for the peripheral goings-on as for pure football. . . ."\textsuperscript{52} In this respect, the opportunities afforded musical groups to perform for thousands in attendance and for millions through radio and television broadcasts are relevant to the promotion and recognition of these groups. Also, sports have been instrumental in the development of most of the college and high school loyalty and fight songs.

Turning to the political overtones of sports in the United States, several unique situations seem worthy of consideration. First, the custom of the President throwing out the first ball to start the official major league baseball season, which originated with William Howard Taft in 1909,

\textsuperscript{51}Scott, op. cit., p. 71.

conveys a quasi-official recognition of the sport.\textsuperscript{53}

Second, the apparent immunity of professional sports from antitrust laws cannot be defended from either a strict legal or business standpoint, implying that there is a political reluctance to tamper with a social institution of such magnitude and popular appeal.

Third, political control of the financial resources of state institutions of higher education in many cases is not unrelated to the sports achievements of the various institutions. The President of the Missouri Valley Conference stated, "A state-university president found it relatively easy to get an appropriation from the state legislature following victory in a bowl game."\textsuperscript{54} Referring to the possible severance of athletic relations between the University of Pittsburg and Pennsylvania State University, the President of Pittsburg said, "One can almost hear now the furor in the state legislature, upon which both State and our own privately endowed institution rely for millions each year."\textsuperscript{55}

Fourth, sports events appear to be the only phase of


\textsuperscript{55}Dr. Edward H. Hitchfield and Myron Cope, "Saturday's Hero is Doing Fine," \textit{Sports Illustrated}, XVII (October 8, 1962), p. 73.
society which has maintained the custom of playing the na-
tional anthem at large social gatherings. Because the cus-
tom is gradually being eliminated from even sports contests,
opportunities to hear the national anthem in public are in-
creasingly more infrequent.

It is doubtful that the influence of sports on any
other phase of culture could be as extensive as it is on the
popular communications media in America. Newspapers in the
eyearly days relegated the publicity for a sports show to the
classified advertising section of the paper because these
events were considered strictly commercial affairs.56 The
changes in managerial and editorial policy which brought
about the countless millions of dollars worth of free pub-
licity for modern sports events were the result of the re-
sponse by the newspapers to the expanding interest of their
readers.57

As the newspapers expanded their sports sections to
satisfy existing interest in sports, an increasing desire
for more sports coverage was created. The sports-hungry
newspaper readers even stimulated invention and innovation
in the basic procedures for collecting and disseminating all
types of news.58

57 Savage, op. cit., p. 266.
A journalist recently had an article published which pointed out that the prominence of sports in the newspapers is readily apparent in the nation's most highly regarded daily periodical:

Even The New York Times, the most respected newspaper in the country, devotes more space to sport than it does to art, books, education, television or the theater. Indeed, it devotes more space to sport in its daily edition than to all those subjects combined. 59

Regardless of whether sports editors are responding to genuine reader interest or are protecting their own interests in providing such extensive coverage of sports, they cannot deny their responsibility for building sports events "into a public industry that supports bookmakers and sells soap, cigarettes and automobiles." 60

In the other two major areas of mass communications, radio and television, the influence of sports is almost as notable as for the newspapers, but the relationships to sports do not provide the unquestionable benefits for sports that are derived from those with the newspapers. It has not been publicly asserted, to the knowledge of the author, that the newspapers have been responsible for decreased attendance at sports events. On the other hand, there have been


numerous protests by both amateur and professional sports organizations that radio and television broadcasts of sports events, particularly contests of regional and national interest, have decreased attendance for these groups to the extent that financial hardships are involved.  

In a much deeper sense than the projection of sports into church architecture mentioned earlier, close ties between sports and religion have existed throughout recorded history as sports contests have provided for religious or nationalist expression.

In an issue devoted to the relationships between recreation and other phases of culture Robert Tully summarized the three major attitudes of religious groups toward recreation in modern times:

1. Recreation is no concern of a religious group.
2. Religion as the central, controlling function of life has the obligation to speak for or against recreation.
3. Religion is life; hence leisure and recreation are important parts of that life.

Some groups within every major faith in this country adhere to each of these three viewpoints.

Bruce Bennett in a more specific approach to the

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61 Small colleges in football and minor league clubs in baseball have persistently made these claims.

62 Cozens and Stumpf, op. cit., p. 4.

situation has determined the current basic concepts of four important religious groups in America. The Mormons impose an obligation at the local level to foster recreation including sports. The Catholics have promoted extracurricular sports. The Jewish groups question whether sports participation in their centers is deterring from religious participation. The Protestants are uncertain how the individual church should handle the situation.64

In many American communities the church leagues form a substantial part of the organized recreational opportunities available to youth and adults to participate in sports. It is a sad commentary on the church-sports relationship that church leagues in general do not have the reputation for sportsmanship which could be anticipated under the circumstances.

It seems appropriate to conclude this chapter with a few comments about the effects sports have on the emotions and consciousness of the individual in modern society. One of these, from the managing editor of Sports Illustrated, points out the uniqueness of sports experiences in the memory of man:

The Yesterdays of sport occupy a special, almost hallowed place in the mind. A man of large affairs - a man who requires secretaries, journals and all manner of memoranda in order to

keep track of the confusing details of his daily life - can readily make a journey in his mind to a faraway yesterday and relive in the minutest detail the events of a glorious afternoon of sport.65

Ralph Linton has emphasized that some activities in society are so important they provide a core for numerous other social activities which contribute only slightly to the performance of the primary activity. These associated activities are significant because they meet various psychological needs of individuals, especially prestige and favorable response from others.66 The players and their technical assistants of all types comprise such a small segment of those who participate in sports events that a substantial part of the population must be satisfying other psychological needs than the desire for physical competition through sports events.

In our mass society where individuals continually face competitors and pressures which they neither recognize nor directly oppose, associations with sports teams or individual players may satisfy real needs of these individuals. Here is one aspect of society where an individual, vicariously but also directly and intimately, can meet an opponent


66Ralph Linton, The Tree of Culture, p. 36.
in face-to-face rivalry which usually results in a definite feeling of victory or defeat.

A leading writer in the field of social relations has pointed out that sports, as one of the forms of socially useful competition, can provide a harmless release for aggressions which is more effective than most societies have provided in the past. Comparing the sports contests of today with the tribal conflicts of many centuries ago, a former president of the National Collegiate Athletic Association wrote, "The tribe has gathered, the medicine men 'make medicine,' and the warriors go forth to battle."

Even the associated activities of sports events which contribute little to the main performance but which contribute much to the spectacular production are important to our society. The band, the drill team, the card stunts, the color guard, the playing of the national anthem, all these create a sense of belonging and of oneness which is too seldom achieved by other phases of society.

67 Clyde Kluckhohn, Mirror for Man: The Relation of Anthropology to Modern Life, p. 278.

68 Kennedy, op. cit., p. 54.

Chapter III

PRINCIPLES OF SOCIAL CHANGE AND THEIR RELATION TO SPORTS AND ATHLETICS

Americans currently face a period in which few institutions, beliefs or values can any longer be taken for granted. All are under strain; all are challenged. Basic transformations of man and society are now underway, and many vital choices of values must be made.1

Because the changes which have occurred and which will continue to occur in sports and athletics are basically the results of social conditions it seems pertinent to summarize the principles and mechanics of social change before considering changes in sports and athletics.

A discussion of social change, or any concept where errors in communication are to be avoided, should begin with a basic understanding of the terminology involved. The term "society" is used to refer to an organized group of individuals, and the term "culture" is used to refer to the organized, learned responses of a specific social group.2 The term "social change," however, has been broadened in general

1Robin M. Williams, Jr., American Society, A Sociological Interpretation, p. 374.

2Ralph Linton, The Tree of Culture, p. 29.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACKNOWLEDGMENTS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF TABLES</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Chapter**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. THE SOCIAL SIGNIFICANCE OF SPORTS AND THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SPORTS AND CULTURE</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. PRINCIPLES OF SOCIAL CHANGE AND THEIR RELATION TO SPORTS AND ATHLETICS</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV. PRINCIPLES OF ETHICS AND THEIR RELATION TO SPORTS</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. AN INTERVIEW-SURVEY ON SPORTS ETHICS AND SPORTS IMPRESSIONS</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI. THE EFFECTS OF CHANGED SPORTS PROMOTION METHODS</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII. REVIEW AND GENERAL CONCLUSIONS</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Appendixes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Appendix</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. INTERVIEW FORM AND FORM FOR QUESTIONNAIRE LETTERS</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. TABULAR RESULTS OF THE INTERVIEW-SURVEY</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. LIST OF THE RESPONDENTS AND TABULAR RESULTS OF THE LETTER-SURVEY</td>
<td>174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BIBLIOGRAPHY</td>
<td>182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AUTOBIOGRAPHY</td>
<td>193</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
usage to refer not only to the changes which occur in the relations between individuals but also the changes in structures, both material and non-material, which according to technical terminology would be more correctly defined as "cultural change."

