CORRAN, ROBERT

THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY, PH.D., 1979

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author wishes to express his sincere appreciation to his Committee members, Dr. Edward Coates and Dr. Barbara Nelson for their assistance and evaluation of this study, and to Committee Chairman, Dr. Bruce Bennett, for his interest, encouragement and advice over the past two years.

The assistance of individuals and organizations who furnished information and who responded to the questionnaire is gratefully acknowledged. In particular sincere thanks are extended to the staffs of the Sport Information Resource Centre, the Fitness and Amateur Sport Branch, and the President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports.

On a more personal note the author wishes to express his sincere thanks to his son, Patrick, for bringing his sparkle into the process, and to his wife, Libby, for her continual support and understanding throughout the study. Without her encouragement this venture would not have been possible.
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Chapter I
INTRODUCTION

Since the end of World War II government influence in sport and physical education has increased dramatically. General political and economic conditions and the development of mass media have played a significant role in the strengthening of government-sport ties throughout the world.\(^1\) An advancing technology resulting in greater economic prosperity and increased leisure time has motivated some governments to provide increased sporting and recreational opportunities for their citizens. The efforts and abilities of volunteers in providing these programs have been far exceeded by the demand, often leaving government as the only organization prepared to meet the demand.\(^2\)

The health-related benefits of mass participation in sport and physical education are recognized by many governments as important to both labor productivity and military


preparedness,\textsuperscript{3,4,5} as well as contributing to the overall development of the individual.\textsuperscript{6}

In some nations, sport has achieved a level of political importance, being used to promote a nation's prestige internationally.\textsuperscript{7} This is particularly evident with developing nations. Swanpo has pointed out that sport has had a significant role to play in the struggle of most Asian countries for their independence\textsuperscript{8} and McIntosh has also indicated a keen desire on the part of developing nations to utilize international sport victories as a means of promoting their image and prestige.\textsuperscript{9}

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{5}Marc Lalonde, "National Fitness and Health," \textit{Proceedings of the National Conference on Fitness and Health} (1972), pp. 95-97.
\item \textsuperscript{6}German Olympic Society, loc. cit.
\item \textsuperscript{7}Thomas Bedecki, "Modern Sport as an Instrument of National Policy with Reference to Canada and Selected Countries" (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Ohio State University, 1971).
\item \textsuperscript{8}Sie Swanpo, "Sports and Politics in Asia," \textit{Gymnasion}, XII (Fall, 1975), pp. 34-36.
\item \textsuperscript{9}Peter C. McIntosh, \textit{Sport in Society} (London: C. A. Watts Co., 1971), p. 133.
\end{itemize}
Sport has also been used, and quite extensively, in the promotion of nationalism and patriotism. Canadian Minister of National Health and Welfare, John Munro, expressed this view clearly in stating, "Canadian participation in international competitive events is emerging as an important aspect of a growing spirit of nationhood."  

As well as developing a "spirit of nationhood," sport has been used to rally the masses, to draw them into preferred political and social activities. Sports can easily be manipulated to encourage certain kinds of leader-follower patterns and interaction patterns which the state might consider necessary and proper.  

Thomas also feels that sport and physical education have a definite role in preparing citizens for a productive and worthwhile life with 'productive and worthwhile' being defined individually be each nation.  

Although there is a growing tendency toward greater government involvement in sport and physical education, many people are still critical of such involvement. Horine, while speculating on the future of the Olympics,  

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10Ibid., p. 192.  


felt that as nations recognize the propaganda value of sport, athletes become more important political tools and consequently their status as amateurs becomes more clouded.\textsuperscript{13} The President's Commission on Olympic Sports reported that most international sport federations were opposed to the involvement of national governments in sport, some people believing that such involvement could jeopardize the Olympic eligibility of athletes from those countries.\textsuperscript{14} Willis also attacked government involvement believing that sport and politics are philosophically incompatible, sport expressing fantasy while politics express reality. It is his belief that politics will destroy the true value of sport.\textsuperscript{15} Lenk expressed a similar view that involvement of politics with sport was jeopardizing the true values and aims of the Olympic Games and that the increasing politicization of the Games must be stopped.\textsuperscript{16}

\textsuperscript{13}Lawrence E. Horine, "Future Olympics--to be or not to be?," Gymnasion, IV (Winter, 1964), pp. 11-16.


A more moderate stance was taken by McIntosh. He felt that sport has "... certain characteristics which perhaps impel it more readily than other human activities towards an association with politics," but he also felt that too much interaction of sport and politics is bad for both. 17 "Too much" is never defined by McIntosh however.

A great many more arguments have been presented supporting the involvement of government in sport and physical education than criticizing such involvement. A number of articles and graduate theses have pointed out the positive role of sport in nation building. 18, 19 Poerwosoewardjo in attempting to validate government involvement in sport cited the following:

1. Government alone has the financial resources to develop facilities and programs to meet the needs of the public

2. Government is continuous and permanent, resulting in a continuity of programming and support

3. Government is representative of all people and therefore in the best position to develop basic policies upon which effective recreation services must depend20

Similarly, the German Olympic Committee, being strongly

17 McIntosh, op. cit., p. 190.


19 Sutarman, loc. cit.

20 Poerwosoewardjo, op. cit., p. 85.
committed to mass participation in sport, felt that only government could provide the necessary resources to establish a comprehensive program of sports, physical education, and recreational opportunities for all Germans.\textsuperscript{21} The German plan, known as the "Golden Plan" incorporates the services and powers of local, state, and federal governments.

The United Nations Educational, Social and Cultural Organization, in a recent document, stated that "physical education and sport is a fundamental element of culture and, as such, constitutes a national and international obligation."\textsuperscript{22} The report also says that government has a pre-eminent role to play in any national and international sport programs with international goodwill being a very important goal.\textsuperscript{23}

Other nations have developed specific government-sponsored sport programs in an attempt to positively influence their international goodwill efforts.\textsuperscript{24} The United States, through its State Department and Peace

\textsuperscript{21} German Olympic Society, loc. cit.


\textsuperscript{23} Ibid., p. 15.

\textsuperscript{24} Robert N. Singer, "Sport and International Relations," Quest, XXII (Spring, 1974), pp. 45-51.
Corps, has attempted to use sport to spread international goodwill and to promote understanding among nations. Their efforts have been moderately successful although some of these programs have been criticized by some as political ploys designed to spread U.S. propaganda.²⁵

Regardless of one's philosophical stance on the matter of government involvement in sport, it is obvious that there is a growing world-wide emphasis upon government sponsored sport, physical education, and recreation programs for the masses, and a greater tendency to allocate public funds to support international sporting competitions.²⁶ Van Vliet has termed as "naive" those people who think that there will not be or should not be any political decisions made with regards to sport and recreation, and he calls for greater lobbying efforts on the part of sport and recreation leaders to maximize the benefits available from government.²⁷ This acceptance of government involvement in sport is growing among sport leaders and athletes throughout the world although some who castigate all forms of government support still wield considerable power in national and international sport bodies.

²⁶Bedecki, op. cit., p. 3.
Many of those who oppose government involvement in sport are found in the United States, and it is possibly for this reason that the U.S. has been very slow to develop government supported sport programs. Considering the number of social-welfare programs instituted in the U.S. since 1933, a growing awareness of basic human rights and increasing demands for government to provide for those rights, it is surprising that sport and recreation programs have not come under government control and support to a much greater extent. Although the U.S. educational system provides extensive athletic and physical education opportunities for students, non-students are not afforded the same opportunities. It is with this clientel that government support could be of greatest benefit but opposition to any significant government intervention has been strong enough to retain the status quo.

The United States' neighbor to the north, Canada, with a very similar political, economic, cultural and social background, has embarked on a very different course in the area of government involvement in sport. Since 1961 the Canadian federal government has become increasingly involved in sport and recreation programs. Financial and administrative support by the federal government to sport bodies has been increasing annually and in 1976 a cabinet-level position was created to oversee the government's role in
The efforts of the Canadian government have helped raise the calibre of international teams representing Canada tremendously. Although Canadian athletes failed to win a single gold medal at the Montreal Olympics, the overall performance by the Canadian team far surpassed that of any previous team. Great gains have also been made in promoting mass participation and nationalism through the Canada Games and ParticipAction.

Given the similarities between Canada and the United States and the, at times, pervasive influence of the United States on Canadian culture and thinking, it is curious that such divergent views on the involvement of government in sport could come about. The much larger population of the U.S. (230 million vs. 22 million in Canada) and its more complex sport structure has presented a greater number of innate problems of organization and coordination for U.S. officials and might help explain the slower rate of development in this area in the United States. Also, Canada has not had to contend with power blocs who have a history of antagonism toward one another.

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29 Ibid., p. 2. 30 Ibid.
within its sporting community as has been the case in the U.S. (witness the long-standing feud between the N.C.A.A. and the A.A.U.). This absence of continual strife may have allowed Canadian groups to develop solutions to common problems and to move ahead of United States organizations which could not agree on major issues for fear of losing their own power. A more detailed and objective examination of the government-sport relationship in the two countries is needed, however, if we are to draw any valid conclusions as to the extent of, reasons for, and effectiveness of government involvement in sport and physical education.

It was therefore the intent of this study to describe and compare Canadian and American federal government involvement in sport and physical education and to assess the effectiveness of each system in carrying out their respective mandates of operation in these areas.
STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The purpose of this study was to compare the involvement of the federal governments of Canada and the United States in sport and physical education. A subproblem was to compare the nature of specific government agencies charged with carrying out various sport and physical education and related functions. A second subproblem was to examine and compare the reasons for the respective governments' involvement in sport and physical education. A third subproblem was to compare selected important aspects of sport and physical education in terms of government involvement in these areas. Finally, an evaluation of the effectiveness of Canadian and American federal government involvement was made.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Sport and Physical Education

An all-encompassing definition of sport and physical education is most desirous within the context of this study. Athletics, games, fitness, physical recreation, and out-of-school club programs as well as formal school programs are included although outdoor recreation is excluded.
Involvement

The association with, public endorsement of, financial or administrative support to, or judicial control over a particular phenomena.

Federal Government

That part of the national government recognized judicially and traditionally as holding a mandate to conduct the international affairs of a country.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

1. This study was limited to the countries of Canada and the United States and the years 1960 to 1978.

2. This study was limited to sport and physical education as it pertains to the civilian population. Federal responsibilities in providing and administering sport and physical education programs for members of the armed forces, federal police agencies, and inmates of federal penal institutions were not included.

3. This study was limited to the degree of honesty, reliability, and accuracy of responses exhibited by those government agency officials interviewed.

4. This study was limited by the utilization of the survey technique and its inherent deficiencies to gather data from various government and non-government agencies.
5. This study was limited to the extent of the author's understanding of the United States and Canadian political systems.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE PROBLEM

Literature in the area of government involvement in sport and physical education is dominated by essays and articles dealing with the philosophical, moral, or ethical questions raised by the marriage of sport and government. Few analyses, organizational/structural, historical or comparative are to be found. The history of various aspects of Canadian federal government involvement in sport has been well documented by a number of highly competent and articulate researchers,32,33,34,35 but none of these has been


completed within the past three years, limiting their applicability today. In a 1971 comparative study Broom examined the sport administrative agencies of England and Canada. Since that time a tremendous number of changes have taken place in the Canadian sport structure, changes which make moot many of Broom's conclusions. Other related studies such as Semotiuk's development of a theoretical framework for the analysis of the government role in sport and the application of that framework to Canada must also be reconsidered in light of the changes in Canadian sport in the past ten years.

Similarly, the literature is extremely sparse when considering government involvement in sport in the United States although the President's Commission on Olympic Sports published a very comprehensive report on the topic and included a number of far-reaching recommendations to improve the administration and coordination of amateur sport in the United States. A number of these recommendations


37 Semotiuk, op. cit.

have recently been acted on by Congress including the passing of the Amateur Athletic Act of 1978 and the appropriations bill which gave $16 million to the United States Olympic Committee and might indicate a change in direction for the United States federal government in its attitude toward sport. The already mentioned changes in the Canadian sport structure over the past ten years coupled with increasing federal activity in the area of sport and physical education in the United States and a general lack of study in the area all indicated the need to conduct a comparative analysis of government involvement in sport and physical education in these two neighboring countries. Such a comparative approach might enable American scholars, government officials, and sport leaders to more clearly evaluate the potential for extended U.S. federal government involvement in sport and physical education. The study might also provide the Canadian sport community with a new perspective from which to evaluate its past and present and to project its future.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

This study utilized a descriptive methodology including the four stages of description, analysis, comparison and summary, conclusions and recommendation.

Initially a historical overview of Canadian and American federal government involvement in sport and
physical education was developed to present important influences and events for comparison. Chapter II deals with the period 1900-1960 while Chapter III covers the years between 1960 and 1978. This division, while not resulting in a chronological balance, does permit the comparison of a period of considerable similarity within the two countries followed by a period of greater divergence of opinion and action. In Chapter IV the model to be utilized in comparing the two countries is described and the comparison initiated. The political, legislative, and bureaucratic systems of each country are first outlined. This is followed by an examination, by function and position within the government, of specific departments and agencies having some responsibilities in the area of sport and physical education. The chapter concludes with an analysis of the motivation for the two countries' involvement in sport and physical education. Chapter V includes a comparison of selected areas or programs, felt to be of importance in sport and physical education development. The areas or programs selected include: 1) amateur sport support and competitions, 2) national awards programs, 3) facilities construction and maintenance, 4) technical and advisory services, 5) research and sportsmedicine, 6) sport and physical education for the handicapped, 7) physical education in the schools, 8) leadership development, 9) professional sports, and 10) recent developments.
In addition, an evaluation of the effectiveness of the governments' role is conducted. Chapter VI summarizes the study and presents recommendations for action and further study.

The study employed the following investigative procedures:

1. Library research utilized the sources of the libraries of The Ohio State University, the Sport Information Resource Centre, Ottawa, and the Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.

2. Interviews were held with selected government officials in Canada and the United States. These interviews were used to help determine the administrative and organizational structure of the agencies within both governments which act in the area of sport and physical education.

3. The survey method in which a questionnaire was sent to 100 sport and physical education officials (non-government) in Canada and the U.S. The sample selected represented a cross-section of sports, single and multiple-sport governing bodies, and university athletic departments. A U.S. sample of 49 was selected with 37 responding (77.5 percent) while a Canadian sample of 41 was selected, 35 responding (85 percent). Three questionnaires were returned unanswered, the respondents feeling that the information requested was of a confidential nature. The questionnaire was used to help determine the extent and effectiveness of federal assistance to sport and physical education.
Chapter II

UNITED STATES' AND CANADIAN FEDERAL INVOLVEMENT IN SPORT AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION: 1900-1960

The proximity of Canada to the United States coupled with similar economic, social, and cultural backgrounds, has led to a parallel development in several aspects of life in the two countries. Most frequently influence extended from the U.S northward, rarely from Canada to the United States although this did occur on occasion. This chapter will not attempt to determine whether Canadian federal policies and programs related to sport and physical education influenced, or were influenced by, United States' government actions. Rather the chapter will point out the countries' similarities of response to a number of different influences and conditions including two world wars and a great economic depression.

UNITED STATES

Early Twentieth Century Developments

From the beginning of this century, the U.S. federal government has exercised varying degrees of influence and/or control over sport and physical education. In 1905, after a number of football-related injuries and deaths,
President Teddy Roosevelt summoned the athletic directors of Yale, Harvard, and Princeton to the White House and strongly suggested that they bring some order to intercollegiate athletics in general, and football in particular. This meeting led to the adoption of rules designed to reduce the brutality of the game of football, but more importantly, to the development of greater institutional control over athletics through the Intercollegiate Athletic Association which was founded in 1906.\textsuperscript{1} The Intercollegiate Athletic Association was the forerunner of the National Collegiate Athletic Association, founded in 1910. The power and influence of the N.C.A.A. and its inability to cooperate with the Amateur Athletic Union, the ruling body of most amateur sports, in the selection and training of Olympic and national teams would prove to be a source of considerable distress for the Federal government for many years.

The entrance of the United States into World War I brought to light the fact that approximately 30 percent of all those men eligible for military service were actually unfit for service while 50 percent of all school children

had physical defects which hindered their normal development. This led to a call for a return to military training in the schools by the National Education Association. As a result some high schools replaced physical training with military drill but the disapproval of such practice by Newton D. Baker, then Secretary of War, who advocated vigorous physical training over military drill as preparation for either civil or military usefulness, helped contain the military drill movement.

During the same period P. Claxton, U.S. Commissioner of Education, felt a need for a concerted nation-wide movement to promote and provide for the physical fitness of all. To accomplish this end he called a meeting of national leaders in physical education and recreation in November of 1918 and out of this meeting came the formation of the National Physical Education Service. This Service, funded by 35 private agencies, set up as its objectives the promotion of federal and state legislation requiring health

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4 Ibid.

and physical education in schools, and the development of health and physical education programs through a cooperative effort with the states. While being unsuccessful in getting any federal health and physical education legislation passed, the efforts of N.P.E.S. resulted in many states passing laws requiring physical and health education instruction in schools.

The American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation was also active in promoting federal legislation. In 1940 the Association drafted a bill whose purpose was to implement a national program for health, physical education and recreation in the schools and school camps. The legislation, after introduction to the House by Representative Pius Schwert of New York, died abruptly in committee.

The influence of the Depression on sport and physical education was quite pronounced. Agencies such as the Works Project Administration and the Public Works Administration were established to help offset economic problems faced by Americans by creating jobs, and provided a great number of trained recreation personnel and over $1.5 billion in recreational facilities. In 1935 President Roosevelt established the National Youth Administration to provide public employment

6 "Twentieth Anniversary of the National Physical Education Service of the N.R.A.,” loc. cit.