The broad spectrum of culture has been divided by social scientists into three basic categories: customs, beliefs, and artifacts. In America changes within all three areas have produced noticeable changes in sports and athletics, but changes in customs and beliefs have produced the more significant changes in sports and athletics.

Turning from definitions to more expansive and meaningful concepts, social change means in its most concrete sense that "large numbers of persons are engaging in activities that differ from those in which they, or their parents, engaged some time before." Also, since activity selection by members of society involves choice and evaluation, social change means that values change within society through modification, rejection, or new development.

Any social system must be understood as a configuration of dynamic forces. The system is essentially static when

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3Stuart Chase and Edmund Brunner, The Proper Study of Mankind, p. 64.
4Francis E. Merrill and H. Wentworth Eldredge, Society and Culture: An Introduction to Sociology, p. 470.
5Louis Kattsoff, The Design of Human Behavior, p. 344.
the forces are in balance and is continually changing when the forces are out of balance.\textsuperscript{6} A system is never actually static, but when equilibrium is its most basic feature it is regarded as a static society.\textsuperscript{7} Similarly, in even the most dynamic society there always remains an unchanged segment which provides a limited amount of stability for that particular society.\textsuperscript{8}

Within each social system the existence of mores may cause the people to develop specific attitudes toward social change. These attitudes may range from a willingness to accept to a hostility toward such changes.\textsuperscript{9} Most people prior to the development of Western civilization have feared and hated change in their social structures. Even in America most people place considerable value on the routine parts of their lives, and they naturally resist the changes in society that disturb their established routine.\textsuperscript{10}

A strong tendency toward social change is fostered by the briefness of national history in America. Lacking a

\begin{itemize}
\item[\textsuperscript{6}]George C. Homans, \textit{The Human Group}, p. 282.
\item[\textsuperscript{7}]Kimball Young, \textit{Sociology, A Study of Society and Culture}, p. 560.
\item[\textsuperscript{8}]Martin H. Neumeyer, \textit{Social Problems and the Changing Society}, p. 34.
\item[\textsuperscript{10}]Lowell J. Carr, \textit{Analytical Sociology, Social Situations and Social Problems}, p. 666.
\end{itemize}
firmly entrenched traditional background, Americans have been prone to stress the potential aspects of society rather than its actual development.\textsuperscript{11}

Linton's analysis of the social change sequence seems to improve comprehension of how these changes occur. The first step in the sequence is the presentation to a society of a potential addition. Then, the new element is either accepted or rejected. If the element is accepted, it may be modified by and it must be integrated into the existing culture; the culture in the process will be modified by and developed around the new element. The last step of the sequence is the possible elimination of older elements.\textsuperscript{12}

Because changes in either functions or structures of a society produce intensive and extensive alterations, consideration of the mechanics of social change is a prerequisite to understanding the evolution of a society. Ogburn has classified the mechanics of change according to four basic sources: invention, accumulation, adjustment, and diffusion.\textsuperscript{13}

Inventions, mechanical or social, are not indiscriminately adopted by a social group. They are consciously or

\begin{itemize}
\item[\textsuperscript{11}] Clyde Kluckhohn, \textit{Mirror for Man: The Relation of Anthropology to Modern Life}, p. 229.
\item[\textsuperscript{12}] Linton, \textit{op. cit.}, pp. 41-2.
\item[\textsuperscript{13}] Ogburn, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 377.
\end{itemize}
unconsciously chosen according to how well they conform to the general or prevailing pattern of the group.\(^4\)

As traits are adopted and added to the existing culture in the process of accumulation, they do not replace the existing traits on a one-for-one basis. New and old traits are retained side by side, and this accumulation operates so that little of the existing culture is actually lost.\(^5\)

Adjustments in the existing culture will be produced by adoption of even relatively insignificant traits. Because this adjustment process tends to unsettle the existing patterns, adoption of insignificant traits is more rapid than adoption of traits which threaten the basic values and central ideas of the culture. Changes do occur in these areas, but ordinarily it is a more gradual transition because of the primary adjustments required.\(^6\)

Parts of culture may be accepted by society when they have real significance for only a segment of the social group, but the process of diffusion acts to make them meaningful to increasing numbers of people. This procedure starts within a group, but the tendency for one group to borrow from another promotes a more widespread diffusion.\(^7\)

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\(^7\) *Eldridge, op. cit.* , p. 90.
In addition to these four fundamental factors, there are other mechanisms which influence the rate and direction of change. One of these is the difficulty of promoting change unless some members of society feel that the existing system does not satisfy their needs or protect them from threatening environmental forces.\textsuperscript{18} At the same time, the various social groups are attempting to adjust the environment to their demands and to win general acceptance for their own selection of cultural values.\textsuperscript{19}

Another factor is that a culture is seldom fully integrated, and changes in the various parts may occur in different ways and at different times.\textsuperscript{20} Nevertheless, a strain for consistency within culture exists. While the different parts do not need to be integrated, they need to be consistent or appear that way.\textsuperscript{21}

The laws of learning also affect social change because it is a kind of learning. Therefore, societies dominated by younger people are more dynamic than those dominated by older people since the younger people can learn and accept

\textsuperscript{18}Earl H. Bell, Social Foundations of Human Behavior; Introduction to the Study of Sociology, p. 499.

\textsuperscript{19}Robert M. MacIver and Charles H. Page, Society, An Introductory Analysis, p. 513.

\textsuperscript{20}Neumeyer, op. cit., p. 46.

new ideas and new items more readily. An associated factor in modern society is the growth of suburban living which accelerates change by breaking down contacts between different-age groups and by encouraging conformity to peer-group standards.

In this situation children are prone to pattern their behavior on observations of older associates which not infrequently causes the younger children to adopt the real standards of society rather than its ideal, verbally expressed standards.

The extent or amount of social heritage which a group possesses is a determining factor in social change. Greater social heritage provides greater potentiality for change. Because of their social heritage and because it is natural for values and expressions of values to change, individuals in society learn some of the available cultural patterns and fail to learn others, a process which collectively produces social change.

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22 Kattsoff, op. cit., p. 355.
24 Linton, op. cit., p. 38.
26 Mercer, op. cit., p. 67.
Environmental changes can cause social change by making the traditional approaches to situations inadequate and by creating a state of discomfort until new and more adequate adjustments are made.27

Two other factors in the American environment which encourage change are the tendency for nonconformity and the number of high-status individuals who are capable of eliciting general acceptance of changes. Nonconformity is the essential condition required for any form of social change to occur.28 The process of making proposed changes acceptable or rightful is called legitimization, and individuals with high social status who acknowledge and practice such changes are the key to general acceptance.29

Opposing these factors which promote social change, there are mechanisms established by society and working within society which act to resist and to cause rejection of changes. The institutions which societies have developed and maintained to preserve certain values create a vested interest in these values which struggles to resist changes that threaten their status.30 Also, not only do people have fond

28Bell, op. cit., p. 44.
29Ibid., pp. 508-9.
30Emory S. Bogardus, Sociology, pp. 585-6.
recollections of their "own days," but throughout their en-
tire lifetime they continue to participate in and support the
culture which existed during their formative years.31

Because the past is glorified by selective forgetting,
in other words functional amnesia, cultural elements from the
past, "the good old days," possess an entrenched position to
repulse prospective elements of the present.32 In addition,
most people accept without question the standards of their
own groups. This effect causes individuals to see social
conditions the way they have been taught to see them, a situ-
atation prone to reject potential changes.33

Turning now to some of the conflicts that social change
and its ramifications produce, a basic source of maladjust-
ment is created by the phenomenon of cultural lag. Because
some elements in culture develop and change more rapidly than
others, a condition can occur in which old elements persist
to provide some friction between the old and new elements
which coexist in the functional culture.34

Barnes has indicated that cultural lag is the source of

31 Johan Huizinga, Homo Ludens: A Study of the Play Ele-
ment in Culture, p. 195.
32 Ogburn, op. cit., p. 188.
33 William H. Roberts, The Problem of Choice, An Intro-
duction to Ethics, p. 36.
34 Paul H. Landis, Man in Environment, An Introduction
to Sociology, p. 517.
two existing conflicts in American society. One is that the primary societies of our fading rural culture are breaking down more rapidly than new public and community organizations can be developed to replace them. A second is the lack of discipline and the social chaos which have resulted from the destruction of these primary societies and the failure to create new agencies to shape the personality and character of the individual.35

Another area of conflict is the discrepancy between the functions of group norms and group interaction processes. Frequently traditional social norms do not change as rapidly as current social practices; consequently, large numbers of people are practicing social behavior not sanctioned by social norms.36

Chase and Brunner have pointed out that conflicts occur because the individual must function in a dual role. Each person must coordinate the demands imposed upon himself as a separate individual and as a segment of society.37

Applying social change in its most basic sense to sports, it appears to the author that the most dramatic example of social change in American sports during the last quarter of a century is the widespread growth and development

35Harry E. Barnes, Society in Transition, p. 6.
36Merrill and Eldredge, op. cit., p. 474.
37Chase and Brunner, op. cit., p. 66.
of sports for pre-teenage boys. From Little League baseball to Biddy basketball and Pop Warner football the exacting standards in game performance and time required for practice implies some modification, rejection, and development in the values attached to childhood. From the time when occasional household chores or music lessons were the primary restrictions imposed on the free time of most children a time has arrived when large numbers of parents and children accept almost without question the rigid demands and restrictions placed on participants in these junior sports programs.

Another illustration of social change in sports for a longer time period has been the decline in general student interest and unquestioned devotion to college sports. Kennedy noted this development over thirty years ago, "Many an undergraduate today will unhesitatingly challenge the necessity or desirability of many things in college athletics formerly regarded as natural." The 1961 college basketball scandals disclosed the fact that none of the players involved had any loyalty for his school. Kennedy also pointed out that the question of victory or defeat had lost its importance for many undergraduates. Strangely enough, John Keats in a

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38 Charles W. Kennedy, *Sport and Sportsmanship*, p. 16.
40 Kennedy, *op. cit.*, p. 17.
LIST OF TABLES

Table                                                   Page
1. Distribution by Age of the Interviewees. .... 143
2. Distribution by Occupation of the Male
   Interviewees. ........................................ 145
3. Distribution by Occupation of the Female
   Interviewees. ........................................ 146
4. Distribution by Age Groups of the
   Interviewees. ........................................ 147
5. Responses to Question Number One. ................. 148
6. Responses to Question Number Two. .................. 149
7. Responses to Question Number Three. ............... 150
8. Responses to Question Number Four .................. 151
9. Responses to Question Number Five .................. 152
10. Responses to Question Number Six ................... 153
11. Responses to Question Number Seven ................ 155
12. Responses to Question Number Eight ................ 156
13. Responses to Question Number Nine ................ 157
14. Responses to Question Number Ten ................... 158
15. Responses to Question Number Eleven ............... 159
16. Responses to Question Number Twelve ............... 160
17. Responses to Question Number Thirteen .......... ... 161
18. Responses to Question Number Fourteen ............ 162
19. Responses to Question Number Fifteen .............. 163
recent magazine article linked this drop in student morale with improvement in the record of the football team.41

Among the various sports both static and dynamic systems seem to exist. Sports with similar origins, such as basketball and volleyball, have demonstrated differential growth and development patterns. Volleyball rules and playing techniques became stable soon after its origin, and only minor changes occurred before the revolution in playing techniques during the past ten years or more. In contrast basketball has changed in rules and playing techniques, many of a drastic nature, almost every year since it was invented. Other sports which could be classified as basically static include bowling, golf, and tennis. Other dynamic sports include baseball and football.

Many spectators, particularly elderly people, have expressed resentment at the very frequent rule changes in the major sports. The reason would seem to be that these changes disturb their established routines for watching sports and cause them to be ineffective observers.42 A sportswriter commented on this situation at an Ohio physical education convention, "They have changed the rules so often


In basketball and football in the last two decades or so that I'm surprised even the players, officials and coaches can keep up with them."^43

Comparing the developments in British and American sports, the effect of length of national history on social change seems to apply. The British with a deep-rooted traditional background have been reluctant to tamper with their sports. Americans in their brief sports history, generally speaking less than fifty years at the turn of the century^44 when many of the fundamental changes in sports were made, have sought to improve sports to their ultimate potential by continually tampering with them. Schwendener emphasized that differences in American and British mores regarding change were responsible for the contrasts in the sports of the two countries:

In the United States, there was frequent adjustment of the game and sports rules held and adhered to as sacred in Great Britain; such adjustment typified the avid Americanism for speed and acceleration in everything. At this period there existed no single sport or game in the United States without British antecedents and American adaptations.^45

It is almost inconceivable that Americans would allow

^45Norma Schwendener, A History of Physical Education in the United States, p. 93.
the number of ties which occur regularly in British soccer to continue in an American sport. The recent change in football rules to minimize ties by providing different point-after-touchdown scores substantiates this viewpoint.

Before discussing some of the specific changes which have occurred in sports, consideration of some basic developments in the social background of American sports seems appropriate. Several authors have commented about the effects of the pioneering influence on early American sports developments.

Krout points out that the frontier social events such as barn raisings and corn huskings provided opportunities for sporting tests of strength and skill which promoted elements of competition and cooperation essential to later sports developments.\(^46\) Dulles indicates how the importance of physical strength in pioneer society gave new interest to old activities and created new variations of these activities.\(^47\) Weaver emphasizes that team sports, now the core of the American sports program, were unknown in colonial times because of the restrictions placed on play and the attitude of rugged individualism which prevailed at the time.\(^48\)

\(^{46}\) Krout, op. cit., p. 9.

\(^{47}\) Foster R. Dulles, America Learns to Play: A History of Popular Recreation 1607-1940, p. 73.

\(^{48}\) Robert B. Weaver, Amusements and Sports in American Life, p. 10.
The decline in the Puritan influence and the growth of urban areas also were dominant factors in the development of sports in America. As the informal sports associated with country festivals lost their social value as primary sports outlets, professional sports arose in the developing urban areas to provide new outlets. But, it should be understood that organized sports were a long time unfolding because Puritan influences of an earlier period still functioned effectively enough to retard the normal expansion of all types of recreation. The growth of organized sports and other spectator activities started in the large cities where the Puritan influence lost its control over the acceptance or rejection of various recreational activities.

Despite some of these early social conditions which inhibited and retarded the development of sports, Krout emphasized that the later acceptance and popularity of sports were the result of social conditions:

The swift development of sport in the United States and the perennial success of Americans in competition with the athletes of the world is evidence that the new movement was in harmony with fundamental folkways of the people.

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51 Martindale, *op. cit.*, p. 466.
52 Krout, *op. cit.*, p. 5.
Industrial and post-World War I influences were later factors in the evolution of the American sports movement. The two post-war factors were the impetus given to sports through their adoption by the world of fashion and the naturally intensified search for recreational activity by the pleasure-seeking populace. A sociologist connected the rise of sports with the decreased social barriers which resulted from the expansion of an industrial society.

In a national conference on social change and sports Margaret Clark specified that the growth of sports between 1900 and 1950 was a reflection of the social conditions existing during these years:

The first half of the century in America was characterized by the growth of organized sports which, taken as a total complex, gave expression to many of the value orientations of that period—a love for voluntary association or team spirit combined with passionate partisanship, intense competitiveness, and a driving urge for excellence and brilliance in individual and group performance.

Charles W. Kennedy in the early 1930's related the improvement in college sports practices until that time with changes in the administration and control of college

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55 National Conference on Social Changes and Implications for Physical Education and Sports Programs, Social Changes & Sports, p. 10.
College sports, and many other extracurricular activities on the campus, were first organized and promoted by student associations with a primary function of securing the finances required to carry on the various programs. Thus, from a social situation developed the practice of evaluating sports and athletics by financial rather than educational criteria. It soon became apparent to college officials that student control, because of its short-sighted, immediate-problem approach to the situation, could not continue without frequent embarrassment to the colleges.

The next phase was a period in which alumni interest and control dominated the college sports and athletics scene. The alumni, stimulated by college loyalty which fostered intense pride in the college's sports fortunes, pushed for control and dominance of college sports and athletics.

In addition to the alumni, other members of the college community, desiring the sensational and the spectacular in

56 Kennedy, op. cit., p. 25.
57 Harry A. Scott, Competitive Sports in Schools and Colleges, p. 92.
58 Ibid., p. 88.
59 Charles W. Kennedy, College Athletics, pp. 13-4.
60 Howard J. Savage and Others, American College Athletics, p. 81.
college sports events, pressured school authorities to au-
thorize practices which appeared innocent but in reality
possessed potential for virulent abuses. 61

Even the last step in this evolution toward greater ed-
ucational direction of college sports, faculty control, has
not been completely successful according to Harry A. Scott.
Referring to this phase of college sports control, Scott
wrote in his book on competitive sports:

In retrospect it is now apparent that appli-
cation of faculty control accomplished little in
solving the fundamental problems attending inter-
collegiate athletics. Instead of seeking out the
causes underlying the persistent problems of com-
petitive sports and pushing through programs of
control designed to bring athletics in harmony
with the basic concepts and practices of educa-
tion, these faculty committees, in effect, merely
served to approve the current practice. 62

Later in the book Scott indicates that the fundamental
problems confronting faculty-control groups have probably
persisted because of the continuous efforts by vested inter-
ests to maintain their control. 63

A comment at a recent physical education convention on
the conflicts between the virtues and the abuses of college
sports seems pertinent to this situation, "Contrasting

pressures, mixed opinions, and vested interests contribute to the ambivalence of the situation."