7 Ibid., p. 426.

8 Mabel Lee and Bruce L. Bennett, "This is Our Heritage," Journal of Health and Physical Education, XXXI (April, 1960), p. 7.2

9 Ibid. 10 Van Dalen, op. cit., p. 496.
and job experience for needy out of school youths and provide part-time employment for college students. By 1940 this program had employed over 21,000 youths in the construction of recreational facilities (41 gymnasias built, 201 repaired, 46 started) while another 11,000 youths had been employed as recreation leaders.\textsuperscript{11} The funds allocated and projects undertaken as part of the economic recovery program of the Federal government did a great deal to encourage the development of sport, physical education, and recreation programs throughout the country as well as providing a great number of much-needed facilities.

American sport and physical education was soon hit by another influence, the Japanese bombing of Pearl Harbor and the U.S. entry into World War II. The second war of this century brought with it an increased concern for the physical fitness of both service personnel and the civilian population alike. A number of agencies and departments were established to develop, promote, and administer physical fitness programs for the American people. One of the first attempts was the "Hale America” program, a national fitness movement conducted through the Office of Civilian Defense. The program, which used volunteer professionals, included games, rhythmics,

aquatics, outdoor activities, conditioning activities, and health instruction and utilized locally available facilities. The High School Victory Corps, the products of a joint Armed Forces--Physical Education Professionals committee, emphasized vigorous conditioning exercises in the high school programs. The program's manual, entitled *Physical Fitness Through Physical Education for the High School Victory Corps* was published and distributed in more than 30 states by the U.S. Office of Education.

On April 14, 1942 the Office of Defense Health and Welfare Services, which was created one year earlier, had a new Division of Physical Fitness added to its responsibilities. This Division was designed to carry out physical fitness programs and establish policies for local schools and communities in the area of fitness and recreation. After a brief existence, the Office of Defense Health and Welfare Services was abolished by Executive Order and its duties, including the Division of Physical Fitness, transferred to the Federal Security Agency. A further Executive Order established the Committee of Physical Fitness in the

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13 Van Dalen, op. cit., p. 484.

Federal Security Agency on April 29, 1943.\textsuperscript{15} The Committee of Physical Fitness promoted fitness programs, provided information and consultative services and acted as an information clearinghouse for the nation. When it was abolished on June 30, 1945, the Committee represented a milestone in that it was the first Federal agency to advocate and practice direct control over physical fitness and related matters.\textsuperscript{16} It has been speculated that had President Roosevelt lived beyond 1945, the Committee on Physical Fitness and the programs which it administered might have expanded and become permanent.\textsuperscript{17}

The Post-War Era

As the war came to a close several attempts were made by Federal legislators to enact a number of physical education, fitness, and recreation bills. In February 1945 Representative Hartley of New Jersey introduced bill HR 2045 to establish a Commission to promote physical fitness.\textsuperscript{18} In December 1945 Representative Weiss of Pennsylvania introduced House Joint Resolution 286 to develop and maintain a national program of fitness for youth. Both

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{15}Donald P. Zingale, "A History of the Involvement of the American Presidency in School and College Physical Education and Sports During the Twentieth Century" (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Ohio State University, 1973), p. 73.
\item \textsuperscript{16}Ibid., p. 76.
\item \textsuperscript{17}Ibid., p. 77.
\item \textsuperscript{18}Ibid., p. 80.
\end{itemize}
pieces of legislation were an attempt to revive the dying Committee on Physical Fitness. However, fear of federal control of a state constitutional right resulted in a speedy dismissal of both these bills.\(^{19}\) In 1946 the School Health and Physical Education Act, which had been designed by the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, was introduced to the House and would have given $20 million annually to the states to improve school fitness programs. The bill was sent to committee hearings where it died. The issue of states' rights and fear of Federal control contributed heavily to the defeat of this bill.\(^{20}\) In the same year Bill S.2070, which would have created a National Advisory Board on Recreation Services to advise and promote assistance to the states to develop community recreation programs was introduced to the Senate. A number of strong arguments were made in support of the bill, in particular by Watson B. Miller, Administrator of the Federal Security Administration, who stated in his testimony before the Senate Subcommittee looking into the bill,

\(^{19}\)Ibid. \(^{20}\)Hackensmith, op. cit., p. 479.
...the stake of the Federal government in the recreation of America is the stake of the Government in the highest welfare of the people themselves. An area of life which so vitally affects for good or for bad the national welfare, as does recreation, is inescapably a major concern of a Government which is fulfilling its obligations in serving the general welfare effectively.21

Most state and municipal governments opposed the bill, as did the powerful National Recreation Association, with states' rights again being a major issue.22 Bill S.2070 never came out of committee.

The next major attempt at legislation was not made until 1951 when Representative Priest of Tennessee introduced bill HR.5853, the School Health Safety and Physical Education Instruction Act. Authored by the Legislative Committee of A.A.H.P.E.R. this bill called for $15 million to be distributed to the states in amounts of $50,000 plus a portion based on the rural population of each state.23 The funds were to assist the states in extending and improving their programs of health, safety, and physical


22Ibid., p. 156.

education but the bill never reached the floor of the House for a vote.\textsuperscript{24}

The last pieces of legislation of this period aimed at assisting the states to improve school fitness and physical education programs came in the summer of 1958. On July 17 Senator McNamara introduced bill S.4145, "to assist the states and territories extend and improve their physical fitness programs in order to provide a larger reservoir of persons fit to meet such national manpower requirements as defense."\textsuperscript{25} The bill went to the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare where it died.\textsuperscript{26} HR.13610, designed to extend health, safety, and physical and fitness education programs, suffered the same fate as the McNamara bill after its introduction to Congress on August 5 by Representative T. MacDonald.\textsuperscript{27}

While being completely unsuccessful in realizing the passage of any legislation calling for aid to state-controlled physical education and recreation, the Congress achieved some success in passing legislation when states' rights issues were not in evidence. Several bills

\begin{flushright}
\textsuperscript{24}Ibid., p. 506. \\
\textsuperscript{26}Ibid. \\
\textsuperscript{27}Ibid., p. 4783.
\end{flushright}
were passed between 1945 and 1960 which reflected the Congress' concern for U.S. participation in the Olympic Games.

On September 21, 1950 Public Law 805 was signed by the President establishing the United States Olympic Association (later amended to the United States Olympic Committee) as a non-profit corporation whose objectives and purposes were:

1. To arouse and maintain the interests of the people of the United States in the Olympic and Pan-American Games

2. To stimulate participation in sports and athletics among all people

3. To have complete control over all matters pertaining to participation in the Olympic or Pan-American Games

4. To select the Olympic team to represent the United States

This Congressional charter was followed by two Congressional proclamations of National Olympic Day, the first on October 16, 1954 and the second on October 19, 1957. These National Olympic Days were designed to focus the attention of the people of the importance of the Olympics and to aid in the fund drives carried out by the

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Olympic Association to finance the transportation and training costs of the U.S. team. Along with these proclamations, the federal government took an active role in trying to secure International Olympic Committee sanction for U.S. cities as Olympic Games sites. In February 1955, through a Senate Joint Resolution, the U.S. Government joined the U.S.O.A. in inviting the International Olympic Committee to hold the 1960 Olympic Summer Games in Detroit, Michigan. This invitation was conveyed to the I.O.C. through the Secretary of State. Later in the same year another Senate Joint Resolution invited the I.O.C. to hold the 1960 Winter Games at Squaw Valley, California. The Squaw Valley invitation was ultimately accepted by the I.O.C. but the Detroit invitation rejected in favor of Rome, Italy. The Detroit rejection led to another invitation, issued by the U.S. Government and the U.S.O.C. through the Secretary of State on April 3, 1959, to hold the 1964 Summer Games in Detroit. Again however, Detroit was rejected by the I.O.C. in favor of Tokyo.

32 Ibid., p. 12.
The selection of Squaw Valley as host site for the 1960 Winter Olympics provided the federal government with the opportunity to provide direct financial aid to the U.S.O.A. On January 13, 1958 President Eisenhower asked Congress for $4 million to aid the Olympic Committee construct an arena to house Games activities and to help defray the costs of Armed Forces personnel working at the Games site.\textsuperscript{34} On May 6, 1958 the House approved a $3.5 million appropriation for the construction of the Games arena\textsuperscript{35} and the Senate followed suit two days later.\textsuperscript{36} This appropriation represented a most significant divergence from past government policy. Previously, only through small amounts of direct aid or, more commonly, through indirect sources had the government supported sport.

The 1959 Pan-American Games which were to be held in Cleveland, Ohio received very different treatment from Congress than did the Squaw Valley Olympics. On April 25, 1956 the city of Cleveland asked the federal government for $5 million to finance a sports arena for the Games.\textsuperscript{37} By July 30 of the same year a Senate Joint Resolution had been passed authorizing the government to appropriate $5

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{34} \textit{New York Times}, January 14, 1958, p. 16.
\item \textsuperscript{35} \textit{New York Times}, May 7, 1958, p. 44.
\item \textsuperscript{36} \textit{New York Times}, May 9, 1958, p. 13.
\item \textsuperscript{37} \textit{New York Times}, April 26, 1956, p. 44.
\end{itemize}
million to Cleveland for this purpose. However, the necessary appropriations legislation was debated for an extended period with a great number of legislators opposed to the bill. The extended delay placed the Cleveland organizers in a precarious position having no funds to proceed with the construction of facilities or other plans for the Games. The President of the Games stated that Cleveland would have to withdraw as host if the funds were not appropriated in short order and that the United States would be disgraced internationally if this in fact did happen.

On April 17, 1957 Cleveland informed the Pan American Games Committee that, because of a lack of funds, it was forced to withdraw as the host city. The Games were eventually hosted by Chicago with the Federal government appropriating $500,000 to the organizing committee to help pay the costs of lodging, food, and transportation for competitors and related personnel. This small appropriation did not pass through Congress easily, being defeated in the Senate twice before gaining approval.

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42 New York Times, February 27, 1959, p. 29.
It is apparent that the Congress, while supportive of the Olympic ideals and anxious to increase American prestige through victories in the Games, was hesitant to provide substantial monies to help achieve these ends. During the period 1945-1960 less than $6.5 million was appropriated by the Congress in direct support of the Olympic and Pan American Games. Congress was presented with many opportunities to provide tangible support to teams competing in these international sporting events but they chose not to do so.

During this time the State Department was very active in promoting international sports exchanges with several countries. In 1954 college track and field coaches were sent to India to organize and conduct clinics for a period of three months. The following year several Olympic athletes including Bob Richards, Harrison Dillard, and Mal Whitfield were sent on international goodwill tours. Avery Brundage, president of the I.O.C. speculated publicly that these tours might jeopardize the amateur eligibility of the athletes involved. No action of any consequence was ever taken however by the I.O.C.

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\(^{44}\) New York Times, March 16, 1955, p. 44.
Buoyed by the early success of these tours the government increased its involvement. In 1956 a supplemental appropriations bill was passed providing $1.5 million for government-aided travel of choral groups and sports projects. The program, as with previous tours, was administered by the State Department. Its success led to a further increase in exchanges between the United States and the U.S.S.R. The two countries signed an agreement on January 27, 1958 to foster greater cultural, technical, educational and athletic exchanges. Included in the agreement was a schedule of exchanges involving U.S. and U.S.S.R. men's and women's basketball and track and field teams, and men's wrestling and weightlifting teams. These exchanges have continued up to the present and represent one of the more significant influences of the Federal government on sport development in the United States. The State Department was more concerned with improving the United States' image abroad through these tours and exchanges than in developing American sport but the increased opportunities to compete with athletes from other countries has undoubtedly had a very positive influence on the development of athletes in the United States.

States. These exchanges also provided the American public with the opportunity to see in person the finest of international athletic competitions.

The U.S. State Department became embroiled in disagreements with the I.O.C. on several occasions during the 1950s. As previously mentioned, Avery Brundage disapproved of the State Department sponsoring tours by U.S. amateur athletes and threatened the athletes involved with loss of their amateur status. The State Department also had occasion to disapprove of I.O.C. rulings, in particular the I.O.C.'s withdrawal of recognition of Nationalist China in 1959. The State Department charged that the I.O.C. had yielded to communist pressure in withdrawing recognition of Nationalist China and expressed the hope that the sporting community, both in the United States and abroad, would recognize the claim of Nationalist China athletes to compete as the representatives of China. The I.O.C. eventually allowed the Nationalist Chinese to compete in the 1960 Games as the Republic of China, this compromise satisfying the State Department.

In 1956 the federal government again became directly involved in physical fitness programming through the

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President's Council on Youth Fitness. This Council grew out of the concern expressed by physical educators and politicians over the findings of a study by Kraus and Weber. The study, which was published in the Journal of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation in December 1953, found European children to be in much better physical condition than American boys and girls. The extremely poor fitness levels of American youth alarmed President Eisenhower resulting in his inviting a number of government leaders, medical researchers, and sports personalities to the White House in June of 1955 to discuss the Kraus-Weber study. The following month, Vice-President Nixon chaired a meeting of twenty representatives from government, education, sports and youth programs which recommended that the President convene a national conference on youth fitness. This conference was eventually held on June 18 and 19, 1956 at Annapolis, Maryland. It was decided that the conference would focus on the five to 17 age range but that the implications for younger children, for older youth, and for adults would not

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be overlooked. Out of the conference came strong recommendations for the President to create a committee of Federal departments which had programs related to youth fitness and for the appointment of a Citizen's Advisory Committee to advise the President and the general public on fitness and related matters. It was stressed by the conference however, that these recommendations were in no way intended to take away the responsibility for recreation and fitness programs from local and state governments.

On July 15, 1956 President Eisenhower created the President's Council on Youth Fitness and the Citizens Advisory Committee on the Fitness of American Youth by Executive Order. The new Council had its role defined as that of a catalyst utilizing personal appearances, publicity, discussion and conferences to stimulate action by existing education, health, sport, and recreation organizations. The Council was warned by Vice-President Nixon to avoid imposing "a single straightjacket program" of physical fitness on the country, such being characteristic of the communist

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53 President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports, op. cit., p. 2.
54 Ibid.
states in Europe.\textsuperscript{55} Education of the people about fitness and promotion of a more vigorous lifestyle for youth were to be the mandate of the Council.

Whether the early Council carried out its responsibilities in an effective manner is somewhat debatable. A survey by \textit{Sports Illustrated} in 1958 concluded that the Council had provided "disappointingly little specific guidance and less leadership toward direct action"\textsuperscript{56} and warned that unless the Council provided a plan for concrete action, it would lose the chance to exploit the enthusiasm of the public toward fitness.\textsuperscript{57} The shotgun approach to solving the fitness problem taken by the Council would remain a problem until the Kennedy Administration but the roots of a continuing federal program of sport and fitness had been laid and would be given the opportunity to grow in the coming years.

\textsuperscript{57} Ibid., p. 46.
The First Half Century

While the development of strong centralized government and "arms-length" agencies to provide support and direction for amateur sport, physical education, and recreation in Canada has occurred essentially since 1961 with the passage of Bill C-131, the initial incursions by the federal government into the area of sport and physical education happened many years earlier. Through a low profile approach, the federal government has been providing direct financial grants to recreation and sport groups such as the Boy Scouts and the British Empire Games Committee for many years along with indirect tax concessions and cost-sharing grants. The Canadian military, through the Strathcona Trust, held a considerable influence over the conduct and development of physical education in the schools from 1908, its year of inception, through to the 1950s.

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60 Van Vliet, op. cit., p. 219. 61 Ibid., p. 5.
The program was an agreement between the Department of Militia and the provincial Departments of Education in which Trust funds were provided to cover the costs of curriculum guides and for physical education teacher training. A specified curriculum of physical training, riflery, and drill was determined by the administrators of the Trust and schools were required to organize a cadet corps. Instructors were provided and paid by the Army. Although being very military-oriented and confining in scope, the Strathcona Trust did represent a beginning in providing trained personnel for the growing number of school physical education programs.

In 1937, with the economic catastrophe of the Depression bearing down on it, the federal government passed the Youth Training Programme to train the nation's youth for suitable employment and to provide job opportunities. Officials of the program quickly became dissatisfied with the productivity of the trainees and decided that a program of fitness activities and sports

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63 Van Vliet, loc. cit.

64 West, loc. cit.

65 Ibid. p. 32.
was needed in conjunction with the job training. As a result, the available funds were increased from one million dollars per year to 4.5 million dollars over three years and specific funds were set aside for fitness and recreation.

The program was a shared-cost venture between the provincial and federal governments with the federal government prohibited from providing more than 50 percent of the total funds required. The most successful of the provincial programs were those in Alberta and British Columbia, both of them surviving the federal program and flourishing until 1943 when the National Physical Fitness Act was passed.

The Youth Training Program was terminated in 1942 but was replaced by the Vocational Training Coordination Act which carried on all of the former activities including physical training and recreation until March 31, 1944.