Inventions in sports technique and sports strategy have been so frequent in America that it is not uncommon for a new innovation to escape the attention of all but the specialists and devoted fans of the particular sport involved. However, during a period of slightly less than seventy-five years in the nineteenth century three sports inventions were devised which became significant to the American sports movement.

The first of these occurred in 1823 at Rugby when William Webb Ellis "... with a fine disregard for the rules of football as played in his time took the ball in his arms and ran with it." Denounced for his action by his schoolmates, Ellis' dramatic incident eventually led to a new type of football named after his school. How, when, or in what form American football might have evolved without Ellis or what sport, if any, would have replaced football in America is difficult to determine.

The other two inventions were almost fully-developed concepts of new games from the thoughtful contemplations of


65 Krout, op. cit., p. 234.
two men. In 1891 Dr. James A. Naismith at the International Young Men's Christian Association Training School, Springfield, Massachusetts, invented the game of basketball to fulfill the need for a game which would maintain students' interest during indoor classes and would satisfy students' desire for active recreation during the winter.66 Despite the fact that Dr. Naismith acknowledged the use of existing principles from other games, there is no evidence that it was not a true invention in the sense it might have been copied from any game existing in America at the time.

Four years later at the Holyoke YMCA also in Massachusetts and very close to Springfield William G. Morgan invented the game of volleyball. His urge was to satisfy the need for an indoor game which was not too strenuous, rejecting basketball for this very reason. He combined elements from handball and tennis with a raised net and an inflated ball to form a distinctly new game.67

Accumulation in sports appears to be most evident in football. After Ellis set in motion the growth and development of rugby, soccer and rugby were both played in England. It has been pointed out that their coexistence may have been caused by variations in playing field conditions. The turf

at Rugby was soft which would have encouraged the new game while the fields at Eton and other schools were hard and stony, conditions conducive to the old game.68

In the United States the fact that the evolution of football did not eliminate either soccer or Rugby is evidence of cultural accumulation in sports. Also, observation reveals that few of the once popular and widely-used football formations, except those outlawed by the rules, are not used regularly or as variations by many teams each year.

Adjustments in sports are detected in adaptations in the existing formations and strategy to rule changes or new techniques and concepts. In fact, these adaptations may be so common that only those closely connected with the game are aware of the subtle variations involved.

To illustrate, when scouting became prevalent and highly efficient, coaches adjusted by decreasing the elements of surprise and secrecy in their practices and game strategy.

More drastic adjustments resulted in baseball from the 1875 rule change allowing the pitcher to throw rather than toss the ball. The use of masks, gloves, and breast protectors and an increase in pitching distance soon followed this

68 Bernard S. Mason and Elmer D. Mitchell, Active Games and Contests, p. 397.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>Responses to Question Number Sixteen</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>A Comparison of the Responses to Questions Number Fifteen and Sixteen</td>
<td>165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>Responses to Question Number Seventeen</td>
<td>166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Responses to Question Number Eighteen</td>
<td>167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>Responses to Question Number Nineteen</td>
<td>168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>Responses to Question Number Twenty</td>
<td>169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>Responses to Question Number Twenty-One</td>
<td>170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>Responses to Question Number Twenty-Two</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.</td>
<td>A Comparison of the Responses to Questions Number Twenty-One and Twenty-Two</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.</td>
<td>Responses to Question Number Twenty-Three</td>
<td>173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td>Responses to Question Number Three</td>
<td>177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.</td>
<td>Responses to Question Number Four</td>
<td>178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.</td>
<td>Responses to Question Number Five</td>
<td>179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.</td>
<td>Responses to Question Number Six</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
basic change. In basketball elimination of the center jump after each basket must have caused as many if not more adjustments.

Diffusion in both sports and athletics occurred early in American history because of the natural ties with England. In the 1700's Americans consciously copied the sporting customs of Europe, especially those of the English. Later, the English concepts of amateurism and sports participation appeared in the private schools in the Eastern United States.

Geographical diffusion of sports is evident from the fundamental sources of origin of many sports popular in the United States. Some of the sports and their origins include: badminton and polo from India, golf from Scotland, soccer from England, tennis from France, and track and field from Greece.

Sports as part of school and college programs diffused from community life rather than originating from educational philosophy. Because of this development, few institutions

69 Ibid., p. 317.
70 Krout, op. cit., p. 2.
were able to resist public opinion in the formation of institutional sports programs.\textsuperscript{73} In a similar way, despite general hostility by school authorities, football came into secondary school programs because high school students imitated the college gridiron heroes.\textsuperscript{74} More recently, Conant stressed that the circus atmosphere of college athletics has diffused steadily downward in our school systems.\textsuperscript{75}

There are numerous examples of the operation of legitimation in sports. Early in the evolutionary development of American football Harvard functioned as a legitimizer to bring about the adoption of a rugby-type game when soccer was the accepted game for intercollegiate competition.\textsuperscript{76}

Gus Dorais and Knute Rockne probably qualify as the legitimizers of the forward pass in football. Roger Bresnahan acted as the legitimizer in baseball to establish the practice of catchers wearing shinguards.\textsuperscript{77}

A more significant incidence of legitimation affecting sports did not actually occur in sports. The establishment of the Continental Sabbath with its picnics and beer garden

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{73}Scott, op. cit., pp. 94-5.
\item \textsuperscript{74}Krout, op. cit., p. 258.
\item \textsuperscript{75}James B. Conant, "Athletics: The Poison Ivy in Our Schools," \textit{Look}, XXV (January 17, 1961), p. 60.
\item \textsuperscript{76}Allison Danzig, \textit{The History of American Football, Its Great Teams, Players, and Coaches}, pp. 8-10.
\item \textsuperscript{77}Robert L. Burnes, \textit{50 Golden Years of Sports}, p. 21.
\end{itemize}
entertainments by respected German immigrants was instrumental in the acceptance of Sunday recreational activities, a development significant to the growth of both professional and amateur sports.

Cozens and Stumpf indicate that an example of cultural lag existed in the physical education programs of America during the first part of the twentieth century. The instructional part of the program consisted of gymnastics, but the afterschool program was given over to sports. One of the reasons listed for this discrepancy was that sports were considered as play while gymnastics were not, and school authorities were not ready to include play as part of the regular curriculum although they allowed or even encouraged it in extracurricular activities.

Several mechanics of social change may have contributed to the current situation in which the approach to sports and sportsmanship of older people is basically idealistic while the approach of high school and college students is much more pragmatic. The growth of suburban living and the decline of primary social groups have functioned to decrease the influence of older people on the formation of standards by younger people, which increases peer-group influence.

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It was pointed out earlier how close association of peer groups promotes adoption of the real standards of society rather than its idealized standards.

Conflicts for players in sports are comparatively easy to predict on the basis of existing social conditions. The player is taught by his coach that team goals should always be more important than individual goals, but other agencies in the situation indicate that society may view the situation differently. Parental pressure to have him play the "star" position, newspaper publicity devoted primarily to outstanding individual performances, and the selection of an outstanding player and an all-star team reveal to almost anyone that considerable value is placed on individual performance.

Through attendance at games involving older players or observations of television broadcasts, the young player may learn that real conflicts exist between what he has been taught and what he can observe in the "real" world of sports, which he is prone to admire and imitate.

Because it is almost certain that selective forgetting applies to sports as well as to other phases of society, it seems reasonable to predict that conflicts will occur among the various age groups regarding how athletics should function and how sports should be played.

Turning now to some of the effects of social influence on specific sports, baseball had its share of developments
fostered by conditions in society. Despite the efforts of several major league baseball owners to prove that baseball was free of any foreign influence, the records indicate adult cricket playing may have acted to a certain extent as a forerunner of baseball, and the English children's game of rounders definitely formed the core for the later development of baseball.

The *Daily Chicago American* published the results of cricket matches played by three organized clubs in the area around Chicago as early as 1840, and a manual published in 1858 pointed out that cricket was the leading outdoor game for both the country village and the large city.

The first American book which included instructions on how to play baseball was written by Robin Carver in Boston in 1834. Carver acknowledged the use of *The Boy's Own Book*, published in London in 1828, and his account of "base, or goal ball" was almost a word-for-word reproduction of the chapter on rounders in the English book.

The fact that baseball "adapted itself wonderfully to the staging of celebrations" and had a "gentlemanly aura

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82 *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, Volume 3, pp. 166C-E.
about it" was conducive to its popular growth and development.\(^3\)

It has been emphasized that general acceptance of the "New York" game of baseball rather than the "Massachusetts" game encouraged individual skills, team play, and the development of specialists. Popular adoption by the masses led to perceptible changes. Formerly played by gentlemen such as the New York Knickerbockers, noisy spectators, betting, rowdyism and riots soon were familiar parts of the baseball scene.\(^4\)

Basketball does not appear to have been strongly influenced in its development by outside social forces, although some measures designed to speed up the game and increase the frequency of scoring may have resulted from attempts to increase its popularity as a spectator sport.

Volleyball also does not indicate much evidence of outside influence affecting its natural development. However, a recent rule change to permit players to switch positions during the course of the game may have resulted from the natural tendency of Americans to improve play by developing specialists for each phase of a game.

Football, on the other hand, has been shaped by many social influences. It was originally brought to the college

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\(^3\)Robert Smith, *Baseball in America*, pp. 6-7.

campus not as a game but as a medium to demonstrate freshman-sophomore class rivalry. One of the first steps in the evolution of the game was the development in 1879 of interference for the ball carrier. Although providing interference unquestionably violated the rules, it was accepted and so generally practiced that it was not legalized by the rules until 1906.

Another step in the separation of football and rugby occurred in 1880 when the desire for greater strategy and organized team play, which is typical of American games, caused the development of the football scrimmage to replace the rugby scrummage. Then in the early 1900's the roughness of football almost resulted in laws to ban the sport. The rule changes engendered by these outside social threats encouraged the development of wide-open play characteristic of the modern game.

Probably the greatest social force affecting the status and development of college football is the expectation that football will pay the way for the other college sports. The relationship has always been delicate, and it makes a realistic evaluation of the game difficult.

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87 Ibid., pp. 14-5. 88 Burnes, op. cit., p. 3.
Gradually the passage of time and the acceptance through general and continual use by a part of society can cause a society to condone or to approve a practice once considered unacceptable or undesirable. There are several conditions which have encouraged this development in sports and athletics.

Kennedy pointed out many years ago that the "everybody is doing it" philosophy applies very definitely to sports and athletics. "Not only the will to believe improbabilities, but the capacity to believe impossibilities, about one's opponents is one of the most disconcerting things in connection with college sport." An article on the Big Ten's program to bring about more rational athletic regulation indicated how undesirable practices may be spread and reinforced, "The belief in suspicions and allegations about others becomes a rationalization for one's own evasions or compromises."91

The statements of a small college president indicate to what extent athletic evils are associated by society with sports superiority. After the football team at Hamilton College, New York, had achieved undefeated status at mid-season, Dr. Robert W. McEwen commented about his dilemma,

90 Charles W. Kennedy, Sports and Sportsmanship, p. 54.
"We are losing the meaning of the word 'sport' when a college president feels twinges of worry while watching his team win."92

Clair Bee, one of the basketball coaches who was caught in the middle of the gambler-player scandal, remarked how social situations seem to condition the individuals involved to accept practices which they would have refused or opposed prior to their involvement, "The L. I. U. story is worth reviewing briefly to demonstrate how easily, almost naturally, a school and a coach go along with prevailing conditions in a normal desire to win games and public support."93

It is interesting to note that two organized efforts to re-establish intercollegiate athletics on a reasonable or sane basis failed even though they were the result of considerable thought and planning. It was revealed that neither the efforts of the Carnegie Foundation in 1929 nor the National Collegiate Athletic Association's "sanity code" provisions almost twenty-five years later were sufficiently accepted to overcome the entrenched conditions they were designed to minimize or eliminate.94

92Dr. Robert W. McEwen, "We Like to Win But. . . .", Sports Illustrated, III (December 5, 1955), p. 51.


Seymour in *Baseball, The Early Years* describes how professionalism, a term used in this study to indicate illegal payments made to amateur players, became so prevalent in amateur baseball that it could not be curbed, a condition which promoted the organization of professional teams and the establishment of the major leagues in baseball.

It began with businessmen and team backers in a community securing by various inducements superior players wherever they could find them. Then a period of hypocrisy and semi-professionalism existed when teams tried to circumvent their association's rules in order to make illegal payments and to use ineligible players. Practices became so rank and well established it was apparent that integrity and honesty could only be re-established by legalizing the practices through a recognized professional league.95

Although numerous other examples could be presented to illustrate how firmly professionalism is established in amateur sports, one from tennis should serve to summarize the situation. Professionalism is so generally accepted in tennis that an observer wrote, "In the last few years, however, I think the players have become more candid than they ever have been about the illegal payments they receive for playing in amateur tournaments."96

95 Seymour, *op. cit.*, pp. 47-55.
Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

After seriously considering the state of American athletics, it would be difficult to avoid the conclusion that Americans have been much more concerned with the techniques of sports and the administration of athletics than with some of their more basic aspects. Sports technique publications are so numerous that classified bibliographies are necessary for efficient use, and meetings to conduct 'the business' of athletics are so common that they receive only casual attention from the public. On the other hand, books and articles written about such fundamental aspects of sports as their relation to culture, their basic function, their socio-psychological implications, are neither numerous nor extensive.

In several of the publications used in this report the

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Throughout this report a distinction is made between the terms sports and athletics. Sports refer to the different types of competitive activities and to formal competition within these activities. Athletics refer to all the other functions associated with organized sports programs. In this sense, football is a sport, an infraction of football rules during a game involves sports ethics, and a violation of recruiting regulations regarding a football player involves athletic ethics.
Recruiting of college athletes on the "big time" basis which prevails at the present time would have been regarded as an athletic evil in the 1890's. Although recruiting did occur openly then, there were few offers of money and the inducements were primarily promises of social favor, athletic success, nominal employment.97

Current recruiting practices involve the use of hook or crook to secure the promising high school talent so essential to sports success. Recruiting by hook, the liberal offers permitted by many conferences, is an accepted athletic policy now, and the recruiting by crook, the offers which exceed the rules, is the athletic evil.98

Subsidization of college athletes on the "big time" basis which exists today most certainly would have been considered an athletic evil in the 1890's. In fact, the 1895 rules of the Intercollegiate Conference very definitely rejected any form of subsidization, "No person who receives a regular or monthly compensation from the university for services rendered shall be eligible to play on any team."99

The situation is almost completely reversed today when much controversy is based on the question of whether

97Howard J. Savage and Others, American College Athletics, p. 28.
99Savage, op. cit., p. 41.
services are rendered or not. Also, the basic issue now is not whether subsidies should be allowed but what amounts should be permitted. As Herman Hickman emphasized in his appraisal of organized alumni aid to athletes, which is often illegal, "It is also clear from the survey that most of them feel that what they are doing is right and just and necessary, under the circumstances."100

Although some of the older criticisms of athletics express a negative attitude about one team scouting another, by the 1930's scouting was accepted athletic policy, and scouts from an enemy school were given optimum seating at games and were received with hospitality and goodwill.101 The practice is considered so essential now that many colleges make agreements to exchange game films.

The social attitude toward perfection in amateur or college sports has most definitely changed. A statement by Kennedy seems to express the concept of an earlier era, "I believe that an amateur sportsman is one who wishes to play the game as well as he can play it in relation to more important things."102 The perfection or desire for perfection which characterizes much of college sports today became

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101Charles W. Kennedy, Sports and Sportsmanship, p. 29.
102Ibid., p. 2.
an accepted goal because of the development of professional sports and the association of college sports with professional sports.\textsuperscript{103}

Perfection in sports technique is now required to rank among the best amateurs in almost any sport. As the officials and top players in tennis are well aware, it is impossible for a top "amateur" truly to be an amateur.\textsuperscript{104}

The evolution in the work-play relationship of sports closely parallels the development in the perfection of sports skills. Sports by their very definition should be play or fun, and on this basis much that is classified as sport should be placed in another category. Savage and his associates discovered many years ago that college football was enjoyable for the players, but it was not considered as fun or recreation.\textsuperscript{105}

The technical organization and scientific efficiency of sports have increased to the point where they threaten to extinguish all that remains of the play spirit in sports.\textsuperscript{106} Increased systematization and regimentation in sports always destroys part of the play quality of sports,\textsuperscript{107} and it seems

\begin{flushleft}
\textsuperscript{103}Harry A. Scott, \textit{Competitive Sports in Schools and Colleges}, p. 123.
\textsuperscript{104}Pollard, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 44. \textsuperscript{105}Savage, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 106.
\textsuperscript{106}Don Martindale, \textit{American Society}, p. 474.
\textsuperscript{107}Johan Huizinga, \textit{Homo Ludens; A Study of the Play Element in Culture}, p. 197.
\end{flushleft}
that current trends in this development threaten the function of sports as play even for the comparatively young. It is also apparent that many Americans are too busy working at sports to enjoy them.
Chapter IV

PRINCIPLES OF ETHICS AND THEIR RELATION TO SPORTS

Because sports ethics develop and function in sports in the same way ethics has developed and functioned in society, the principles, dynamics, and conflicts of ethics in general will be reviewed briefly before considering sports ethics.