The poor fitness levels of Canadian servicemen prompted the federal legislators to pass the National Physical Fitness Act in 1943. Its intent was, . . . to promote the physical fitness of the people of Canada by:

a) Assisting in the extension of physical education in all educational and other establishments

b) Encouraging, developing and correlating all activities relating to physical development of the people through sports, athletics and other similar pursuits

66 Van Vliet, op. cit., p. 238.
67 West, op. cit., p. 53.
68 Van Vliet, loc. cit.
c) Training teachers, lecturers and instructors in the principles of physical education and physical fitness

d) Organizing activities designed to promote physical fitness and to provide facilities therefore; and

e) Cooperating with organizations engaged in the development of physical fitness and in the amelioration of physical defects through physical exercise.¹⁹

This Act established the National Council on Physical Fitness to promote and administer the Act. Major Ian Eisenhardt was appointed the first National Director of the Act on February 15, 1944 and led the program through the remainder of the war years.⁷⁰ A major reorganization of the Department of Pensions and Health was undertaken in 1945 when it became the Department of Health and Welfare with the National Council on Physical Fitness moving under the direction of the Welfare Branch.⁷¹

Eisenhardt attempted to move his department into a national sport coordination role but the sport governing bodies and general public were very much opposed to this intrusion by government.⁷² One newspaper editorial likened

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⁷¹ West, op. cit., p. 37.

the plan to Hitler's youth movements setting off an anti-
Eisenhardt furor.73

The National Physical Fitness Act was a joint federal-provincial agreement with each province allowed to develop its own program using federal funds. A fund of $250,000 was made available to the provinces on a matching-grant basis with a per capita quota for each province. Some provinces concentrated on recreation for post-school youth and adults and others concentrated their efforts on school physical education programs. In addition, some provinces devoted great efforts to establish physical education degree programs.74

In 1946 another reorganization saw the Division of Fitness within the Department of Health and Welfare established with the very dynamic Dr. Doris Plewes being appointed assistant to the National Director. Dr. Plewes' efforts were directed at promoting fitness and related programs throughout the country and much was accomplished in this area between 1946 and 1948 with the publication of a series of pamphlets on fitness and posture.75 Plewes also brought the federal government into the area of recreation

73Leader Post Regina, February 21, 1945.
74Gear, op. cit., p. 19.
leadership training for a brief period when, with the cooperation of the Departments of Veterans Affairs and Labour, she established the Veterans Training Course for Recreation Leaders in Halifax in 1946. The course was designed to train World War II veterans as recreation leaders but was discontinued in 1947, the program not being considered economically feasible. Another attempt was made by the federal government to support recreation leader training in 1952 when the Fitness Council allocated $5,000 to the University of British Columbia to establish a diploma course in public recreation. The first class entered in September of 1952 and 18 men and 11 women completed the first year. Funds were withdrawn prior to the 1953-1954 term and the program cancelled. It is speculated that this withdrawal of funds centred around the on-going dispute between the Council and the Department. This represented the last connection between the federal government and recreation leadership training until after Bill C-131 was passed in 1961.

After the initial efforts in 1945 to have the Fitness Division serve as the link between government and

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77 Ibid.
amateur sport failed due to tremendous public opposition, the Division, again with Dr. Plewes as the driving force, was successful in bringing all of the national sport governing bodies together in Ottawa in 1949 to discuss problems and other questions of interest. The Fitness Division was not an active participant but rather served only as sponsor of the conference. Of greatest urgency to the sport governing bodies were the problems surrounding the definition of an "amateur" athlete. The Canadian Amateur Status Committee was created during the Conference to study the problems and make recommendations. This Conference also led to the formation of the Canadian Sports Advisory Council in 1951. It was established to give the various sports organizations in Canada a forum for discussion and presentation of ideas. The Canadian Sports Advisory Council was not related in any way to the federal government but would later exert considerable influence on the government in the development of the 1961 Fitness and Amateur Sport Act.

Between 1946 and 1950 the relationship between the National Council on Physical Fitness and the Deputy Minister of Health and Welfare deteriorated steadily due to the

79 Ibid. 80 Sawula, op. cit., p. 52.
ambiguous terms of reference given to the Council by the Act. Jurisdictional battles between the Council and the Ministry were almost continual and proposals were often met with disinterest.\textsuperscript{81} In 1950, in an attempt to clarify some of the ambiguities of the legal powers, the Council on Physical Fitness took their case to the Department of Justice. The Justice Department confirmed, among other things, that the National Council on Physical Fitness had executive power and could assume the concomitant responsibilities of such power.\textsuperscript{82} However, the Department of Health and Welfare continued to cut appropriations to the Council leaving it without funds to conduct its program. The eventual result was the death of the Council. The Council met for the last time in December of 1952\textsuperscript{83} and the Act was repealed on June 26, 1954 by Bill 475.

The Act did bring about many worthwhile results however. The per capita quota basis of funds distribution enabled many of the smaller, less wealthy provinces to establish fitness and recreation programs suited to their individual needs.\textsuperscript{84} Also, Federally-employed area

\textsuperscript{81} West, op. cit., p. 32. \textsuperscript{82} Ibid., p. 40
\textsuperscript{83} Ibid., p. 41.
representatives provided much-needed technical, instructional, and organizational assistance to provincial and private agencies across the country. 85

Toward a New Act

The federal government continued its involvement with sport and fitness after the repeal of the 1943 Act through the promotion of the Air Force 5BX Plan. The Kraus-Weber report of 1953 stimulated concern for the fitness of Canadian youth and Dr. Plewes, acting as a consultant, helped direct the Royal Canadian Air Force in its development and promotion of the 5BX Plan. Many Canadians, both young and old, participated in this plan which emphasized daily calisthenics requiring no equipment and little time. 86 The Departments of Health and Welfare, and National Defense, in cooperation with C.A.H.P.E.R., published and distributed a series of soccer, volleyball, and hockey coaching manuals. 87 The federal government involved itself in a cost-sharing agreement with the British Columbia provincial and Vancouver municipal governments to fund the 1954 British Commonwealth Games. The federal government's share was $200,000. 88 In addition, the Department of National

85 Ibid. 86 Spicer, op. cit., p. 50.
87 Ibid. 88 Baka, loc. cit.
Defense provided for the security and communications needs of the 1954 Games.\textsuperscript{89}

The Labor Department instituted the Municipal Winter Works Program in the late 1950s which provided employment for thousands of men through the construction of community rinks, swimming pools, stadia, and playing fields.\textsuperscript{90} This program was conducted with the cooperation of federal, provincial, and municipal governments and made an important contribution to the sport and physical education facility needs of Canada during that period.

During the late 1950s a number of sport and fitness groups presented briefs to Parliament proposing specific changes to improve the Canadian athletic scene.\textsuperscript{91} One such report, presented to the C.A.H.P.E.R. Convention in Edmonton in 1959, recommended that the federal government take the following steps:

1. Establish a council to oversee the development of athletics in Canada. This council would operate separately from any government department but would have the endorsement of the government

2. Establish a government fund to support council activities

\textsuperscript{89}Ibid., p. 10.


\textsuperscript{91}Gear, op. cit., p. 60.
3. Authorize the Department of Defense to transport athletes to competitions abroad free of charge

4. Remove tariff restrictions on imports of athletic equipment

5. Build an eastern and a western site to house and train coaches and athletes

However many people felt the greatest single stimulus to the development of a new fitness Act came from a speech made by the Duke of Edinburgh. In this address to the Canadian Medical Association in June of 1959, the Duke laid the blame for the poor fitness levels of Canadians at the feet of the medical profession and challenged them to take positive steps to improve the situation. This address was widely publicized and focused a great deal of public attention on the problem. Much of the material used by the Duke in this speech had been given to him by Department of Health and Welfare personnel who wished to use the respect and charisma he commanded to gain maximum publicity and support for their ideas.

Responding to the Duke's challenge, M. B. Dymond, an Ontario cabinet minister, called for life-long sport

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and recreation programs which would improve the physical fitness levels of all Canadians. He felt that only the government could provide the necessary support and administrative abilities necessary to operate such programs. Coupled with the concern and well-prepared briefs submitted by the Canadian Sports Advisory Council to Parliament, these forces began to direct the government toward new legislation which would be enacted in 1961.

SUMMARY

The period 1900-1960 shows a marked similarity in the histories of the American and Canadian federal governments' involvement in sport and physical education. Some divergence of opinion and action occurred but the pattern of parallel influences and outcomes holds firm. The early 1900s showed an emphasis on military training and drill in both countries although the Canadian interest in the area surpassed that of the United States. This period of military emphasis was followed by the influence of the depression, both nations developing almost identical programs of vocational training and recreation for unemployed youth. The poor fitness levels of servicemen in World War II rekindled the physical training fires, Canada implementing the National Physical Fitness Act and the United States a

series of programs such as "Hale America" and the High School Victory Corps. Following the war, interest in the area waned in the United States and the programs and agencies to administer them were abolished. Canada retained the National Physical Fitness Act for a few years but it too was repealed in 1954. The Korean War and the Kraus-Weber studies of 1953 again focused public attention on the poor physical fitness levels of North Americans. The United States responded quickly creating the President's Council on Youth Fitness in 1956 to help overcome the problem while Canada was slower to act, not passing the Fitness and Amateur Sport Act until 1961.

Another area of similarity was the strong opposition of the citizenry against involvement in amateur sport by the respective federal governments. Concern for and administration of physical fitness programs was considered a legitimate mandate of these federal governments but not so sport. Its place remained as one independent from politics and government. Both countries did contribute however some funds to assist Olympic, Pan-American and British Commonwealth Games teams. The Canadian attitude toward federal government involvement in sport would change considerably in the 1960s moving further from the American view which remained firm through to 1978.

A note of dissimilarity is found in the legal foundation of the various agencies and programs created in
Canada and the U.S. during this period. In most instances in the United States, the agencies created and the programs they administered did not have Congressional legislation behind them. A tremendous number of bills to support various aspects of sport and physical education were introduced in both the House and Senate but they were all rejected by the legislators, with states'-rights issues playing a dominant role in securing the defeat of these bills. This left the Executive Order as the only available constitutional tool to fulfil various physical education and sport needs. The tentative nature of the Executive Order is reflected in the rapidity with which programs and agencies were created and abolished during the period. Canada, on the other hand, used the legislative process exclusively in developing federal involvement in sport and physical education. This process, cautious as it is, provided greater stability for the agencies created and allowed for more coordinated planning among federal agencies.

Finally, both governments failed to direct their planning and implementation efforts to the avoidance of problems of the future. Rather, all energies were spent dashing around "putting out fires," trying to correct problems already deeply rooted in the nation. Such firefighting tactics were too ineffective and short lived to satisfy the sport and physical education needs of these
countries. Change was needed and hopefully the next two decades would provide for that change.
Chapter III
UNITED STATES' AND CANADIAN FEDERAL INVOLVEMENT IN SPORT AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION: 1960-1978

The previous chapter pointed out the similarities in development of Canadian and American federal government involvement in sport and physical education up to 1960. Following this however, the two countries grew in different directions with regards to the government role in sport. This chapter will trace events and influences which directed the two countries onto divergent paths, the U.S. seeking slow, cautious solutions to individual and specific issues while Canada sought a more all-encompassing approach. Some of the problems associated with each of these approaches will also be discussed.

UNITED STATES

1960-1969: Years of Growth and Turmoil

Newly-elected President John Kennedy wasted little time in making the American public aware of his attitude toward physical fitness and the importance of physical fitness in the growth of the nation. In a Sports Illustrated article which he authored, the President stated,
The physical vigor of our citizens is one of America's most precious resources. If we waste or neglect this resource, if we allow it to dwindle and grow soft then we will destroy much of our ability to meet the great and vital challenges which confront our people. We will be unable to realize our full potential.\(^1\)

The President went on to outline the priorities of his Administration in the area of physical fitness and included:

1. Establishing a White House Committee on Health and Fitness to formulate and carry out a program to improve the physical condition of the nation

2. Making physical fitness of American youth the direct responsibility of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

3. Inviting the governor of each state to attend an annual National Youth Fitness Congress

4. Making it clearly understood through the President and all departments of Government that the promotion of sports participation and physical fitness is a basic and continuing policy of the United States\(^2\)

On February 21, 1961 the President's Conference on Physical Fitness of Youth was held in Washington, D.C. with President Kennedy calling for a "national renewal of vigor and vitality."\(^3\) Out of this conference came four specific recommendations that:

1. The Council staff be expanded

2. The Council budget be increased


\(^2\)Ibid., p. 17.

\(^3\)President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports, "A Brief History" mimeo, p. 2.
3. The Council seek to enlist the assistance of the communications media

4. The Council develop and promote specific solutions to identified fitness problems

With these recommendations and the enthusiastic support of the President, the Council began to attack the problem of the "Soft American."

In the July 16, 1962 edition of Sports Illustrated, President Kennedy presented a progress report to the American people on the Council's activities over the previous 18 months. In it Kennedy reported the following:

1. The reorganization of the Council and its placement under a Special Presidential Consultant, Bud Wilkinson. Mr. Wilkinson, football coach and Athletic Director at Oklahoma University, provided the leadership to enable the Council to develop the basic concepts for school fitness programs in cooperation with school and medical organizations.

2. The initiation of pilot fitness projects with several schools involving over 200,000 students in five states

3. The development of a nationwide campaign to alert people about the need for fitness and how to get it. This was accomplished through the cooperation of the media and civic organizations

4. The planning for a wide range of fitness, recreation, and health activities for college students and adults.

The President concluded the report by stating that the Federal government would continue to focus on the problem

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4 Ibid.

of physical fitness but that the ultimate responsibility must rest with the local and state governments.\textsuperscript{6}

On January 9, 1963 the Council on Youth Fitness was abolished and replaced by the President's Council on Physical Fitness under the chairmanship of the Secretary of Welfare.\textsuperscript{7} The new Council's responsibilities were expanded to include the areas of adult fitness, community recreation, and related fields. This marked the first program to include adult fitness programs in its mandate since the National Committee on Physical Fitness was abolished in 1945.

An assassin's bullet ended President Kennedy's life on November 25, 1963 but his successor, Lyndon Johnson, carried on the programs instituted under Kennedy's leadership. On December 11, 1965 President Johnson announced the implementation of the Presidential Physical Fitness Awards Program. This program, for children aged 10-17, and consisting of a battery of seven tests of strength and stamina, was developed by the A.A.H.P.E.R. and was to be administered by the President's Special Consultant, Stan Musial.\textsuperscript{8} This awards program fulfilled President

\textsuperscript{6}Ibid., p. 14.


\textsuperscript{8}New York Times, December 12, 1965, p. 78.
Kennedy's 1961 call for the use of valid testing to more accurately measure the progress of school children in physical fitness programs.\(^9\)

While the Council had instituted a number of successful programs and had focused the attention of a great number of people on the fitness problem in the United States, there were still serious problems to be dealt with after 12 years of Government involvement in the area. President Johnson, in an address to Congress, pointed out a few of these problems. They included:

1. The poor scores on strength and stamina test-items by American children as compared to those of European children

2. A lack of any fitness program for seven million school children and sub-par programs for another 32 million

3. Only 50 percent of all college students could meet minimum fitness standards\(^10\)

To help overcome these problems Johnson established the President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports to be chaired by the Vice President. The new Council was to expand opportunities to engage in exercise, active recreation, and sports. Captain James Lovell, who replaced Stan Musial in 1967, was retained as Special Consultant and under his leadership the Council soon developed a day camp sports program for ghetto youths. This program,


called the National Summer Youth Sports Program, called for a minimum of two hours sports activity and instruction per day, four days per week, for a period of five weeks. The prime target of the program was inner-city youth who had extremely limited availability of sports facilities and opportunities during the summer months.\textsuperscript{11} Over 32,000 youths in 54 cities took part during 1969.\textsuperscript{12} The National Collegiate Athletic Association and its member institutions provided the use of facilities to the program and administered the program for the Department of Health, Education and Welfare at a cost of three million dollars.\textsuperscript{13} This program would continue to flourish as would other Council programs but physical fitness concerns by no means overshadowed other government involvement in sport and physical education during the 1960s.

A great deal of public and legislative attention was directed at the on-going N.C.A.A.-A.A.U. feud and its negative influence on the development of amateur athletics in the United States. The two organizations had agreed to a truce in 1945 and it remained in effect until April of 1960 when the N.C.A.A. decided to suspend the so-called Articles of Alliance. The reasons for the N.C.A.A. action

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textsuperscript{11}New York Times, March 18, 1969, p. 117.
  \item \textsuperscript{12}New York Times, June 15, 1969, p. 49.
  \item \textsuperscript{13}Ibid.
\end{itemize}
include:

1. The dictatorial attitude of the A.A.U. in establishing sport policies

2. The ignoring of members complaints by the A.A.U

3. The A.A.U.'s neglect of any form of sport research

4. The failure of the A.A.U. to correspond with certain countries regarding proposed international meets and exchange programs

5. The poor management and incompetent officiating of A.A.U.-run track and field meets

With no agreement in sight and concern mounting over the ability of the 1964 U.S. Olympic team to compete with the Russians, Attorney-General Robert Kennedy met with officials of the N.C.A.A., U.S.O.C., A.A.U., and the State Department on October 26 and 27, 1962 in an effort to bring the dispute to an end. A plan was accepted in principle at that meeting subject to ratification by the respective governing boards. The A.A.U. altered the agreement however, before presenting it to the membership for ratification. The N.C.A.A. membership ratified the original version of the agreement leaving the disputants with an agreement uncommon to each!


This led President Kennedy to ask the two parties to submit their dispute to an arbitration panel. Both parties accepted the President's suggestion and General Douglas MacArthur was appointed by the President to arbitrate the dispute. Again an agreement was reached but again it was not fully implemented as both parties interpreted the agreement to suit their own best interests in the event that the President, following the 1964 Olympic Games, deemed it necessary to implement the final recommendation of MacArthur's Plan. This recommended that the President call an athletic congress to devise a permanent reorganization of amateur athletics so that a united effort might be undertaken to present the most highly skilled athletic teams to the international sports arena.

Following the 1964 Olympics, President Johnson did not call an athletic congress but the Senate Commerce Committee began an investigation into the dispute. Senator Warren Magnuson, chairman of the committee, strongly criticized the N.C.A.A. and the A.A.U. calling the feud childish and a disgrace to the United States. He urged

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17 Flath, op. cit., p. 181.
the committee to "take whatever action is necessary to prevent a strangling of athletic freedom." On August 17, the day after the Senate Commerce Committee began its hearings to determine if legislation was needed to settle this dispute, Representative Robert Sweeney introduced legislation in the House to amend the U.S.O.C. constitution and allow that organization to mediate any disputes such as the one between the N.C.A.A. and the A.A.U. The bill was sent to the House Judiciary Committee for hearings but never emerged from those hearings.