Ethics has been defined by Radoslav Tsanoff as that area of man's endeavor which concerns itself with the judgments of approval or disapproval and with the standards used for evaluation of human conduct. ¹ Tsanoff further explains the function of ethics by pointing out that the values of human conduct are revealed in the personal responses to experience and are manifested throughout the whole range of man's activities.²

Bertrand Russell stresses one of the principles of ethics in emphasizing that a natural conflict occurs within man between his intelligence and his impulses which makes moral or ethical codes necessary.³

¹Radoslav Tsanoff, Ethics, p. 12.
²Ibid., p. 35.
³Bertrand Russell, Human Society in Ethics and Politics, pp. xv-xvi.
Ethics involves the persistent struggle to separate the most comprehensive and most productive principles of human conduct from the narrow, groping, transient principles.4

The underlying principle of ethics is the feeling of obligation by the individual, his recognition that there are imperatives in thought and action. It is this recognition of obligation that changes simple behavior into directional conduct for the individual.5

There are two prevailing concepts which are essential to any study of ethics in America. The first concept, associated with the development of acquisitive and competitive patterns in the economy of our society, places the welfare, happiness, or pleasure of the individual as the ultimate standard for judging good and evil, right and wrong.6 The second concept, which is really a special application of the first, asserts that the central goal of life is the acquisition of as much money as possible and the purchase of values and satisfactions which money will secure.7

One of the most basic mechanisms in the dynamics of

4Ephraim E. Ericksen, Social Ethics, p. 4.
5Harry L. Hollingsworth, Psychology and Ethics. A Study of the Sense of Obligation, p. 3.
6Abraham Edel, Ethical Judgment; The Use of Science in Ethics, p. 23.
7Seba Eldridge and Others, Fundamentals of Sociology, A Situational Analysis, p. 660.
ethics is the method or methods by which it prevails and is maintained in society. Tsanoff relates the effectiveness of ethics with the successful interaction between critical intelligence and dutiful will in the individual, and it must be understood that ethics do not exist in a practical or realistic sense except within individuals. Group or social ethics function as collective norms for the individuals of which they are formed.

Most of the ethics which are internalized by the individual probably arise from the numerous sources that exist in his life in the form of authority. In addition to this main source of ethics, an individual will acquire a few ethical guides as the result of his personal experiences.

The institutional forms of society which are dedicated to the promotion of ethics seem to be restricted to the various phases of education.

It has also been implied that ethics will function and be sustained only when they appeal in a convincing manner as being in the best interest of the people.

The ethics and the mores of a society may not be

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8Tsanoff, op. cit., p. 177.
9John L. Mothershead, Jr., Ethics; Modern Conceptions of the Principles of Right, p. 71.
10May Edel and Abraham Edel, Anthropology and Ethics, p. 7.
11Tsanoff, op. cit., p. 194.
identical, but the ethical patterns originate in real behavior in the sense they simulate behavior that once existed in the society.\textsuperscript{12} At the same time, ethics may change to such an extent that activities once regarded as evil may now be accepted or even desired. Changes have been so marked in American society that most groups can agree only to general principles with variations occurring in their application.\textsuperscript{13}

The shift from formal to operative guides in America caused the influence of mores to become stronger than the influence of morals.\textsuperscript{14} The growth of science and technology contributed to the decline in influence of traditional morality by establishing a secular atmosphere in society.\textsuperscript{15} Also, the social conditions which fostered Christian and democratic ethical concepts are passing away if they have not already passed away in most American cities.\textsuperscript{16}

Ethics' resistance to change follows the social change pattern of persistence in which any phase of culture once established seems to acquire a quality that maintains its

\textsuperscript{12}Francis E. Merrill and H. Wentworth Eldredge, Society and Culture: An Introduction to Sociology, p. 145.

\textsuperscript{13}Martin H. Neumeyer, Social Problems and the Changing Society, pp. 340-1.

\textsuperscript{14}Max Lerner, America As a Civilization: Life and Thought in the United States Today, p. 673.

\textsuperscript{15}Edel, Ethical Judgment, p. 15.

\textsuperscript{16}Lowell J. Carr, Analytical Sociology, Social Situations and Social Problems, p. 672.
status in society. Mothershead has stressed this point, "In so far as people are in enough agreement about moral beliefs to make them implicit or explicit rules of conduct in their society, these beliefs become fixed and very hard indeed to alter."\(^{17}\) The social change principle of resistance to changes which disturb the routine and continuity of people's lives must also be particularly applicable to ethics.

Within the ethical codes of a society various contradictions may exist. "Ideal" ethics and "real" ethics may be closely related or deviate considerably. For example, it is not uncommon for members of society to hold an ideal pattern for any area of behavior and at the same time to express in their conduct an actual or real pattern which is different.\(^ {18}\) There is a collective circumventing of ethical standards in which members of the group pay lip service to standards but allow the individual to shape the standards to fit personal choices.\(^ {19}\)

Other ethical contradictions occur in the relationships between individuals and organizations and between groups. Many people have adopted the attitude that the ethical principles for inter-individual relations are not applicable to

\(^{17}\) Mothershead, *op. cit.*, p. 74.


\(^{19}\) Lerner, *op. cit.*, p. 669.
individual-organizational relations, especially if the organizations are large and powerful. In a similar way, moral provincialism holds that ethical principles apply only to intra-group relations, leaving inter-group relations to be settled by force or other means.

Americans exist in turmoil of ethical conflicts, and this situation is made even more serious by the basic conflict which concerns the nature of ethics itself. In all societies there is a conflict between the individual's ego-istic impulses and his altruistic ideals. To add to an individual's confusion some of the values in society are clearly incompatible and to accept them with equal emphasis would lead to a permanent state of contradictions.

These contradictory values are so prevalent in American society that some of them have been organized into entire systems. The two most basic systems involved in this conflict have produced a paradox: Americans practice fairness ethics but profess Christian ethics. The problems

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21 Ibid., p. 45. 22 Carr, op. cit., p. 322.
23 S. Stansfeld Sargent and Marian W. Smith, Culture and Personality, p. 41.
24 Merrill and Eldredge, op. cit., p. 216.
26 Erich Fromm, The Sane Society, p. 173.
authors stated or implied that this stress upon mechanics to the exclusion of other aspects has created some of the problems in athletics. In a book published by the Carnegie Foundation more than thirty years ago, the authors wrote:

For a long time Americans have been content to reap the ethical advantages from school athletics without much attention to cultivating those advantages. . . . As an American school principal who has done much for the ethics of interscholastic athletics has indicated, until recently we have been too much concerned with the business and technique of our school athletics to pay much conscious attention to their effects upon the character of the schoolboy and the schoolgirl. 2

Despite the newspaper, radio, and television publicity about the athletic and sports scandals during the past decade, there is general agreement by those associated with athletics that considerable progress has been made since the turn of the century. As Frank N. Gardner, President of the Missouri Valley Conference, has pointed out:

Strange as it may seem to many in the face of the news of violations which have occurred, and punishments which have been meted out to educational institutions by conferences and the NCAA, the conditions which existed a few decades ago have been vastly improved. 3

The persistence of problems involving athletic ethics and sports ethics in spite of improved regulation and


inherent in this situation are increased because the ethics of Christianity and the ethics of a capitalistic economy are poles apart in their basic concepts.27

Because anthropology and other related sciences have been prone to neglect the concepts and functions of play,28 tracing the development of sports and sportsmanship practices as they have evolved to the present is a difficult and inconclusive problem. However, this study will attempt to review some of the salient points in this development.

Huizinga has pointed out that archaic cultures did not consider cheating to win a game as an immoral practice.29 Indications from the literature, particularly the Greek writings of Homer, reveal that as late as the Great Age of Greece, unscrupulous conduct in competition was not condemned. Standards of fair play in ethics and conduct by the Greek aristocrats of that age were inferior to the best of later aristocracies.30

The religious nature and background for sports in Greece are indicated by the fact that the Greeks assumed sports were invented by the gods.31 It is a generally accepted fact

that the Olympic Games, which serve as the classic example of Greek sports, were characterized by high moral standards for several centuries.

During this Golden Era of sports history in Greece the first development of idealistic standards in sports, according to recorded history, appears to have occurred. The prizes were simple wreaths, and the expenses incidental to competition were borne by the competitor and his family.32

Forbes has pointed out that both secular and religious factors were influential in the destruction of Greek physical education including the Olympic games. The Romans were very unsympathetic toward Greek sports, and the Stoics and Christians were scornful of physical activity.33

Although the Romans had the capacity and opportunity to produce a widespread development of sports, they never gave themselves to sports,34 and their contributions to sports appear to be negative and comparatively insignificant.

As far as the author has been able to discover there are no indications that during the Dark Ages or the Renaissance, when little value was placed on physical activities

33Forbes, op. cit., p. 261.
34Thomas Woody, Life and Education in Early Societies, p. 673.
of the sports type, any changes or developments were made that influenced later sports developments.

The next significant step in the evolution of modern sports standards seems to be the growth and development of sports in Britain. Savage has mentioned several factors which contributed to the development of outdoor sports on a widespread scale: a deeply ingrained tradition regarding active participation in sports, a mild and damp climate, and dense population centers with little travel required for inter-club games.35

Savage also indicated some of the conditions which have promoted a high level of sportsmanship in British sports: the influence of the private schools, the development of skills through play rather than practice, the stress on playing the game for its own sake, the informality of practice sessions, and the scarcity of paid coaches.36

Because ideal standards are developed through cooperation in informal situations,37 the British sports patterns were conducive to the establishment and acceptance of high sportsmanship standards by the general public.

The mythology of sports which created its heroes and

35 Howard J. Savage, Games and Sports in British Schools and Universities, pp. 5-8.
36 Ibid., pp. 10-1, 31, 38-9, 87-8.
its legends for societies as far back as the earliest civi-
lizations probably has a tendency to elevate the ideals of sports. Frank Merriwell probably had more influence on
the sports morals of his time than any real hero.

Another factor raising the standards of sports ideals was the belief that sports could develop ethical and moral qualities in students. Sports standards could not avoid a certain degree of great expectation from the public in their role as "the great character builder."

The players and spectators have faith in the character and unique quality of sports, but this belief depends on the sacrosanctity concept of sports. In a practical sense this belief may operate to raise the ideal standards of sports. Lerner has stressed that the number of athletes who succumb to bribery is not nearly as significant as the number who do not since the surrounding culture has potential factors conducive to bribery.

The application of ethics to specific sports involves several complex factors. One of these involves the basic

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41 Lerner, op. cit., p. 817.
types of sports. In one type of sports, such as golf and archery, the players compete only by score and are not allowed to interfere with their opponents' play. In another type of sports, such as tennis and volleyball, the players are encouraged within the rules to interfere with their opponents' play but are prohibited from making physical contact. In a third type of sports, such as football and wrestling, physical contact is the primary means for interfering with opponents' play. Ethical codes and problems become more difficult to handle as they advance from competition only by score sports to physical contact interference sports.  

Another factor is the traditional background and social significance of a sport. Sports played primarily on an informal or "small-time" basis, for example volleyball and handball, will not develop the same type of standards as sports in the "big-time" category, for example football and basketball. Also, even within these two classifications similar sports may develop differently because each sport seems to possess an inner characteristic which influences its development.

Bunn has pointed out a recent trend which seems significant to the development of ethics in several major sports. His observation was that as a sport becomes commercialized

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42 Charles W. Kennedy, Sport and Sportsmanship, p. 46.
there is a tendency for the coaches to divorce themselves from the officials. Related to this development is the double contest in football and basketball indicated by Perry. His comment was that in these two sports there is one contest between the two teams and another between each team and the officials to determine to what extent the players can bypass the rules.

Considering some specific ethical practices of various sports, baseball has some unique situations in its ethical code. Bunn has emphasized that "... the very nature of baseball seems to invite and sanction protest, argument, and disagreement on the part of players, coaches, managers, and captains." This concept may stem from the early days of baseball and football when each team brought their own umpire and there was a third official to decide the disputes between the other two.

Unique to baseball is the contrast between the rules of the game and the practical interpretations of these rules, even at the highest levels of performance. One of the most discussed items of early season play in the National

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44 Ralph B. Perry, *Characteristically American*, pp. 20-1.
League for 1963 was the number of balks called, which did not involve a new rule or a new rule interpretation but only a reasonable application of the existing rule.

Riding an opposing player from the players bench or coaching box is an accepted part of baseball, but this practice is prohibited by the rules or the sportsmanship codes of most other sports.

Basketball ethics seem comparatively good for a sport with its social significance, but the frequency of fouling is detrimental to the game. This development goes back to the reforms of 1910 which were designed to cleanup and open up the game. Oswald Tower has emphasized that there is no ethical obligation in basketball to obey the rules if an advantage can be gained by breaking the rules.

The prominence of officials in basketball seems to detract from its ethical development. As a sportswriter has pointed out, grandstanding officials are detrimental to the sportsmanship of the players. It has also been emphasized that officials' calls during games often are so poorly received that the games must be held up until the noise dies down.

47 Alexander M. Weyand, The Cavalcade of Basketball, p. 82.


down enough to continue. The grandstand and "innocent" acts of players called for fouling have not improved its ethical atmosphere.

The ethics of football, from its earliest development in the Eastern colleges, have always seemed to be beyond the rules or only a step inside the rules. Obvious violations of the spirit of the rules have often resulted in specific rules to prohibit these violations. Other violations of the rules have been legalized or virtually ignored except for the most obvious incidents.

The ethics of golf in common play exhibit a strange contrast. The players generally display high ethical standards in their relationships with other players, but the ethical standards for play allow players to break most of the rules with immunity. Also, among the professionals there is a sharp contrast, which in reality is a reverse of the amateur situation. Rules for professional play are rigidly enforced, but their personal ethics allow even the great stars to violate the spirit of the game by splitting playoff purses before the playoff.

Tennis ethics are usually rated high in the sports world, and this development has been related to the lack of officials for most matches. The spirit of fairness which is

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50 Spectator Sportsmanship: How to Improve It, p. 3.
51 Underwood, op. cit., p. 83.
evident from almost all play has been produced by players making all the official decisions during most matches.\textsuperscript{52} The same standards have been achieved in other sports, like golf and handball, where similar situations are prevalent. It also appears that most of the unethical incidents have involved matches in which officials were used.

The high ethical standards of volleyball have been emphasized by Bunn, "Volleyball is one of the few remaining world sports that is absolutely amateur in letter and spirit."\textsuperscript{53} These high standards have been illustrated by the fact that players from intraclass games to national tournament finals have called fouls on themselves.\textsuperscript{54}

Because there are so many conflicts between the ethical standards of the various sports, naturally there have been and will be undesirable transfers from one sport to another. Because team sports have been the most popular and unfortunately because team sports ethics are generally lower than individual or dual sports ethics, the most noticeable change in the last two or three decades has been a gradual drop in the ethical standards of individual and dual sports, especially from the spectator standpoint. Also, massification of players and spectators in these sports has functioned to erode their high standards.

\textsuperscript{52}Bunn, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 108.
\textsuperscript{53}\textit{Ibid.}, p. 119.  \textsuperscript{54}\textit{Ibid.}, p. 130.
Players in the various sports have an obligation to become aware of the ethical practices which pertain to each. It is obvious that the baseball player will need to restrict his normal tendency to ride opponents if he is to be an ethical participant in golf or tennis. It is also apparent that an average basketball player who has become accustomed to testing the officials will be required to adjust his conduct in order to qualify as an ethical volleyball player.

Problems in spectator behavior date back to the first organized sports activities according to sociologist Florence Frederickson, "Cultural research reveals that the vagaries of spectator behavior probably began with the first sports contest ever staged and have continued in various forms since that time."52

It seems ridiculous at this time to anticipate Forest Hills type behavior at Yankee Stadium, but it does not seem unreasonable to expect that Yankee Stadium type behavior will not appear at Forest Hills. It is obvious that the average spectator of popular team sports events will need to make appropriate adjustments in his behavior at individual and dual sports events if his developed concepts of spectator ethics from team sports are not to lower the standards in these other sports.

control by individual institutions and governing bodies indicates that legislation is not the solution to these problems. Cozens and Stumpf stress this point: "The proper conduct of school and college sports must be regarded as a social problem and, like many other social problems, cannot be solved by laws alone." If major problems in sports and athletics are basically social problems, which is a major premise of this study, it should be called to attention that there is no assurance unlimited study and research would have eliminated or even minimized them. Ralph Turner in an article on change in the industrial city emphasized the difficulties involved in solving these problems:

"But to be able to point out social evils—even, in fact, to understand their origin—is not to become adequate to deal with them. For they cannot be dealt with in terms of themselves or even in terms of the institutions which give rise to them."

The social problems of any society are the result of socio-psychological forces which have involved large segments of the population for considerable periods of time. To understand these problems it is essential to have both extensive and intensive knowledge about the social forces which have created them. Marcus L. Plant, in reference to

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Chapter V

AN INTERVIEW-SURVEY ON SPORTS ETHICS
AND SPORTS IMPRESSIONS

Basic principles of ethics, development of ethical standards, problems of conflicting standards and their effects in sports were discussed in the previous chapter. Most of this information was taken from existing, published sources. The results of a survey conducted by the author to evaluate some of the general public's sports ethics and to examine its impressions of several general conditions in sports will be presented and appraised in this chapter.

These sports ethics and general sports impressions were extracted from the results of one hundred interviews with people having an age difference of almost seventy-five years, including a diversity of male and female occupations, and involving residents of California, Nevada, and Oregon from small towns with populations of less than five

1 All interviews were secured through personal and professional contacts by the author and do not represent a statistical random sample.