On September 21, 1965, based on the hearings of the Commerce Committee, the Senate passed a resolution authorizing the Vice President to appoint an arbitration board to settle the dispute. Vice President Humphrey selected Theodore Kheel of New York City to chair the five man board. A moratorium in the dispute was declared until the arbitration board reached a decision. Early meetings between the disputants and the arbitration board appeared to be moving toward a settlement but in April of 1967, with both sides now dragging their heels, Senator James

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19 Ibid.
Pearson introduced legislation calling for the formation of a private corporation under a federal charter to be the policy-making body of track and field. The N.C.A.A. and its track and field federation, the United States Track and Field Federation, were very supportive of this legislation feeling that such an overseeing organization could more effectively manage track and field affairs. The A.A.U., on the other hand, was very much opposed to the proposed legislation. Regardless of the support of this legislation by the N.C.A.A., it, along with two accompanying bills also introduced by Senator Pearson, died in committee.

Following a period of stalemate in the dispute, Senator Magnuson called for the arbitration board and the other parties involved to appear before the Senate Commerce Committee. At this meeting Theodore Kheel told the Committee that a solution was very close at hand, but it was another six months before the arbitration board made a ruling. On February 1, 1968 the Sports Arbitration

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Board ruled that the A.A.U. would continue as the ruling body of track and field but that the N.C.A.A. sponsored United States Track and Field Federation could run open meets if it applied to the A.A.U. for sanctioning, sanctioning which the A.A.U. must automatically provide. The agreement was to be binding for a period of five years.\textsuperscript{28} However, the U.S.T.F.F. rejected the ruling on April 3, 1968 with the N.C.A.A. feeling that the resolution under which the Sports Arbitration Board operated to have no legal authority, and without public law or Congressional act behind it.\textsuperscript{29} With the rejection of the Board's settlement the split between the N.C.A.A. and the A.A.U. grew wider, culminating in the N.C.A.A.'s withdrawal from the U.S.O.C. completely in 1972. The Sports Arbitration Board, after 28 months in existence, was dissolved without ever having fulfilled its mandate. The 1970s would see several further attempts to legislate an end to the dispute, or to deal with specific problems created by the dispute, but these too would meet with less than shining success as had the previous efforts.

While other Federal attempts at involvement in sport and physical education were less than completely successful

\footnote{\textsuperscript{28}New York Times, February 2, 1968, p. 40.}

\footnote{\textsuperscript{29}Proceedings of the 62nd Annual Convention of the N.C.A.A., p. 40.}
during the decade, the same cannot be said of the State Department's program of sports exchanges with foreign countries. Although the program started in the early 1950s it had reached such stature by 1963 that President Kennedy created the Interagency Committee on International Athletics.  

The function of this committee was:

1. To provide continuing attention to athletic problems at the staff level in order to supplement the attention of top level officials which is, of necessity, intermittent and spasmodic.

2. To coordinate the interests and activities of its member agencies--State, Defense, Interior, Justice, President's Council on Physical Fitness, Peace Corps, and the U.S. Information Service.

3. To act as a clearinghouse for the exchange and review of sports information of special interest to Government agencies and sports organizations.

4. To make reports and recommendations to the President and the Secretary of State as appropriate.

President Kennedy, in justifying the creation of the new committee said, "it is vital that the United States be constantly informed concerning all events, activities, and conditions that might have a potential effect on this country's foreign relations."

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30 Zingale, op. cit., p. 119.


Previous to the creation of the Interagency Committee on International Athletics, Senator Stuart Symington had urged the State Department to send a greater number of athletic goodwill ambassadors abroad to win friends for the United States,\textsuperscript{33} and send more they did. The State Department organized a great number of sports exchanges during this period as did the People-to-People Sports Committee. This Committee, a private, non-profit foundation created by President Eisenhower in 1956, pursued many of the same goals of the State Department through sports exchanges. The federal government did not support the People-to-People Sports Committee directly but it was provided with free and extraordinary services by the Foreign Service to help carry out various projects.\textsuperscript{34}

It was becoming quite clear that the United States was becoming less hesitant to use athletic and sport to serve their international purposes. Exchanges and tours which many believed were highly successful in enhancing the U.S. image abroad were supported enthusiastically and financially by the federal government but domestic competitions and programs were left to struggle under the rule of the fragmented amateur athletic governing bodies. Fear of direct government involvement in sport bringing


about disqualification of U.S. athletes from Olympic competition may have kept the federal government at a distance but this is unlikely. The I.O.C. issued no such threat until 1968, long after the non-involvement policy of the Federal government had been established. Also, several other I.O.C. members including England, Canada, France, and Russia had already embarked on programs of direct government support for amateur athletics without fear of I.O.C. reprisals. Antiquated attitudes and an extremely narrow view of the concept of government support of sport are more probable causes.

During the 1960s the federal government continued its support of U.S.O.C. bids to hold the Olympic Games in United States cities. On May 23, 1963, Senator Keating introduced a resolution calling for the United States to invite the I.O.C. to hold the 1968 Winter Games in Lake Placid, New York. This Joint Resolution was passed on August 12, 1963 and was followed by a second Joint Resolution, passed on September 16 which expressed sincere hope that the Olympic Games will be held in the United States in 1968 and pledged continuing support of the

principle on which the Olympic Games were founded. Both of these resolutions were forwarded to the I.O.C. through the Secretary of State.

In October of 1963, President Kennedy appealed to the I.O.C. through a promotional film to select Detroit as the site for the 1968 Summer Games. The film was shown at the I.O.C. meeting in West Germany convened to decide on the 1968 host city. Neither the Detroit nor Lake Placid bids were successful but the American Bicentennial Commission, a Congressional created and funded agency, continued federal support of the Olympics when it proposed Los Angeles and Denver as sites for the 1976 Summer and Winter Olympics, respectively. Again, neither of these cities would host the Games but this was not because of a lack of promotion by the federal government.

In those actions involving professional sports, Congress passed amendments to the Sherman anti-trust laws allowing professional teams to enter into collective television contracts but protected college football attendance by banning professional football telecasts between six o'clock Friday evening through to midnight Saturday.

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38 Ibid., p. 156.
within a 75 mile radius of any previously-announced college game. In 1966 the National Football League and American Football League joint agreement, centering on the creation of a championship game, common draft and schedule, and equal division of television revenues, was also exempted from anti-trust action by Congress. These exemptions placed professional sports, especially football, on a much firmer economic foundation and provided a tremendous impetus to the rapid growth and expansion of professional sports during the next ten years.

Congress was wary of the influence of the underworld in both professional and amateur sports and as a result passed Public Law 88-316, a law "prohibiting schemes in interstate or foreign commerce to influence by bribery sporting contests." This law, while directed at professional sports specifically included amateur sport in an attempt to avoid any future scandal such as occurred in college basketball during the early 1950s.

While all of the previously mentioned legislation and Congressional action, federal programs, and Executive Orders played roles of variable importance in the conduct of

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amateur sport and physical education, they certainly are no more important than a number of Federal Acts passed having an indirect but extremely important link to sport and physical education. Included are the Higher Education Facilities Act of 1963 which provided federal funds for the construction of college athletic facilities, the National Defense Education Act and Title IV of the Civil Rights Act. The 1965 Higher Education Act and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 provided federal funds to develop physical education and recreation programs. President Johnson's "War on Poverty" gave considerable support to the provision of recreation and related services for economically disadvantaged urban populations. The Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 created a number of programs such as the Job Corps, the Neighborhood Youth Corps, and Community Action Programs, all of which had athletic, physical education, or physical recreation components. The 1965 Housing and Urban Development Act included provisions for federal support of construction of playgrounds, community centers and other athletic and

44 Zingale, op. cit., p. 125.
45 President's Council on Physical Fitness Newsletter, no date given, p. 2.
sports facilities. Several federal departments became active in the recreation field during the 1960s. The 1966 Park and Recreation Yearbook reported that in 1961 there were 13 federal agencies involved in the field but by 1966 the number had grown to 72 federal agencies including nine cabinet-level departments and three Presidential committees. Although the greater majority of programs and funds appropriated for these 72 agencies were concerned with outdoor recreation and the development/maintenance of National Parks, Wildlife Preserves, historic sites, etc., sport and physical education programs enjoyed considerable indirect support through these programs.

1970-1978: Many Problems--Few Solutions

The 1970s saw the Federal government become increasingly involved in sport and physical education with a tremendous number of bills being introduced to Congress, hearings and investigations being held to more closely define problems, and a substantial amount of legislation being enacted which directly regulated or controlled some aspect of sport and physical education.

The most concerted efforts of the government were directed at finding a solution to the bitter infighting

47 Ibid.
among the national sport governing bodies and umbrella organizations such as the U.S.O.C., the A.A.U., and the N.C.A.A. The prime combatants had been the A.A.U. and the N.C.A.A., their dispute having already been mediated by several Presidential appointees to no avail. Sensing the futility of mediation, and fearing loss of international athletic prestige, legislators introduced a variety of bills to end this dispute and create a more coordinated athletic organizational structure in the United States. The first of these bills introduced during the 1970s was co-sponsored by Senators Gravel and Thurmond and called for the creation of a National Amateur Sports Foundation to fund sports facilities and training programs and to develop greater cooperation among existing sports organizations. This was followed by Senate bill S.1018, sponsored by Senator Tunney, and called for the President to appoint a nine member private commission to review all aspects of U.S.O.C. policy and submit a report to Congress and the President no later than August 1, 1974. The report was to recommend legislation to best prepare the U.S. team for the 1976 Olympic Games. The three major thrusts of this bill


which was designated as the Amateur Athletic Act of 1973 were:

1. The creation of a national sports foundation to help fund amateur athletics

2. The creation of a U.S. Sports Board which would issue charters to existing and newly created sports organizations

3. The establishing of a commission to review the structure and functioning of the U.S.O.C.  

This bill met a tremendous amount of opposition from the A.A.U. and the N.C.A.A., both of which lobbied very hard against the bill. Philip Krumm, President of the U.S.O.C., called the bill "a most dictatorial assault on the freedom and civil rights of the American people."  

The U.S.O.C. then proposed its own legislation to the Senate requiring binding arbitration in all disputes. This met with some favor and helped persuade the Senate to send the Amateur Athletic Act back to committee.  

The Act never reached the floor for a vote, due in part to the lobbying efforts of the N.C.A.A. which got its member coaches and athletic directors to flood the Senate with letters of protest against the bill.

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The House was also active in exercising its concern for the problems of amateur athletics. Bills HR.5623 and HR.5624, which were designed to protect college and high school athletes and coaches from being caught in the middle of the N.C.A.A.-A.A.U. dispute, were introduced to the House in 1973. HR.5623 would have amended the Higher Education Act of 1965 to protect the freedom of student athletes and their coaches to participate as representatives of the United States in amateur international athletic events, while HR.5624 would have established the Federal Scholastic and Amateur Sports Commission to coordinate and regulate international amateur athletic competition. Neither of these bills reached the floor for a vote.

Congress continued to seek a legislative answer to the N.C.A.A.-A.A.U. dispute and other problems in amateur athletics. The Amateur Athletic Act of 1973 was revived by Senator Ted Pearson in 1974 and won approval in the Senate but failed to pass the House. Although failing to pass this or any other piece of legislation to deal

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55 Ibid., p. 7.

specifically with amateur athletics, Congress was able to focus public attention on the problem and use the potential for legislative control to spur the U.S.O.C. to take action to clear up some of the problems from within. On December 16, 1974 the U.S.O.C. Executive Committee adopted an Athletes' Bill of Rights along with other organizational and constitutional changes to provide athletes with a greater voice in policy and planning matters.57

Senator Tunney had campaigned since 1972 to legislate the establishment of a commission to investigate the U.S.O.C. and to review United States participation in the Olympic Games. All of the bills he introduced failed but on April 15, 1975 with the stroke of a pen President Ford created, by Executive Order, the President's Commission on Olympic Sports.58 This Commission was to carry out many of the functions of the Tunney-proposed commission. Specifically, the objectives of the P.C.O.S. were:

1. To define and eliminate the barriers that face athletes in every Olympic sport
2. To eliminate jurisdictional conflicts between amateur sports groups
3. To devise a process to select the best athletes for all international and Olympic competitions

4. To find ways to develop financial and other resources for amateur sport

While some people saw the P.C.O.S. as just another study out of which nothing of significance would come, the Final Report of the Commission called for sweeping changes in the organization of amateur athletics and recommended a number of specific measures to achieve a more effective and efficient organization. The most significant of these recommendations was the creation of a Central Sports Organization to be the highest sports authority in the country, an organization created by modification of Public Law 805 (U.S.O.C. charter). The responsibilities of the new organization were to be:

1. To raise and allocate funds
2. To set development priorities
3. To adopt and, as necessary, amend the constitution and bylaws of the organization
4. To act as the National Olympic Committee
5. To screen and provide due process for disputes
6. To certify organizations as national governing bodies in individual sports

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60 Final Report of the President's Commission on Olympic Sports, Volume II, p. 75.
7. To consider issues such as sports medicine, amateurism, etc. and create appropriate standing or temporary committees to consider policy questions of major import to the amateur sports community.

8. To review rules of competition of existing sports organizations (to the extent the membership feels is necessary) and make suggestions for change if those rules unnecessarily inhibit growth of the sport in some area.

9. To provide legal services for athletes who require them in order to obtain the right to compete.

10. To formulate and maintain an informed national policy for amateur sports.\(^{62}\)

The Central Sports Organization, composed exclusively of national sport governing bodies, would have a Congress of the Membership which would write and/or revise the constitution and bylaws of the organization as necessary and would elect a Board of Directors to run the affairs of the organization.\(^{63}\) The Commission felt that this new overseeing organization, built on the existing U.S.O.C., would be much more capable of drawing together the many factions of amateur sport to develop clear, more coordinated policies on development priorities, franchise disputes, fund raising, and the many other problems associated with amateur athletics.\(^{64}\)

Shortly after the final report was released, a group of Senators introduced legislation which would

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\(^{62}\)Ibid., p. 21.  \(^{63}\)Ibid., p. 19.  
\(^{64}\)Ibid., p. 17.
establish the U.S.O.C. as the coordinating body for amateur sport. The bill, known as the Amateur Sports Act of 1978:

1. Expanded the authority of the U.S. Olympic Committee by amending its federal charter, enabling it to serve as a coordinating body for amateur sports on the programs for the Olympic and Pan American Games

2. Provided means by which individual athletes can pursue excellence with modern training, sports medicine and other support

3. Endorsed the principle of vertical structure for national governing bodies by requiring each national governing body to conduct its own affairs without interference from any other organization and opening up membership to all organizations with national programs

4. Established a mechanism for the settlement of disputes involving amateur athletes, national governing bodies, and amateur sports organizations. The District Courts of the United States were given the authority to enforce any findings of this arbitration process

5. Required the U.S.O.C. Constitution to provide for the protection of an athlete's right to compete

As was expected the N.C.A.A. opposed the bill since it gave legal status to the power of the U.S.O.C. as coordinator of athletics and the Athletes' Bill of Rights took away the N.C.A.A.'s complete control over its athletes. After an initial setback and the addition of an amendment which removed the appropriation for the bill, the bill passed both the Senate and the House on October 15, 1978.

A House Joint Resolution, authored by Representative

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Stevens, provided $16 million through a supplementary appropriations bill to carry out the mandate of the Amateur Sports Act.\textsuperscript{67} Thus, the first successful passage of a comprehensive bill to deal with the nagging problems which have plagued amateur athletics over the past years had come to pass.

There were other bills passed, though not of the comprehensive nature of the Amateur Sports Act, which appropriated significant amounts of money for U.S. Olympic Games efforts. The Senate passed a bill on September 15, 1972 which provided $15.5 million for the construction of athletic facilities at Denver should that city be selected as the host for the 1976 Winter Games. An additional $15 million was to be provided by Housing and Urban Development through urban renewal grants\textsuperscript{68} but these monies were not needed after the citizens of Denver rejected the idea of hosting the Games in a special referendum.

On September 16, 1976 Congress cleared bill S.2184 which authorized the expenditure of $49 million for the construction of facilities at Lake Placid along with $250,000 for administrative purposes related to the Games.\textsuperscript{69}

\textsuperscript{67}Ibid.


arena, housing for athletes, and a skating sheet. Along with this bill, the Economic Development Act was extended through to 1979 to allow for the appropriation of $30.1 million in construction funds. Of this amount, $22 million was to be for the construction of dormitory facilities for athletes which would be converted into a Federal prison for juvenile offenders following the conclusion of the Games.

The House and Senate also agreed to amend the Military Procurement Act to allow the Armed Forces to help with security and communications at the 1979 Olympic Trials and the 1980 Games. If the security costs of the 1976 Games in Montreal are any indication of the costs of security at the 1980 Games in Lake Placid, the U.S.O.C. will have gained a sizeable contribution from Congress to help support these Games. The State Department also provided a $355,000 grant to the New York State Police to develop a security plan for the 1980 Games.

The passage of the Education Amendment of 1972, or Title IX as this amendment came to be known, may prove to be the most significant influence on the conduct of sport and physical education programs in the United States over

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70 Ibid.
the past 50 years. Title IX was originally introduced in 1971 as an amendment to the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Following Congressional debate and amendments, the bill became law on June 23, 1972. It specified that

No person in the United States shall on the basis of sex be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance.

While the legislation was acted upon fairly quickly by Congress, some in fact believing too quickly with little debate or thought as to its implementation, the development of the specific regulations to implement the legislation was much slower. Not until June 20, 1974 were proposed regulations released for public consideration and comment. The Department of Health, Education and Welfare received nearly 10,000 public comments and from these made changes in the regulations before sending them to the President for his signature. The final regulations were implemented on July 21, 1975 but provided a grace period of three years for colleges and high schools and one year for elementary


75Ibid.

schools to bring their programs into line with the new regulations.\footnote{77}

While generally prohibiting sex segregated physical education classes, separation by sex was permitted during competition in body contact sports such as wrestling, football, basketball, and boxing. The goals of the final regulations in the area of athletics was to secure equal opportunity for both sexes while allowing schools and colleges flexibility in determining how best to provide such opportunity.\footnote{78} In determining whether equal opportunities existed, the following were used as a guide:

1. Whether sports selected reflect the interests and abilities of both sexes
2. Provision of supplies and equipment
3. Game and practice schedules
4. Travel and per diem allowances
5. Coaching and academic tutoring opportunities and the assignment and pay of the coaches and tutors
6. Locker rooms, practice and competitive facilities
7. Medical and training services
8. Housing and dining facilities and services
9. Publicity\footnote{79}

\footnote{77}{Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, "Non-Discrimination on Basis of Sex," \textit{Federal Register} XL (June 4, 1975), p. 24143}
\footnote{78}{H.E.W. Fact Sheet, p. 6}
\footnote{79}{Ibid.}
The development of the Title IX regulations created tremendous lobbying efforts on the part of the N.C.A.A. to protect its vested interests and on the part of women's groups such as the Association of Intercollegiate Athletics for Women. The effect of the legislation has certainly done a great deal to help decrease discrimination against women in school physical education and athletic programs and has provided a tremendous impetus to the development of women's programs but it has also created an environment in which many of the abuses and distortion of values so common to men's intercollegiate programs have been allowed to grow unchecked. Whether women's programs will continue along this business-oriented, big-time path remains to be seen but Title IX has given women the opportunity to control their own athletic destiny.

Along with women, the handicapped had suffered from discrimination in many aspects of life, including education. To help correct this, the Federal government enacted the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 which prohibited discrimination against the handicapped and the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 which provided for an administrative and financial commitment on the part of the federal government to assure that all

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handicapped received a "free appropriate public education." The 1975 Act specifically stipulates that state educational agencies must guarantee that physical education is made available to all children as an integral part of their education and that provisions are made for handicapped students to participate in the regular physical education program available to non-handicapped children. This has resulted in a tremendous increase in the number of handicapped children participating in physical education and a subsequent shortage of qualified personnel to develop programs and provide instruction. To combat this shortage, the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped instituted two programs to train physical education and therapeutic recreation personnel and to develop demonstration projects. Other Federal departments including H.U.D., Interior, Veterans Administration, and the President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports also developed programs of assistance to the handicapped physical education and recreation participant.

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82 Ibid.


Professional sport occupied the thoughts and concerns of legislators at an increasing rate during this period and a number of laws were passed to more tightly regulate the operation of professional sport franchises. In 1971 a number of interrelated influences including the probability of an N.B.A.-A.B.A. merger, the Curt Flood antitrust suit against major league baseball, and the blacking out of professional games' telecasts locally, forced Congress to take a hard look at the operation of professional sport and resulted in a total of 12 House bills being introduced along with four Senate bills. The five main issues of these bills were:

1. Should baseball lose its special status of exemption from antitrust laws?

2. Should the N.B.A.-A.B.A. merger be permitted?

3. Should traditional monopolistic practices such as the player draft and reserve clause be made specifically legal?

4. Should T.V. practices such as local blackouts be permitted?

5. Should there be a federal boxing commissioner?

Following hearings on several of these bills Senator Marlow Cook introduced a very comprehensive bill, the Federal Sports Act of 1972, which would have created a

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86 Ibid.
three-member Federal Sports Commission appointed by the President and an eight person Sports Advisory Council to advise the Commission. The Commission, under the Act, would have the authority to make regulations and rulings in the area of professional sports concerning television blackouts, drafting procedures, the sale and movement of franchises, and individual contract problems. There was a great deal of opposition to the bill from Congressional and sports leaders alike, the result of which was the bill's death, it never coming out of committee hearings.

The comprehensive nature of the Federal Sports Act undoubtedly scared many people off. The immediate problems which the Act addressed itself to—television blackouts, antitrust exemption, drafting procedures—were of great concern to the legislators and passage of the Act may have provided a solution to many of these problems but Congress was not ready to create a regulatory body with the kind of centralized power that the Federal Sports Commission would have had. They opted instead to deal with each problem individually, banning television blackouts for

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88 Ibid.
three years in 1972\textsuperscript{89} and again in 1975,\textsuperscript{90} and introducing several bills to deal with the extralegal antitrust status of professional sports.\textsuperscript{91}

In May, 1976, another Congressional committee studied the problems surrounding professional sports. This committee, the House Select Committee on Professional Sports was to "point out the problems facing professional sport and to set a direction toward a constructive legislation solution."\textsuperscript{92} The committee's final report recommended removal of baseball's antitrust exemption and the development of uniform standards for player agents\textsuperscript{93} but no legislative action has been initiated on either of these recommendations.

The National Collegiate Athletic Association also came under investigation by the Congress. Between October 1977 and October 1978, a House Subcommittee on Oversight and Investigations, prompted by allegations of unfairness, inequity, secrecy, and other abuses of power, conducted the most extensive search into the operations of the

\textsuperscript{89}New York Times, October 4, 1972, p. 58.
\textsuperscript{90}New York Times, December 16, 1975, p. 55.
\textsuperscript{93}Ibid., p. 73.
N.C.A.A. since its founding. The Committee sharply rebuked the N.C.A.A. for its blatant disregard for due process and other civil rights but did not propose specific legislation to correct these abuses. It was hoped that much-needed reform would come from within the N.C.A.A.

The Government continued to use international sports exchanges and competition to its political advantage during the 1970s. One of the first steps taken in promoting relations with both Red China and Cuba was the initiation of sports exchanges. Following a tour of China by a United States table tennis team, the Chinese sent their table tennis team to tour the U.S. and it was received with great fanfare. This was followed by several other exchanges. Fiedel Castro, during negotiations with the House Foreign Relations Committee, requested an increase in cultural and sports exchanges between the two countries. Such exchanges would enable Castro to keep the success of the

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1976 Cuban Olympic team in full view of his American neighbors. Competitions in basketball, volleyball, and boxing were held between Cuba and the U.S. and have been credited with easing tensions between these countries. In December of 1976 a document of Sports Protocol was signed between the United States and Portugal. This document pledged cooperation between the two nations in sport, recreation, and physical education and was negotiated only after Portugal changed its political affiliation from communist to socialist.

A number of protests came from the Capitol regarding the staging of the 1980 Olympics in Moscow. On September 11, 1973 Congressmen sent a letter to the I.O.C. protesting Moscow as the host city because of the appalling treatment which the Russians accorded Israeli athletes during the 1973 World Student Games. Four years later, in a letter to Robert Kane, Congressmen urged the U.S.O.C. to use its influence to thwart a supposed attempt by the U.S.S.R. and a number of Third World countries to ban Israel from the 1980 Olympics. One year following this

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100Ibid.
protest, Representative Robert Drinan called for the threat of a U.S. boycott of the Olympics in an effort to force the U.S.S.R. to improve its treatment of dissidents. Drinan also questioned whether the Russians would allow Israel to compete and whether there would be sufficient security against terrorists. The value of these protests can be described as nothing more than "token" but they do point out the willingness of the federal government to use sport to achieve political ends.

The President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports exhibited periods of varying effectiveness during the 1970s. On September 28, 1970 President Nixon reorganized the Council naming Carson Conrad, former Director of Health and Physical Education in California, as Executive Director and 15 fitness and sports professionals to the Council. Captain James Lovell remained as Council Chairman but the professional competence of the Council had increased dramatically. With a budget increase to $373,000 a great number of new programs were instituted including, 1) the development of fitness programs for government agencies and private firms, 2) the distribution of research materials

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104 Zingale, op. cit., p. 136.
and information on a much larger scale, 3) the production of films and television shows, 4) the publication and distribution of books and pamphlets dealing with fitness and exercise. The Council also attracted $43 million in free advertising from the electronic and print media for its fitness campaigns. A closer cooperation with the National Public Health Service, the National Park Service, and the National Council on Aging enabled all of these agencies to make more efficient use of federal monies and expertise but after initial successes, the Council's activities slowed down considerably as did Americans' concern for physical fitness. By 1976 the Office of Education, through a federally-sponsored study, showed that there had been no gains in the physical fitness of school-age children in the past ten years. This plateauing of fitness levels was felt to be due to the dropping of physical education requirements by some schools and the continuing softening of the American lifestyle. The next two years saw the Council become virtually dormant but on December 8, 1978 President Carter replaced most of

106 President's Council on Physical Fitness Newsletter II (no date given), p. 1.
107 Ibid.
109 Ibid.
the Council with new members and appointed Governor Jerry Apodaca of New Mexico as Chairman with a new "aggressive commitment to develop fitness" and a budget increase to $1.2 million.\textsuperscript{110} The new Council was expected to complement the passage of the Omnibus Health Bill which enacted a $15 million, three year program of grants to state fitness councils to develop model fitness programs, research, and a national fitness conference in 1980.\textsuperscript{111} These most recent developments would seem to indicate the promise of a bright future for physical fitness efforts in the United States.

The National Summer Youth Sports Program, started in 1969, grew very rapidly serving greater numbers of youths each year. Federal funding was kept at the original three million dollars for several years since the tremendous success of the program encouraged local governments to increase their support of the program. However, the success of the program and its tentative funding resulted in a number of bills being introduced to make funds available on a less tentative basis. The Economic Opportunity Amendments of 1972 authorized the Youth Recreation and Sports Program, very similar to the National Summer Youth Sports Program, and called for expenditures of $4.5 million

\begin{itemize}
\item[\textsuperscript{110}] Statement by Mr. C. Carson Conrad, Executive Director, President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports, personal interview, Washington, D.C., June 7, 1979.
\end{itemize}
per year but these funds were not appropriated.\textsuperscript{112} The program was eventually given three million dollars with which to operate for one more year.\textsuperscript{113} The Community Services Act of 1974 authorized the National Youth Sports Program for an additional three years but the funds called for in the Act were deleted and the program had to continue begging for funds each year\textsuperscript{114} until 1976 when House Joint Resolution 890 was passed providing $23 million for this summer sports program.\textsuperscript{115} This sum was eventually cut to six million dollars but still allowed the program to thrive, meeting the sports and recreation needs of thousands of inner-city youths throughout the nation.

\textsuperscript{112} \textit{President’s Council on Physical Fitness Newsletter}, November, 1972, p. 2.

\textsuperscript{113} Ibid.

\textsuperscript{114} \textit{President’s Council on Physical Fitness Newsletter}, April, 1975, p. 4.

The Fitness and Amateur Sport Act of 1961

When the Fitness and Amateur Sport Act, Bill C-131, was introduced into the House of Commons, there was considerable debate as to the thrust this bill should take. One group of legislators supported fitness and its health-related outcomes while another group saw greater benefits in the prestige value of national and international competition and victories. The Honorable J. Waldo Monteith, Minister of Health and Welfare, was very supportive of the prestige which could be gained through international sport victories. Lester Pearson, leader of the opposition, agreed with Monteith but cautioned against too much direct government assistance and called for a laissez-faire attitude on the part of the government. While there lingered an attitude throughout the House of Commons that support of legislation designed to help amateur sport was politically risky unless fitness could be used as a cover,

117 Ibid., p. 43.
The bill was amended to include 'fitness and amateur sport' from the original 'fitness through amateur sport'. The bill passed both Houses and received royal assent on December 15, 1961.

The 1961 Act established the National Advisory Council on Fitness and Amateur Sport which was composed of appointed private citizens who advised the government on various issues related to fitness and amateur sport. The National Advisory Council somewhat paralleled the National Council on Physical Fitness which was formed with the passage of the 1943 Act. The relationship between the Advisory Council and the Department of Health and Welfare was much more clearly defined than with the 1943 legislation and the Advisory Council was able to operate in a more efficient manner than its predecessor.

Initial problems did exist however. After the passage of the bill, some confusion regarding the thrust of the legislation reappeared. On March 18, 1962, Minister of Health and Welfare Montieth stated that fitness would be the basic objective of the Act, not sport, but this conflicted with a speech given by Advisory Council Chairman Kenneth Farmer in which he said that the funds provided by the Act ($5 million) were too small to achieve the goals of fitness and sport and that the Act would therefore concentrate on sport by training coaches and leaders and
developing a broad base of participation. These contradictions pointed out the lack of careful planning and clarity of goals for the 1961 Act once it had become law. The attitude of many M.P.s that sport could only be promoted if under the cover of fitness and the lack of a clear direction resulted in a shotgun type of program as the best means of solving the problems of fitness and amateur sport. An examination of Department of Health and Welfare records indicates the wide variety of programs which were afforded support during the early years of the Act.

Similar to the 1943 Act, Bill C-131 provided for a federal-provincial agreement and in September 1962 such an agreement was signed making one million dollars available to the provinces annually on a per capita basis to extend programs of fitness and amateur sport. The total of one million dollars was never fully utilized in any year prior

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to 1968. The first year of the agreement saw the provinces receive only $355,000 from the federal government. Some disappointment was expressed by the federal government in that the provinces made little effort to coordinate their own programs with already existing federal programs. This disappointment, coupled with the tremendous growth of the provinces' commitment to sport and fitness led the federal government to the conclusion that a more effective use of available federal funds could be made by diverting them toward programs other than the federal-provincial agreements. Fiscal year 1970-1971 was determined to be a phase-out year for the federal-provincial agreements with limited funds being made available to assist the provinces in the transition.

Between 1961 and 1968 the profile of the government in the administration of the Act was that of a catalyst. Support was made available to initiate and operate various programs but the government did not care to control these.

However, a desire to direct more attention to sport programs, particularly international competition, was developing within the government. The 1967-1968 Annual Report of the Fitness and Amateur Sport Branch stated, "there was concern on the part of some that every effort should be made to raise the level of Canadian achievements in international competitions."¹²⁷ Some politicians argued that Bill C-131 was passed primarily because "it was recognized that national prestige and status is tied directly to sporting skills in international competition,"¹²⁸ but few were yet willing to openly support this idea without first having some positive signs of support from the public.

The Honourable Judy LaMarsh, Minister of Health and Welfare, continued with the compromising role of the government in her Federal Philosophy on Recreation which was published in 1966. In it she stated that Canada needed a broad-based, all-encompassing program of recreation


without detracting from the development of sport. But she appeared to be encouraging a decrease in federal government support of recreation programs by calling on the schools and local governments to provide leadership and programming skills in this area. She further stated that the main role of the government would be to aid in improving the necessary facilities and then announced that the Department of Labour had allocated $4.7 million for Winter Works projects on recreational facilities.

Her motives could have been to direct money from other federal agencies into support for recreation, leaving the Department of Health and Welfare with more money to support amateur sport and to more vigorously pursue increased prestige through international sport victories. More likely though LaMarsh's actions reflected her lack of interest in both recreation and amateur sport and her devotion to other Department matters such as the Medicare Plan.

In the same paper LaMarsh proposed the construction of a National Training Centre to house athletes and coaches.

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130 Ibid., p. 39.

131 Bedecki interview.
as well as provide training and rehabilitative facilities for the athletes.\textsuperscript{132} This idea did not meet with much support at the time, some people feeling such a Centre represented too great an increase in centralized government control of sport.\textsuperscript{133}

Canada's Centennial Year, 1967, involved the government in sport and fitness programs much more so than in any previous year. The Pan-American Games were held in Winnipeg and a wide variety of facilities were constructed for the Games with grants from the federal government. Approximately $1.5 million of a $3.5 million budget was provided by the federal government.\textsuperscript{134} The Centennial Athletic Awards Program was instituted with funds from the Fitness and Amateur Sport Branch and in cooperation with C.A.H.P.E.R.\textsuperscript{135} This awards program was very successful during Centennial Year and was retained as the Canada Fitness Awards after the Centennial celebrations.

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{132} LaMarsh, loc. cit.
\item \textsuperscript{133} Robert F. Osborne, "Should Canada Have a National Sports Center?" Journal of the Canadian Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, XXXII (June-July, 1966), p. 27.
\end{itemize}
1972, over one million schoolchildren had qualified for and received a Fitness Award.¹³⁶

Task Force Report and Reorganization

Still, increasingly larger numbers of people and politicians were becoming more concerned with the loss of Canadian dominance in world sport, particularly hockey. Canada last won the World Championships in 1961 and had since suffered numerous setbacks, even losing to the United States in the 1964 Olympics at Squaw Valley. This situation caused Prime Minister Trudeau to state in August of 1968,

"...there are a certain number of factors which worry me--the fact that hockey is our national sport and yet in the world championships we have not been able, as amateurs, to perform as well as we know we can."¹³⁷

The government sensed that the time was right for a change of gears. On August 2, 1968 John Munro, Minister of Health and Welfare, announced the formation of the Task Force on Sport for Canadians. The purpose of the Task Force was to report on:

1. The prevailing concepts and definitions of both amateur and professional sport and the effect of professional sport on amateur sport

2. The role of the federal government in promoting and developing sport

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3. Ways in which the federal government could improve the extent and quality of Canadian participation in sport both at home and abroad

The Task Force completed its study and presented findings and recommendations to the government on February 28, 1969. A great number of structural and programmatic changes in Canadian sport were recommended. Included were:

1. Establish a national coaches association, coaching clinics, and coaches exchange program

2. Increase Bill C-131 appropriations to $6.2 million

3. Appoint a Director-General of Sport to recommend and administer federal grants

4. Establish Sport Canada as a focus for the administration, support, and growth of amateur sport in Canada

5. Closer cooperation between the Canadian Olympic Association and the government with the government to retain the right to certify teams as the 'national team'

6. Establish Hockey Canada, a non-profit corporation, as the representative in all international hockey events and federation meetings. The C.A.H.A. would retain their power in domestic hockey affairs

Considering the brevity of the report and the admission of its own authors that "we must escape from any impression that this has been an exhaustive in-depth inquiry," few of the recommendations would have been adopted by the federal government without corroboration by

\[138\text{Ibid., p. ii.} \quad 139\text{Ibid., p. 89.} \quad 140\text{Ibid., p. 2.}\]
other studies. The most influential of these other studies was one by P.S. Ross Management Consultants. The Ross Report, never released to the public, was an in-depth analysis of physical recreation and fitness. Amateur sport was not dealt with in as great detail since their researchers felt that the Task Force had adequately covered the area, although important recommendations were made with regards to amateur sport. The report found a number of weaknesses in the administration of the 1961 Act including:

1. An understaffed Directorate with no clear objectives

2. A fragmented system with government agencies, private organizations, national sport governing bodies, and educational institutions all operating similar programs with a complete lack of coordination

3. Lack of trained personnel to instruct in, administer, and develop programs

4. Lack of sufficient funds to carry out specific programs

The report went on to make a number of recommendations which were also found in the Task Force Report including the development of a level of performance in national and international competition which would

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142 Ibid., p. 35.
143 Ibid., p. 8.
144 Ibid., p. 11.
145 Ibid., p. 12.
contribute to national unity and international prestige. \textsuperscript{146}

With the support of these reports and the public's dissatisfaction with recent defeats by Canadian teams in international competitions, the government felt they now had a clear mandate to develop solutions to these problems.