2 See Appendix B, Table 1.

3 See Appendix B, Tables 2 and 3.
thousand people to cities with populations of more than one hundred and thirty thousand people. These interviews were developed as adaptations of the focused interview, which will be discussed later.

As an introduction to the survey, it seems advisable to consider the validity of interviews as an indication of actual conduct and real emotions. Researchers in the field of social relations do not regard actions as more indicative of true attitudes than words; either words or actions can be disguised or distorted. From a practical standpoint, the elimination of social pressure is the key to the disclosure of real emotions and attitudes.  

The techniques of the focused interview are designed to promote a situation in which the real attitudinal experiences of people will be revealed without regard to their social acceptance. Merton and his associates stress that unbiased recall is essential for effectiveness:

From the beginning, the emphasis is put upon the actual experience of the interviewees—their reactions to the situation. They are being asked not to sit as judges, but to report the experiences which can accumulatively help provide a basis for judgment.  

An interview to be effective in this respect requires

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the interviewer to assume an attitude which demonstrated detachment toward interviewees' responses but which at the same time indicates interest in their responses. The interviewer must avoid any overt expression of reaction to responses but should be able to develop empathy for the interviewees' experiences. Also, rapport can be established with the interviewees by explaining the objectives of the interviews.

Merton and his colleagues have developed four guides to an effective focused interview:

1. **Range.** The interview should enable interviewees to maximize the reported range of evocative elements and patterns in the stimulus situation as well as the range of responses.

2. **Specificity.** The interview should elicit highly specific reports of the aspects of the stimulus situation to which interviewees have responded.

3. **Depth.** The interview should help interviewees to describe the affective, cognitive, and evaluative meanings of the situation and the degree of their involvement in it.

4. **Personal context.** The interview should bring out the attributes and prior experience of interviewees which endow the situation with these distinctive meanings.

Despite the adaptations in standard focused-interview techniques required to secure the types of information sought in this survey, an earnest effort was made during the interviews to follow the first three of these guides.

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The fourth guide, appraisal of personal context, did not seem possible in the survey because the desired variety of sports experiences could not be secured from any one situation and determination of the background of the interviewees for each of the situations would have been unduly time consuming.

McCormick and Francis in a book on methods of behavioral research listed four criteria for a productive interview situation:

> It is very important that the investigator be reasonably assured that all subjects will attach to the questions the meanings he intends.

> In order to insure accurate results, the meanings of the questions must not only be clear and consistent to the subjects, but also the subjects must be able to furnish their information accurately.

> The subject must also be willing to cooperate in giving the information, and anxious to give it correctly.

> The interview should also be brief enough not to tire or irritate the subject.9

The interviews conducted in this survey, in the judgment of the author, were consistent with the criteria listed above. The questions were understood by most interviewees in the prepared interview form, but there was no hesitation in rephrasing or explaining when interviewees indicated through their actions or their answers that there was some

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doubt about the information requested.\textsuperscript{10} Because replies to the questions were restricted to individual attitudes and opinions they should have been reasonably accurate.

The interviewees in this survey were all unpaid volunteers who cooperated fully and seemed to give their replies without hesitation or reluctance. Interviews were completed in approximately thirty minutes or less, and no interviewee outwardly appeared irritated or tired.

Chase and Brunner have pointed out that there are four main sources of trouble in the interview situation: deliberate misstatements, assumption of special roles to please the interviewer, psychological blockages in the interviewees, and honest mistakes.\textsuperscript{11}

From the nature of the interview questions in this survey it seems apparent that honest mistakes should not have been an important factor. A deliberate and conscientious explanation that no predetermined or "right" answers were expected or desired was part of every interview orientation to minimize the assumption of special roles.

The extent to which deliberate misstatements or psychological blockages may have distorted or limited the survey results is almost impossible to analyze or to verify. The

\textsuperscript{10}See Appendix A for the interview form.

\textsuperscript{11}Stuart Chase and Edmund Brunner, \textit{The Proper Study of Mankind}, p. 193.
author attempted to avoid these conditions by establishing rapport and by stressing that objectivity is essential to a survey of this type.

To provide some background for the comprehension and appraisal of this survey a few similar projects in this particular area are reviewed.

A junior high school teacher in Englewood, California, administered a twenty-question multiple choice test on sportsmanship attitudes to almost nine hundred sixth, seventh, and eighth grade students. The results revealed that the sportsmanship attitudes of junior high school students were progressively lower as they advanced in school.\(^{12}\)

A faculty member at Louisiana State University, with the help of graduate students, surveyed over five hundred people through a specific-situation questionnaire of ten items. Three hundred university men, 114 university women, and ninety adult males participated in the survey by approving or rejecting some debatable situations involving sports participants or spectators.\(^{13}\)

Approximately one-third or more of the university men

\(^{12}\)Robert A. McAfee, "Notes and Comments: Sportsmanship Attitudes of Sixth, Seventh, and Eighth Grade Boys," *The Research Quarterly*, XVII (March, 1955), p. 120.

approved with one exception all the questionable practices which were presented. The exception, booing a free thrower of the visiting team while he was shooting, was condoned by slightly less than one-quarter. Fifty per cent of the university males upheld a player illegally taking advantage of a situation in which the game officials would be forced to rule on the legality of the play, 60 per cent accepted rule-breaking when an advantage could be gained through a violation, and 75 per cent sanctioned the use of tactics designed primarily to upset an opponent.

Although some situations on the questionnaires for men and for women were different, the women generally indicated better sportsmanship attitudes for identical situations. Over 50 per cent more women than men approved booing a visiting team free thrower, but only about one-third as many women approved of illegally taking advantage of a situation, and only about two-thirds as many women accepted tactics designed to upset an opponent as part of the game. Seventy-three per cent of the women felt that there is no obligation for a volleyball player to report her own net violation, and more than three out of every five women condoned alumni leaving a game early when their team was hopelessly behind.

The adult men's attitudes in the Louisiana survey were appreciably better than the college men's attitudes. Only about one out of every seven adult males approved of booing a visiting team free thrower, and only one-third of them
condoned the action of a player illegally taking advantage of a situation. Forty-five per cent felt that it was all right to break the rules to gain an advantage, and two-thirds accepted tactics designed to upset an opponent.

Turning now to the interview survey conducted by the author, the interviewees were asked to respond to twenty-three questions. The interviewees were grouped by age, and the age-group distributions were used to record replies when marked differences in the attitudes of the various age groups were detected in the raw data. The age groupings for men were well balanced for a survey of this type, but the groupings for women were disproportionately small in the forties and over-sixty age brackets and comparatively large in the thirties age bracket.

On the first question of the interview, "In the past when you have heard or read the term sportsmanship what were your general ideas about the word?", the men mentioned fair play, courtesy, and equality most frequently. The women regarded fair play, fellowship, and winning and losing well as the three most popular meanings. Combining the replies of both men and women, the most common implications of the term

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14 See Appendix A for the question presentation form as it was organized for the interviews.

15 See Appendix B, Table 4.
sportsmanship were fair play, fellowship, courtesy, and winning and losing well.16

These results are very similar to those of a recent project involving 213 fourth, fifth, and sixth grade pupils to determine to what extent hearing stories about sportsmanship affects concepts of sportsmanship. The most common meanings of sportsmanship for these students were:

Plays by the rules and exhibits fair play; respects the decisions, requests, opinions, and ideas of other people; is a good loser; is even-tempered; respects the emotional and physical feelings of other people; and takes turns and lets others play.17

In both of these studies fellowship was considered one of the important attributes of sportsmanship, particularly by women and children. The results of the studies differ from common usage of the term sportsmanship, according to Webster’s Dictionary, in two basic ways: the dictionary definition does not mention fellowship at all, and the dictionary lists sports skill as a phase of sportsmanship although neither the adults nor the students had this connotation of the term.18

With one exception all interviewees replied yes without

16 See Appendix B, Table 5.


18 Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary, p. 819.
qualification to the second interview question, "Do you feel that sportsmanship is an essential part of sports regardless of the level of play of the players or the importance of the event?" One male interviewee felt that sportsmanship is essential only to amateur sports, but ninety-nine made no such reservations, including twenty-six who made very definite statements. On both a numerical and a percentage basis more men than women had strong convictions.19

Seventy-five per cent of the interviewees who felt qualified to answer question three, "Do you think there is a difference between amateurs and professionals regarding sportsmanship practices?", assumed that there is a difference. Of the sixty-eight who replied that there is a difference eight were definitely convinced, but nine others were uncertain and stated that probably a difference exists. Two men thought that the difference is not great, and twenty-one interviewees presumed that there is no difference. Comparing the men to the women, a greater percentage of men made decisive statements while a greater percentage of women were doubtful.20

Both age and sex were significant in the evaluation of responses to question four, "Do you think there could be justifiably a difference between amateurs and professionals

19 See Appendix B, Table 6.

20 See Appendix B, Table 7.