John Munro, who may have been the real driving force behind the development of a new sport structure, \textsuperscript{147} translated the Task Force and Ross Report recommendations into a sport policy and made this policy public in an address given on March 20, 1970. The Minister attempted to offer something for everyone by advocating mass participation in sport but directed toward the end of a greater number of elite international competitors. \textsuperscript{148} Several years later, Minister of State for Fitness and Amateur Sport, Iona Campagnolo, stated that this idea, as expressed by Munro, was quite clear though very difficult to achieve. \textsuperscript{149}

More specific proposals put forth by Munro included:

1. Extension of government support for the Canada Games

2. A third-party scholarship program for young Canadian athletes attending Canadian universities

\textsuperscript{146} Ibid., p. 32.  \textsuperscript{147} Galasso, op. cit., p. 55.


3. A more active role by athletes in shaping national sport governing bodies' policies

4. Tax concessions for contributions to amateur sport

Munro also announced a moratorium on postgraduate fellowships and scholarships and grants for research in order to allow the government to carry out a complete evaluation of the program. This was consistent with a recommendation in the Ross Report that the type of research being conducted was too theoretical in nature and of little immediate value to the sport and recreation practitioners.151

In 1971 a conference was convened to establish national goals and objectives, and priorities for research in recreation. Out of this conference came the recommendation to drastically limit the types of research funded.152 The first approved project was the National Study on the Supply and Demand for Sports and Recreation Facilities which was conducted during the summers of 1971 and 1972.153 This study was to provide a data base for recreation planning and policy making at all levels of government.154

150 A Proposed Sports Policy for Canadians, p. 42.

151 P. S. Ross and Partners, op. cit., p. 11.


154 Ibid.
In another major policy paper released in 1971, Munro outlined the structure which he felt would be most effective in administering sport and recreation in Canada. The areas of fitness and recreation, and sport were to be administered by separate units; Recreation Canada to administer the former, and Sport Canada the latter. Munro stated that this separation was designed "to enable recreation a similar chance to develop as sport has always had." Sport was not to have any special priorities according to Munro. However, the separation led to some degree of isolation of fitness and recreation on the part of government leaders, primarily Munro who directed the greater portion of his energies toward Sport Canada. To a great extent, this feeling of isolation still exists within Recreation Canada today. It was 1974 before Recreation Canada had fought through these intiial problems and was able to formulate workable objectives and deliver its services efficiently to the Canadian people.

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156 Ibid, p. 15.

157 Bedecki interview.

158 Statement of Dr. John Richardson, Director of Recreation Canada, personal interview, Ottawa, Ontario, March 15, 1979.

While these policy papers released by Munro were being publicized widely a more subtle yet equally important policy was being established by the Department of Health and Welfare, a policy which called for "arms-length" or "spin-off" organizations to act as the agencies which would implement the federal role in sport and recreation. These arms-length organizations represented a compromise between the laissez-faire attitude of some countries and the centralized control exercised in many Eastern European countries. They would be essentially non-government agencies with governing boards composed of private citizens. Initial funding would come from the federal government until private funding sources could be cultivated, enabling these arms-length organizations to be self-supporting or require only minimal federal support thereafter.

The first arms-length organization created was Hockey Canada in 1969 shortly after the release of the Task Force Report. Its two main functions were to support, develop, operate and manage Canada's national hockey team, and to foster the playing of the game in all possible ways throughout the country. Approximately $200,000 was given to Hockey Canada during its first year of operation.

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160 Toward a National Policy on Amateur Sport, p. 5.
as a measure of interim financing until self-support through private donations could be achieved.\textsuperscript{162} A major source of initial self-support was expected to have been the proceeds from hosting the 1970 World Hockey Championship in Montreal and Winnipeg. However, Canada withdrew from the International Ice Hockey Federation after a dispute with the I.I.H.F. over the proposed use of Canadian professional players in the upcoming tournament and Stockholm was awarded the championship tournament. The national hockey team was shortly thereafter disbanded leaving Hockey Canada with the responsibility for the promotion of the game domestically and to maintain some communication with international hockey officials. Some feel that Hockey Canada was very successful in its domestic development programs\textsuperscript{163} creating a scholarship program, a university tournament, a skills development program, and a coaching certification program.\textsuperscript{164} Also, Hockey Canada's efforts forced the Canadian Amateur Hockey Association to look at itself and make a number of much-needed changes in priorities and programs.\textsuperscript{165}

\textsuperscript{162} Fitness and Amateur Sport Annual Report 1971-1972, p. 5.
\textsuperscript{163} J. Alex Murray, Sports or Athletics: A North American Dilemma (Windsor: Canadian-American Seminar, 1973), p. 121.
\textsuperscript{164} Fitness and Amateur Sport Annual Report 1971-1972, p. 11.
\textsuperscript{165} Murray, loc. cit.
In September 1970 the National Sport and Recreation Center opened in Ottawa. It was created to provide for the administrative needs of the national sport governing bodies plus provide for the exchange of ideas and information. The Centre was also funded by the federal government but was not part of the federal bureaucracy. Its president was, and is, solely responsible to the Board of Directors, all of whom are private citizens.\textsuperscript{166} The Centre provides office space, secretarial assistance, reproduction facilities, and other administrative services to 54 national sport governing bodies and ten multi-sport associations today.\textsuperscript{167} At present, the facilities of the Centre have reached their capacity and expansion to accommodate more sport bodies has become a priority.

The next of these arms-length organizations to be established was the Coaching Association of Canada, being incorporated on December 22, 1970 and holding its first meeting on February 7, 1971.\textsuperscript{168} A Board of Directors and an Executive Committee, both composed of private citizens, govern the Association although they do work closely with

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{166} National Sport and Recreation Centre, \textit{Information Pamphlet}, 1978.
\item \textsuperscript{167} \textit{Toward a National Policy on Amateur Sport}, p. 11.
\end{itemize}
Sport Canada in policy and planning matters. An initial grant of $15,000 was given to the Association by the federal government at its first meeting. This sum was increased significantly over the years to fund the various programs instituted by the Association until a total grant of $482,967 was made available by the government in 1976-1977. The development of coaching certification courses in over 40 sports has been a major accomplishment of the Association and coaching development remains a priority today.

Shortly after the development of the Coaching Association, ParticipAction was created on July 12, 1971 as "an autonomous, shared-sector, promotional agency which act[ed] as a catalytic force designed to cooperate with all fitness-oriented sectors." A grant of $200,000 was provided by the Fitness and Amateur Sport Directorate as seed money for the first year of its operations.

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169 Ibid.
Today ParticipAction still receives sizeable grants from the federal government, $500,000 in 1976-1977, but it has been very successful in persuading the broadcast and print media to carry its promotional message free-of-charge and various firms have agreed to put these messages on their products, while others have contributed direct financial aid. This involvement of the media and private industry is indicative of the success of ParticipAction in both method and operation.174 ParticipAction was the last arms-length organization to be created until Loto Canada was established as a Crown Corporation on June 7, 1976.175 It was developed as a national lottery to raise funds to support major amateur sports events, national sports programs and amateur athletes. Winners are determined by matching ticket numbers with random computer-generated numbers drawn at specified intervals. Over $128 million were raised by Loto Canada for the 1976 Olympic Games and an additional $33 million have been given to various amateur sport programs since 1976.176 It is hoped that in the near future, Loto Canada will provide up to 25 per cent of the

176Ibid.
total funds needed to operate Fitness and Amateur Sport Branch programs and projects. 177

While making great strides in the development of arms-length organizations during the 1969-1972 period, the Department of Health and Welfare was, at the same time, already preparing for the 1976 Olympic Games which were to be held in Montreal. At the National Conference on Olympic '76 Development held in Ottawa, October 7-10, 1971, John Munro posed three challenges to the sports community in Canada:

1. To field a team of excellence which would give a showing Canadians could be proud of

2. To use the process of Olympic team development to give a boost to organized amateur sport across Canada

3. To use the concept and public image of the Olympics as a means to heighten recreational sports involvement by the masses. 178

Out of this same conference came a program of assistance to athletes who were of 'medal potential.' This intensive-care program, as it came to be known, provided additional funds to athletes to pay for specialized coaching and

177 Statement by Mr. Peter Lesaus, Assistant Deputy Minister of the Department of Health and Welfare, personal interview, Ottawa, Canada, March 13, 1979.

training. Over 40 athletes benefitted from this program during its two years of existence.  

In May of 1972, the P. S. Ross firm was commissioned by the Olympic Trust of Canada to study and recommend a development program for the improvement of Canada's Olympic performance. In the subsequent report, it was recommended that Canada's Olympic objective should be to produce as many international calibre athletes as possible and that a more definitive program of selection and training of athletes was needed to accomplish this goal. The Game Plan concept as a means of providing assistance to athletes was recommended with a committee composed of representatives from the federal government, the Canadian Olympic Association, and Olympic Trust to coordinate and manage the program. The structure of Game Plan changed somewhat before it was implemented in March of 1973 when a number of provincial governments and the national sport governing bodies joined in the program. Sport Canada provided the bulk of funds ($461,000) to operate Game Plan

179 Ibid.


181 Ibid., p. 8.
during its first year.\textsuperscript{182} The scope of the Game Plan program included:

1. Sponsorship of a series of coaches' development plans

2. Hiring of additional national coaches

3. Support for national team training camps

4. Significant increases in competitive opportunities for national team athletes and coaches

5. Development of an athlete classification system to recognize National and International Card athletes, and to provide international training and competition incentives\textsuperscript{183}

Under John Munro's leadership the Fitness and Amateur Sport Branch showed a general lack of concern for fitness and recreation. The Olympic Development Conference recommendations and the creation of Game Plan are more indicative of Munro's interests. Marc Lalonde, who took over as Minister in 1971, differed from Munro's way of thinking. He felt a concern for and a commitment to the fitness and recreation needs of the Canadian people, especially in terms of the utility of sound recreational practices as an instrument of preventive medicine.\textsuperscript{184} After his first full


\textsuperscript{183}A Way to Win, Game Plan Information brochure, 1974.

year in office he was able to report on "an expanded program which places great emphasis on fitness and mass participation" and linked this with the challenge presented by the 1976 Olympics. 185

Lalonde led a new thrust toward a greater encouragement and support of fitness and recreation along with continued funding and support for elite sport. The 1972-1973 budget for the Branch reflected his concern for fitness and recreation as it was increased to $11.2 million with $2.3 million, or 23 per cent of the total, going to Recreation Canada. 186 The following year Recreation Canada received $3.1 million or 26 per cent of the total Branch budget 187 and in 1974-1975 received another increase to $3.4 million and finally a further increase to $3.8 million in 1975-1976. 188 This increase in budget for Recreation Canada is quite significant when one considers the great deal of media and political attention that was directed at the Olympic preparations. Lalonde's influence allowed Recreation Canada to survive the Olympic rush and to grow in a number of areas. His influence was not to carry over

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186 Ibid.
187 Fitness and Amateur Sport Annual Report 1973-1974,
to the next Minister however and Recreation Canada has again stepped back into the shadows, isolated from the mainstream of Branch activity.\textsuperscript{189}

An area of uncommon interest for Lalonde was professional football, and specifically the influence of a proposed World Football League franchise in Toronto, a city which already had a Canadian Football League team. Lalonde, fearful that competition from the World Football League would be detrimental to the financial stability of the C.F.L., a league which he considered to have strong unifying powers in Canada, introduced legislation to ban the World Football League from Toronto and all other Canadian cities.\textsuperscript{190} The legislation was never debated in the Commons as the proposed Toronto franchise moved to Memphis, Tennessee.

Since the enactment of Bill C-131, federal policies in sport, fitness and recreation have changed direction quite frequently, the Minister often being the force behind the change. This pattern of change continued during the Olympic Games and the preceding preparations. Previous international events held in Canada such as the 1954 Commonwealth Games, the 1967 Pan-American Games, and a long list of world championships had all been shared-cost ventures usually involving the federal, provincial,

\begin{footnotesize}
\textsuperscript{189}Richardson interview.
\textsuperscript{190}Department of National Health and Welfare, Speech for Second Reading, Bill C-22, Canadian Professional Football, House of Commons, April 18, 1974 (Ottawa, 1974).
\end{footnotesize}
and municipal governments. The federal government decided that no such agreement would be entered into with either the province of Quebec or the city of Montreal in the funding of the Olympics. The federal government did provide however, approximately $130 million in support to the Olympics for services related to security and communications through a total of 30 departments and agencies. The security operation proved to be Canada's biggest military operation since World War II involving 17,000 military and police personnel. In addition to this support, Parliament passed Bill C-196 (The Olympic Bill) enabling the Post Office to sell Olympic coins and stamps, and providing for tax-exempt status for all gifts

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194 Baka, op. cit., p. 58.

to the Olympic Committee. The Act also protected the Olympic symbol under trademark and copyright provisions, creating the potential for a $60 million profit for the Olympic Committee. 196

Despite these concessions, the decision by the federal government to withhold from any shared-cost agreement with Quebec or Montreal to help finance the Olympic Games and refusal to provide any direct financial aid to reduce the Games deficit deviated from past policy. 197 Also, this action seemed to be at cross purposes to the intense efforts of Sport Canada in preparing Canadian athletes for these same Olympics.

A foreign policy position taken by the federal government with regards to Nationalist China threatened the success of the 1976 Summer Olympics in Montreal. Immigration officials, on orders from the Department of External Affairs, refused to allow Nationalist Chinese athletes and officials into the country without assurances that they would not use the title "Republic of China" nor would fly the Nationalist Chinese flag. This stance was taken by the Department of External Affairs because of pressures exerted on it by the People's Republic of China,

197 Baka, op. cit., p. 56.
with whom Canada had recently developed diplomatic relations.¹⁹⁸ The International Olympic Committee protested vigorously, threatening to cancel the Games. The U.S. government and the U.S.O.C. both assailed Canada’s actions.¹⁹⁹ Negotiations between Canada and the I.O.C. led to a compromise which allowed the Nationalist Chinese to use the title of "Taiwan", similar to an agreement utilized at the 1960 Rome Olympics.²⁰⁰ This did not satisfy the Nationalist-Chinese however as they returned home without entering the Games. A survey of domestic newspapers indicated much less than full support for the government’s actions by the Canadian people.²⁰¹ The rightness or wrongness of Canada’s position in this matter is open to debate but the lack of coordination between government agencies preparing for the Olympic Games on one hand and those developing foreign policy of importance to the functioning of the Games on the other, is disappointingly neglectful. The need for a sound, rational, and consistent sports policy for Canada was very apparent at this stage. The next two years would see further changes in structure and

programming and a strong effort made to develop a national sport policy.

A New Ministry is Created

In September 1976, shortly after the closing of the Olympics, Prime Minister Trudeau announced the appointment of Iona Campagnolo, formerly Parliamentary Secretary for Indian Affairs and Northern Development, as Minister of State for Fitness and Amateur Sport. This represented a significant upgrading in status for Fitness and Amateur Sport in that a cabinet minister, albeit a junior minister, would now be devoting her time completely to the concerns of the sport and recreation communities. Within the Canadian federal system, ministries of state are usually created to serve a very specific need or to solve a particular problem which is national in scope. Such was the role seen for Mrs. Campagnolo and the Ministry of State for Fitness and Amateur Sport. She was given the mandate of developing a more efficient structure for sport and recreation in Canada. During her tenure as Minister, Mrs. Campagnolo kept sport in the limelight with her very active schedule of speeches and public appearance, her own

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202 Statement by Mrs. Carol Erb, Assistant to the Minister of State for Fitness and Amateur Sport, personal interview, Ottawa, Canada, March 14, 1979.
charisma, and political astuteness.\textsuperscript{203} It has also been stated that the presence of an attractive and energetic female in the federal cabinet would do a great deal for whatever the issue that person was representing.\textsuperscript{204}

Campagnolo has directed progressively deeper incursions by the government into professional sports, in particular hockey although Bill C-131, which gives the government its parameters of responsibility, does not mention or imply at any point a responsibility or concern for professional sport. This involvement in professional hockey is justified by Ministry officials on the basis that hockey is so much a part of the Canadian culture that it must be protected against excessive commercialization which is detrimental to the nature of the game.\textsuperscript{205} Officials have also expressed the view that a keen awareness of professional hockey is needed in order to meet the needs of the amateur players and coaches.\textsuperscript{206} Perhaps the most controversial decision regarding professional hockey made by Mrs. Campagnolo was her commitment of $18.5 million to help various cities expand the seating capacities of their

\textsuperscript{203}Lesaux interview.
\textsuperscript{204}Erb interview.
\textsuperscript{205}Statement by Mr. Lou Lefaive, Director of Sport Canada, personal interview, Ottawa, Canada, March 14, 1979.
\textsuperscript{206}Lesaux interview.
hockey arenas in order to draw National Hockey League franchises to those cities. A tremendous amount of criticism was directed at the Minister for this decision with most people feeling such facility improvement projects were municipal or provincial responsibilities.

As well as creating controversy, Campagnolo has also taken positive steps in the formulation of a national sport policy. In late 1977 the Green Paper "Toward a National Policy on Amateur Sport" was released to the public as an outline on how amateur sport stood at that time, where it might stand in the future, and called for discussion among all interested parties on the concerns and recommendations of the paper. Some of the more important of these outlined were:

1. A need to develop a new structure to deal with sport at the national and international levels in which both the federal government and the national sport bodies will play important roles

2. A need to put more support behind sport through individuals and corporations as well as government sources

3. A need to expand the number of resident associations in the National Sport and Recreation Centre and to expand the administrative and support services available there

4. A need to further develop coaching certification programs with increased support to the national coaches apprenticeship program

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207 Toronto Globe and Mail, June 12, 1979, p. 35.
208 Ibid.
5. A recommendation to modify the focus of the Canada Fitness Award Program to concentrate on sport specific tests as one means of better identifying athletic talent

6. A need to expand the program of national team-training camps

7. A recommendation to create a new arms-length organization tentatively called the National Sport Information and Promotion Corporation to promote all sports supported or approved by the federal government

8. Reaffirmation of the need for government and the private sector to cooperate in supporting sport

The response to the Green Paper was quite vigorous with over 300 briefs being submitted to the Minister by individuals as well as sport, recreation, and physical education organizations. Generally there was support by the sport governing bodies for the government's emphasis on elite sport but very strong disagreement by physical educators on this same point. The Canadian Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation found support for the Canada Games program, the arms-length

209 Toward a National Policy on Amateru Sport.
210 Bedecki interview.
211 A View of the Green Paper, loc. cit.
organization concept, the emphasis on self-help to the sports community, and the idea of a National Coaching School but the Association very much disagreed with the government's "obsession to improve Olympic standings," the continued over-centralization of the amateur sport executive establishment in Ottawa, the lack of funds for fitness and sport research, and the formation of another bureaucracy in the proposed National Sports Information and Promotion Corporation.\textsuperscript{213}

Comments such as these, presented in briefs and at public meetings sponsored by the Ministry, enabled the government to more accurately assess the strengths and weaknesses of the Green Paper and undoubtedly assisted in the development of the forthcoming national sport policy.

\textbf{SUMMARY}

The years 1960-1978 saw some similarities in the development of Canadian and American federal government involvement in sport and physical education but the period was essentially one of difference in action and philosophy between these neighbors. Each country had a great concern for the poor fitness levels of its youth and adults but the individual responses to this problem were quite different. President Kennedy, through an Executive Order, reorganized

\textsuperscript{213}\textit{Ibid.}
and expanded the President's Council on Physical Fitness to better educate Americans about the values of physical fitness. The expanded Council, still relatively small, did not have its powers increased with the states retaining full responsibility for the fitness of its schoolchildren and adults. Canada, on the other hand, took a more bold course passing Bill C-131 as a comprehensive piece of legislation designed to attack the fitness problem from several sides including scholarships for physical education study, research grants, development of instructional and reference materials, and grants to national sport and fitness organizations. Five million dollars was made available to carry out the purposes of the Act.

Throughout the 1960s both Canada and the United States faced nagging amateur athletic problems. In the U.S. there was growing unrest over the continuing N.C.A.A.-A.A.U. dispute and its effects on the calibre of U.S. national representative teams. The Congress spent a tremendous amount of time and energy through various hearings and studies in an attempt to solve the problem but essentially did nothing of any lasting value. The Amateur Athletic Act of 1978 does present a great potential for settling this and other amateur athletic problems but its recency precludes any valid analysis at this time. In Canada people were becoming increasingly concerned over a growing number of international sports defeats, prompting
the government to commission a number of independent studies to look at the entire Canadian sports picture and make recommendations for improvement. The P. S. Ross Report and the Report of the Task Force called for a number of organizational, programmatic, and funding changes to make the federal role in sport more effective. Again in bold fashion, the Canadian government set to the task of implementing these recommendations in a short period of time.

Canada was now headed on a course of greater and greater direct funding for amateur athletics, particularly at the national and international levels of competition. Mass participation programs suffered somewhat as the result of this growing emphasis on elitism. On the other hand, mass participation programs such as jogging, tennis, backpacking and bicycling are growing steadily in the United States, due in part to the efforts of the President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports.

While taking no action of consequence to solve amateur athletic problems, Congress did do a great deal to bring about equality of opportunity in sports and physical education for all students. The Education Amendment of 1972 and the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 greatly improved the programs, instruction, and facilities which were available to women and handicapped students. The Canadian federal system does not lend itself to the passage of equivalent legislation since the provinces
retain all control over education. However, the philosophy of each provincial education department is one of equal opportunity for all students regardless of sex. School programs for handicapped students are limited but the federal government does provide a great deal of technical and financial support to various handicapped sports organizations separate from the school systems.

The comprehensive nature of Bill C-131 has allowed the Canadian federal government to deal with many different problems at the department level resulting in more dynamic change. Some would argue that this change has occurred too quickly with too little thought or study but most would not. The American government, with no supporting comprehensive sport legislation from which to draw power, has been forced to legislate each individual problem separately as it arises. This is most time consuming and ineffective, the problem sometimes having disappeared or changed considerably before the legislation to correct it is passed. The passage of the Amateur Athletic Act of 1978 could be the first step toward the development of a comprehensive sport bill which would afford the United States the same advantages and responsibilities as Bill C-131 provided to the Canadian government.
Chapter IV

A COMPARISON: GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE AND MOTIVATION

The framework around which this comparison of Canadian and American federal government involvement in sport and physical education was built was developed from the earlier works of several comparative physical education and sport researchers but principally that of Semotiuk.¹ The framework developed by Semotiuk was reduced considerably to focus on those components with which this study most concerned itself. Table 1 provides an overview of the framework utilized in this study and its component parts.

Table 1

Framework for Comparison of United States and Canadian Federal Government Involvement in Sport and Physical Education

1. Political, Legislative and Bureaucratic Systems
   --concept of federalism
   --organization of government
   --legislative process and influences
   --judicial system
   --summary and comparison

2. Federal Agencies Involved
   --identification of agencies
   --function and extent of involvement
   --summary and comparison

3. Motivation for Involvement
   --military preparedness
   --labor productivity
   --prestige
   --nationalism
   --individual well-being
   --international goodwill
   --promotion of political ideology
   --summary and comparison

4. Program of Involvement
   --amateur sport support and competitions
   --facilities construction and maintenance
   --research and sportsmedicine
   --leadership development and training
   --national awards/tests
   --planning, technical and advisory services
   --sport and physical education for the handicapped
   --sport and physical education in the schools
   --professional sports
   --recent developments

5. Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations
United States

The United States is governed by a federal system, "in which the functions of government are shared between a central authority and regional authorities, both sets being autonomous in certain areas and deriving their respective powers from the constitution of it, not from each other." The framers of the Constitution did not spell out specific areas of responsibility for both the national and state governments, rather they gave power to the national government over some areas, prohibited the states from adjudicating other areas and finally prohibited the national government from power over other areas. What was left was then given to the states to control. This assignment of powers was not the product of adherence to a preconceived formula but rather was based on the felt need of the times. As a result, changing times and changing needs have led to a

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great number of jurisdictional squabbles between the states and the federal government.

For the most part, the federal government's power has increased over the years with the people welcoming federal control over a greater number of the country's activities, particularly those activities related to the economy and its uncertainties. One of the most powerful devices utilized by the federal government in re-shaping federal-state relations has been the grant-in-aid system of national financing of state activities. In 1945 a group of states fought the federal government for control of state-administered programs being funded by federal grants-in-aid. The Supreme Court ruled in favor of the federal government, stating that "it is natural and proper for the [federal] government to regulate that which it subsidizes." This decision has led to an ever-increasing growth of federal government power.

The federal government is a three-headed structure, the legislative, executive, and judicial branches, each having its own separate powers and responsibilities but interrelated with the other branches. The legislative branch, or Congress, was originally established to be the center of the political system. Essentially very

\[4\] Ibid., p. 50.

conservative with traditions and institutions that make it difficult to successfully challenge the status quo, Congress is composed of the Senate with 100 members (two Senators from each state serving a six year term), and the House of Representatives with its 435 members. The number of Representatives from each state is based upon the population patterns of that state and each member serves for a two year term. The two Houses have legislative equality although the Senate is considered to be the more prestigious body.

An important influence of Congress on national policy and legislation is the standing committee system of each House. After introduction to either House, all bills are referred to a committee for study and evaluation. There are 21 standing committees in the House of Representatives and 15 in the Senate. Traditionally it is only through the recommendation of one of the standing committees that any bill ever reaches the floor of the House or Senate for debate among the full membership. A bill which does not find favor with the committee examining it dies without any further action. Most bills passed on by committee then proceed through a long and arduous course before becoming law although many die at points along the way while a few, usually dealing with matters of national urgency, are passed speedily.

\[6\text{Ibid., p. 69.}\]
While the bills which Congress considers can only be introduced by Congressional members, many of these bills are actually developed by other individuals or groups. For example, in 1951 the A.A.H.P.E.R. developed the School Health Safety and Physical Education Instruction Act but the bill was sponsored and introduced into the House by Representative Priest of Tennessee. Without such arrangements, no bill may be introduced into either House.

With increasing frequency over the years, bills have come out of the Executive Office of the President. Because of strong party links it has been relatively easy for the President to find support and sponsors in the House or Senate for legislative programs developed in the White House. The legislative actions initiated by the President are generally of great importance to the nation, are far-reaching and broad in scope, providing most people with the accurate perception of the President as the legislative leader of the nation. While the men who built the Constitution did not see this as the role of the President, it has certainly come to be so in the past few decades. A number of people have called for greater Congressional and judicial control of Presidential powers, with the actions of

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7Young, op. cit., p. 245.
9Young, op. cit., p. 261.
the Nixon Administration greatly increasing the furor of the debate. Ripley suggests that the President, by his own personal style and the built-in ambiguity of the Office, can emphasize either the powers inherent in the office and seek to maximize them or he can stress the limits on those powers and shrink from certain kinds of action.\textsuperscript{10} It seems clear that the relations between the Presidency and Congress have not achieved their final form. The balance between the two is shifting and unstable and subject to the "accidents of personality."\textsuperscript{11}

As well as being influenced greatly by the Presidency, Congress has come to accept influence from other Executive branch sources, primarily from the eleven Executive Departments and their bureaucracies, and the Office of Management and Budget. (see Table 2) Routinely every congressional committee sends every bill before it to the Executive department affected, as well as the Office of Management and Budget for their opinions. The judgment of the O.M.B. includes a statement of whether the bill is in accord with the legislative program of the President.\textsuperscript{12} These influences and opinions are maximized by the liaison offices each Department maintains with the Congress.

\textsuperscript{10}Ripley, op. cit., p. 122.
\textsuperscript{11}Young, op. cit., p. 242.
\textsuperscript{12}Ripley, op. cit., p. 160.
### Table 2

**Major Executive Agencies Within the U.S. Federal Government**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Cabinet</th>
<th>The White House</th>
<th>Independent Offices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>State (original)</td>
<td>White House Office</td>
<td>Atomic Energy Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defense (original)</td>
<td>Office of Management and Budget</td>
<td>Federal Reserve System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treasury (original)</td>
<td>Council of Economic Advisors</td>
<td>General Services Administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Justice (1870)</td>
<td>National Security Council (CIA)</td>
<td>National Aeronautics and Space Administra-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interior (1849)</td>
<td>Domestic Council</td>
<td>Civil Service Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture (1862)</td>
<td>Council on Environment Quality</td>
<td>Veterans Administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commerce (1903)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Civil Aeronautics Board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labor (1913)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Federal Communications Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health, Education and Welfare (1953)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Federal Power Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing and Urban Development (1965)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Federal Trade Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation (1967)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Interstate Commerce Commission</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The flow of influence between the Executive branch and Congress is not one-way however. Congress does hold a number of powers over the Executive, the most important of these being the "power of the purse." As with all other bills, appropriations legislation must pass both Houses and Congress has not been unknown to check Presidential or bureaucracy powers by withholding much-needed funds. Also, the President is powerless to stop the passage into law of any bill even after he has vetoed it providing both Houses can muster a two-thirds majority in support of the vetoed bill. The Senate holds approval power over all major Presidential appointments, and must ratify all treaties. The concentrated efforts of President Carter to win Senate approval for the Panama Canal Treaty reflects the power which the Congress can exert over the Presidency.

Political-interest groups have grown into a major force in American politics because of their ability to influence both the Executive branch and Congress. A tremendous number of these groups exist promoting policies which benefit all or a select few. Through their lobbying and other forms of influence, these groups have persuaded Congress to act in a manner which most benefits the members of the interest group. Some of these lobbies, such as consumer protection groups, have been greatly concerned for the welfare of all citizens while others, such as big-business groups, have only sought to help themselves,
usually at the expense of the ordinary citizen. The one
great weakness of the system of political-interest groups is
that too many people are excluded from the process. Until
the time comes when these groups mirror all segments of
society, the potential of these groups in helping to make
the entire political system work will be only partially
realized.13

The third branch of the federal government, the
Judicial, is made up of a system of District Courts,
Circuit Courts, and the Supreme Court. These courts will
hear only specific cases involving the federal government,
groups of more than two states, or questions involving the
Constitution. They do not have any direct input into policy-
making, only indirect influence through their rulings in
cases which have wide-ranging implications for policy or for
the whole political system.14 All other branches of
government are constitutionally obliged to defer to the
views of the courts. In this light, the Judicial branch has
a high degree of independence which the other two branches
do not.

13 Robert S. Ross, American National Government
Canada

In 1867, through the British North America Act, the provinces of Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island joined together to form the Dominion of Canada. Although independent from Great Britain the Dominion was anxious to maintain a strong connection with British political institutions. The preamble to the B.N.A. Act, in fact, stated that the people of these provinces desired "a Constitution similar in principle to that of the United Kingdom." As a result many of the vestiges of British government found their way into the new country but the most significant feature of the Canadian form of government—the concept of federalism—was adapted from the United States rather than the United Kingdom.

The federal form of government was very necessary in 1867 in view of the poor network of communication between regions in the vast areas of Canada and the deeply rooted tradition of local self-government which had developed over the previous 100 years. In adapting the federal concept to suit their own needs and objectives, the Canadian founders awarded certain powers to both the national and provincial

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16 Ibid., p. 40.
governments, and were ambiguous in other important constitutional matters, resulting in the necessity for on-going federal-provincial negotiations for the right to administer these matters. These negotiations have become a central process in Canadian policy-making, often resulting in conflict and tension but permitting the accommodation of both central and regional interests. Attempts have been made to reduce tensions between the two levels of government through various federal-provincial financial arrangements. The federal government is becoming more committed to helping the provinces realize effective programs of benefit to provincial residents. Tax-sharing agreements, conditional grant programs, shared-cost ventures, and joint programs such as medical insurance and pension plans are but a few examples of attempts to effectively institutionalize the federal concept. Post-secondary education is another area of federal-provincial cooperation. Federal fiscal transfers to the provinces pay over 50 percent of the total expenditures for post-secondary education. In addition, the Adult Occupational Training Act of 1967 calls for the

19 Ibid., p. 313.
21 Ibid., p. 98.
federal government to fully support the retraining of adult members of the labor force thereby freeing the provincial governments from any financial or other obligations in this area. However, federal-provincial relations remain somewhat less than cordial.

The government in Ottawa consists of three branches, the executive, legislative, and judicial. Queen Elizabeth II, as Queen of Canada, is representative of the strong ties with Britain. Although having no influence or input into the legislative process, the Queen, through her representative in Canada (the Governor-General) does act as the head of state. In this capacity she confirms Senate and cabinet appointments, opens all sessions of Parliament, and gives assent to all legislation passed through the Canadian Parliament before it becomes law. These powers are subject to change or removal only by Parliament.\(^{23}\)

The executive branch is composed of the Prime Minister and his Cabinet of Ministers. All are Members of Parliament by custom as is the Prime Minister although the Constitution does not require this.\(^{24}\) The cabinet acts as the center of power in the government; it controls the business of the House of Commons, develops government policy, prepares the budget, introduces most legislation, and

\(^{22}\)Ibid.  \(^{23}\)Mallory, op. cit., p. 32.  
\(^{24}\)Dawson, op. cit., p. 182.
administrers the business of the various government depart­
ments, agencies, and commissions. 25 Recently however, the
center of gravity in making decisions has shifted from the
cabinet ministers to the large staff of public servants who
administer the departments day-to-day. The expanding tech­
nical and detailed nature of decisions have forced cabinet
ministers to delegate decision-making authority and in­
itiative to these public servants but the cabinet must still
assume all responsibility for the conduct of their own
department. 26 (For list of departments, see Table 3)

The legislative branch, or Parliament, includes the
Senate and the House of Commons. The Senate's 102 members
are all appointed by the Prime Minister and serve until their
75th birthday. The Senate acts as a restraining and revising
body to protect the nation against any errors of impulse by
the House of Commons. The value of the Senate is today
questionable since it has been pushed further and further
into the background with few or no Senators serving in the
past several cabinets, thereby diminishing its influence
considerably. 27 It is considered by most to be merely a
"rubber stamp" for the House of Commons and an unnecessary
expense to the Canadian people.

25 Mallory, op. cit., p. 32.
26 A. Paul Pross, Pressure Group Behavior in Canadian
Politics (Toronto: McGraw-Hill Ryerson Limited, 1975),
p. 189.
27 Dawson, op. cit., p. 318.
Table 3  
Departments of the Federal Government of Canada

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Departments</th>
<th>Ministries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>Ministry of State for Science and Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communications</td>
<td>Ministry of State for Urban Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer and Corporate Affairs</td>
<td>Ministry of State for Fitness and Amateur Sport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment and Immigration</td>
<td>National Defense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy, Mines, and Resources</td>
<td>National Health and Welfare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External Affairs</td>
<td>National Revenue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>Post Office</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fisheries and the Environment</td>
<td>Public Works</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian Affairs and Northern Development</td>
<td>Regional Economic Expansion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry, Trade and Commerce</td>
<td>Secretary of State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Solicitor General</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Supply and Services</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The House of Commons has 263 members, all elected by the people to their positions. It is in the House of Commons that all money bills and most other pieces of legislation are introduced and where a bill's fate is decided. A system of special and standing committees has been developed to investigate and analyze proposed legislation and these committees do have some influence on the attitude of the House toward a given bill but the Committee of the Whole, which consists of the entire 263 members, has a much greater influence. The Committee of the Whole approves all government expenditures for the year, authorizes payments of grants, imposes all taxes, and considers all public bills. The path taken by a bill from its inception to receiving royal assent includes several important points where approval must be garnered but acceptance by the Committee of the Whole is the most critical of all.

Pressure groups are becoming more active in the policy-making process in Canadian politics today. While these groups have a tradition of involvement in the political structure, their influence is expanding through increased meetings with individual legislators and Parliamentary committees. Most people, including politicians, support the concept of pressure groups as active participants

28 Ibid., p. 383.
in the political process in that these groups can represent greater numbers of people before the government, can provide the public with an easily understood interpretation of legislation, and they can provide the government with "expert" opinions on specific issues. The value of these groups is tempered somewhat by their self-seeking motives. Occasionally the narrow perspective of a pressure group distorts the influence or effect of a particular government program or piece of legislation, resulting in a misinformed electorate.

The third branch of the government, the judiciary, is distinct and independent from both the executive and legislative branches. The Criminal Code of Canada guides the judiciary in its administration of criminal justice throughout the ten provinces and two territories. The provincial governments have no responsibility in this area whatsoever beyond the training and employment of peace officers who enforce the Criminal Code along with various provincial and municipal ordinances. The highest court in the country, the Supreme Court of Canada, is a group of nine judges who make the definitive Canadian judgments on all criminal matters brought before them. The Federal Court of Canada, formerly the Exchequer Court, hears suits and other similar matters involving the federal governments.

\[^{30}\text{Ibid., p. 188.}\]
The Provincial Court of Appeals, the Court of the Queen's Bench (in Saskatchewan), and the District Courts are inappropriately considered "provincial" courts because they are often housed in provincial buildings and their numbers determined by the provincial governments but the judges in these courts are all federally appointed and paid, and they hear cases involving violations of the federal Criminal Code. Beyond these courts are the minor provincial courts which deal exclusively with civil suits and local ordinance violations. The appointment of federal judges is by the Prime Minister and the Minister of Justice and is somewhat connected to the jurists' political party affiliation. However, party affiliation does not, thankfully, play an overbearing role in these appointments.

Summary

The Canadian and United States' systems of government are similar in that they are both based on the concept of federalism but several differences are found within and beyond this foundation. The Canadian electorate send only members of the House of Commons in Ottawa, Senators being appointed by the Prime Minister, but American voters elect the members of both Houses in the U.S. Congress. In both nations legislation must pass both Houses before it can

31 Dawson, op. cit., p. 427. 32 Ibid., p. 443
become law, however the U.S. President can veto a bill while neither the Prime Minister nor Queen have any such right. The United States' judicial system operates on a dualistic principle allowing each state to develop its own separate criminal code while in Canada there is but one criminal code, that of the federal government, which is administered throughout the country.

Differences between the two countries in their implementation of the federalism concept can be seen by the fact that the Canadian founders gave more power to the provinces than the American fathers gave to the states. Also, the power of the Canadian federal government is centralized in the Cabinet by a Parliamentary system which does not allow for disagreements between the cabinet and the House of Commons. As a result, most government bills which reach the floor of the House of Commons for a vote are passed by the House. The on-going federal-provincial power struggle has caused a great deal of dissatisfaction within provincial governments, so much so in Quebec that the provincial government there is now actively pursuing secession from Confederation. Settling this specific problem and other related ones will require significant changes in the Canadian constitution over the next few years and represents one of the greatest challenges Canadian leaders have faced since Confederation in 1867.
The United States federal government, while not confronted with significant states' rights issues, has become extremely complex and fragmented. A separation of powers among the executive, legislative, and judicial branches, coupled with a tremendous bureaucracy of three million civilian employees, eleven major departments and over 40 independent agencies and regulatory commissions, and the power and influence of a tremendous number of lobby groups demands an extraordinary degree of cooperation and compromise among the participating bodies. The large number of sport and physical education bills which have been defeated over the years in Congress reflect the great deal of compromising and political maneuvering needed to get any bill through both houses. Change in such a system can only occur in very small doses.

There are advantageous and disadvantageous aspects of the systems of government in Canada and the United States but neither country can live with the status quo. Canada must find a more readily defined sharing of powers between the provinces and the federal government if it is to survive as a nation while the United States must develop a greater unity within the executive and legislative branches if it is to effectively manage the business of government.
FEDERAL AGENCIES INVOLVED IN SPORT
AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

No precise inventory of every federal agency having any responsibilities in the area of sport and physical education has been uncovered and the author does not wish to present this study as such an inventory. Rather, the purpose here is to develop an overall picture of the various types of agencies which have become involved with sport and physical education and to provide some details of those agencies and programs which play a significant role in this area.

United States

Presently in the United States there are nine cabinet-level departments and a total of at least 20 federal agencies which conduct programs or activities in sport and physical education. Of these, only one, the President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports, deals exclusively with sport and physical education. The remainder, through various sub-units, regulate professional sport matters, award grants, build facilities, provide services, sponsor research and preparation of physical education personnel, and conduct programs in addition to their other responsibilities not related to sport and physical education. Table 4 shows those federal agencies most involved in sport and physical education matters.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>U.S. Federal Agencies Involved in Sport and Physical Education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>State</strong>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--International Communication Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--Office of Overseas Schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Defense</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--Office of Civilian Marksmanship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Treasury</strong>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Justice</strong>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interior</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--Bureau of Outdoor Recreation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--National Parks Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Agriculture</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--Food and Nutrition Service</td>
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<tr>
<td>--Farmers Home Administration</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Commerce</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>--Economic Development Administration</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Health, Education and Welfare</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>--President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Housing and Urban Development</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>ACTION</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--Peace Corps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--V.I.S.T.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Federal Communications Commission</strong>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Occupational Safety and Health Administration</strong>*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Professional sport involvement
The President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports is composed of a Council of 15 Presidential appointees and an Advisory Conference of 100 sports figures, also appointed by the President. A staff of four full-time and several part-time professionals put into operation the policies developed by the Council and conduct the Council's day to day business matters. The P.C.P.F.S. is part of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare and reports to the Secretary of H.E.W. as well as to the President. This organizational arrangement is only for "housekeeping purposes" as the Secretary of H.E.W. has very little to do with the P.C.P.F.S. leaving it to report essentially to the President only. Its purpose is to act as a catalyst for private industry and state governments, through their education departments, to initiate and operate physical fitness programs and activities. The P.C.P.F.S. operates a four part program including:

1. Public information on fitness and related matters

2. Program development in cooperation with state and local governments, voluntary associations, sports governing bodies and private industry

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34 Statement by Mr. C. Carson Conrad, Executive Director, President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports, personal interview, Washington, D.C., June 7, 1979.
3. Technical assistance for schools, colleges, clubs, recreation agencies and other federal agencies concerned with fitness.

4. Special programs such as the Presidential Physical Fitness Award and the Presidential Sports Award. Other programs have been developed in cooperation with private industry.

The Council does not administer grants in any form but does maintain an on-going liaison with other Federal agencies which do administer grant programs. Through this liaison effort the Council is able to direct prospective grant recipients to the appropriate agency. In this fashion the Council does play a role, albeit a minor one, in the administration of several grant programs. Its prime function remains "to educate, advise, and encourage." 36

The International Communication Agency through its Sports Programs is concerned with international sport issues. Specific responsibilities include:

1. Maintaining close cooperation with national and international sports and physical education bodies in order to provide assistance to them in their international programming efforts.

2. Providing seed money and development grants to foster sport exchanges.

3. Serving as a program resource for area offices in the recruiting of American coaches and teams for tours overseas.


36 Ibid.
4. Supporting the International Sports and Physical Education Data System (ISPEDS) which serves as an information retrieval and distribution system for international sports and physical education activities

5. Encouraging private industry support of international sports exchange programs

6. Serving as an action office for public or Congressional inquiries regarding sports issues

7. Providing liaison for the Pan American and Olympic Games Committees

The International Communication Agency has only been in existence since 1977 when President Carter combined the U.S. Information Agency and the Bureau of Education and Cultural Affairs of the Department of State to create the I.C.A.\(^37\) The Sports Programs of the I.C.A. were previously carried out by the International Athletic Programs office of the Department of State, Bureau of Education and Cultural Affairs. The I.C.A., which is responsible to both the President and the Secretary of State, serves as the Federal government's representative to the international sports world. To better coordinate international projects and concerns of other federal agencies, the I.C.A. chairs an informal interagency working group which has members from the Foreign Service, Department of Defense, Peace Corps, and the P.C.P.F.S. This group exchanges information

\(^37\)U.S. State Department, "International Athletic Programs," mimeo, p. 1.

and concerns in an effort to bring about more effective participation in international sports exchanges. 39
Meetings and consultations with private sector groups are also encouraged and symposia in the fields of international sports communication and development are sponsored along with research projects and feasibility studies for the purpose of reducing the communications gap between foreign and domestic sports groups. 40

The huge Department of Health, Education and Welfare does not have any unit which deals exclusively with sport and physical education but its Office of Education does have as part of its responsibility physical education in the schools. The Office of Education carries out studies, develops in cooperation with state departments of education, programs and guidelines for various subjects, publishes teaching aids, manuals, etc., and administers several grant programs. It also serves as an administrator of Howard University 41 and Gallaudet College 42 with both schools' curricula including physical education, varsity athletics,

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40 Ibid.
and intramural activities. These schools, created by Congressional acts, are located in Washington, D.C.

The Bureau of Education for the Handicapped conducts similar projects but all directed at handicapped education. The B.E.H. serves as the focal point for leadership, guidance and support of programs including research and development, professional preparation assistance, and educational services.43

The Department of the Interior is deeply involved with outdoor recreation and has several sub-units such as the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation, the National Park Service, and the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service which have outdoor recreation as their area of prime responsibility. Also, some of the programs and projects undertaken by these agencies provide direct support for sport and physical education. The Bureau of Outdoor Recreation through its Land and Water Conservation Fund Grants provides money to construct various recreation facilities such as tennis courts, ski trails and swimming pools44 while the Urban Park and Recovery Act provides matching grants of 70 percent for the rehabilitation and development of recreation


facilities in economically depressed areas. The Bureau of Indian Affairs is responsible for the administration of Indian schools and as such provides direct support for physical education class programs, interscholastic and intramural athletic programs, and recreational opportunities for Indian students through programming efforts, support of teaching and coaching personnel, and funds for equipment and construction of facilities.

The Community Services Administration oversees the operation of the highly successful Summer Youth Recreation Program. This program, previously known as the National Summer Youth Sports Program, provides sports instruction and competition for thousands of inner-city youths during the summer months in over 50 cities. The C.S.A. cooperates with the National Collegiate Athletic Association in providing these opportunities for youth. The 1964 Economic Opportunity Act established the Community Action Program which provides federal grants for the planning and coordination of community recreation and sports programs. Another C.S.A. administered act which provides support for sport and physical education is the Comprehensive Employment

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47 Ibid., p. 689.
and Training Act. C.E.T.A. provides funds for recreation personnel employment and training, national programs and services, and youth recreation and sport programs.\textsuperscript{48}

The mission of the Peace Corps is to promote world peace and friendship by helping underdeveloped countries meet their needs for trained personnel. Physical education and sports are among the 300 skills offered by Peace Corps volunteers. Most of these volunteers teach physical education in elementary and secondary schools, and colleges in over 25 foreign countries.\textsuperscript{49} Often described as a domestic Peace Corps, V.I.S.T.A. volunteers carry out a variety of assignments in slum areas including the development and implementation of constructive recreation programs for youth.\textsuperscript{50}

These agencies already discussed represent those most heavily involved in sport and physical education but there are many others which make a significant contribution also. The 1980 Winter Olympic Games would have found financing of the Games extremely difficult had it not been for the Economic Development Administration which provided the funds for facilities construction through Economic

\textsuperscript{48}Stefanics, op. cit., p. 1.

\textsuperscript{49}Leading a Successful International Sports Tour, op. cit., p. 73.

Development Grants. These grants are to assist in the construction of public facilities needed to initiate and encourage long term economic growth in areas where such is lagging.\footnote{1978 Catalog of Federal Domestic Assistance, p. 80.} Lake Placid, a small town with little industry or commerce beyond an already sagging tourist trade, was designated as an eligible recipient of these E.D.A. funds and has received over $50 million. Many other cities and towns have also taken advantage of the availability of these funds as well as Public Works Impact Project Grants to construct recreation and sports facilities to revitalize their economy.

The Department of Housing and Urban Development has played a major role in the construction and rehabilitation of public facilities such as stadia, sports arenas, and cultural and recreation centers through the funds available in its Community Development Block Grants.\footnote{Ibid., p. 425.} The 1966 Demonstration Cities and Metropolitan Development Act also provides significant sums, up to 80 percent of the total cost, to improve playgrounds, community recreation and sports facilities.\footnote{Kraus, op. cit., p. 37.}

The Department of Defense contributes to civilian sports programs through the operation of the U.S. Modern
Pentathlon Training Center at Fort Sam Houston, Texas, and the U.S. Army Marksmanship Unit at Fort Benning, Georgia. These are operated and funded by the Army and have proved highly successful in training international competitors, both civilian and military. The Civilian Marksmanship Program of the U.S. Army trains civilians in marksmanship, sets up programs and competitions, loans out equipment and helps pay costs incurred travelling to and from international competitions.

Two branches of the Department of Agriculture provide financial and other support for specific sport and recreation purposes. The Food and Nutrition Service conducts a Summer Food Service for Children which provides on-site food service for all children participating in the Summer Youth Recreation Program. This greatly reduces the cost for children participating in the program and eliminates the need for transportation during meal hours. The Farmer's Home Administration provides recreation facility loans to individual farmers and rural recreation groups for the construction of recreation facilities built as

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55 Ibid.

56 President's Council on Youth Fitness Newsletter, October 1970, p. 4.
part of a commercial recreation enterprise or a public-owned development.

The Justice Department became involved in sport and physical education in 1972 when the Education Amendments were passed, including Title IX. The Civil Rights Division of the Justice Department was charged with the responsibility for enforcing the regulations of Title IX.

A number of federal agencies have developed responsibilities in the area of professional sport. These include:

1) Labor Department which waives existing regulations so that foreign athletes such as Canadian hockey players and Latin baseball players can work here as aliens

2) Justice Department which assesses the implications of antitrust exemptions for professional sports and recently recommended to Congress to end all such exemptions

3) Treasury Department which proposes and administers through its Internal Revenue Service provisions of the tax laws that apply uniquely to sports enterprises

4) State Department which negotiates specific exchange programs and issues visas to alien professional athletes

5) Federal Communications Commission which administers laws and regulations in a number of broadcast areas affecting professional sports

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6) Occupation Safety and Health Administration which has advised Congress that it has jurisdiction over the physical facilities in which contests are played and that it will set industry-wide standards within the next five years.58

There are other federal agencies such as the Federal Bureau of Investigation or the Bureau of Prisons which conduct physical education and training programs but these are not made available to any segment of the civilian population. As a consequence, these programs will not be discussed any further since they are beyond the scope of this study.

The reaction of sport and physical education organizations to this involvement is quite mixed. Table 5 shows that 38 per cent of those questioned felt there was too much federal government involvement in sport and physical education while 32 per cent felt there was too little involvement.

Table 5
Opinions of United States Sport and Physical Education Organizations Concerning Extent of United States Federal Government Involvement in Sport and Physical Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extent of Involvement</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Too Much</td>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appropriate</td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Too Little</td>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Response</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In spite of this disagreement regarding the extent of government involvement, there is widespread support for closer cooperation between the federal government and the national sport governing bodies/educational institutions on issues affecting sport, physical education and recreation. Table 6 shows that 89 per cent of those organizations responding to the questionnaire felt that closer cooperation between the federal government and their organization was needed.
Table 6

Need for Greater Cooperation Between United States Federal Government and National Sports Governing Bodies/Educational Institutions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>No Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In a similar fashion, these organizations expressed a strong desire to achieve greater coordination of efforts among the national sport governing bodies. Table 7 shows that 84 per cent of those organizations contacted felt this need existed while 16 per cent did not.

Table 7

Need for Greater Coordination Among United States National Sport Governing Bodies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>No Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Canada

The Canadian federal government includes 15 departments and agencies with responsibilities of note in the area of sport and physical education. Of these, only
the Fitness and Amateur Sport Branch of the Department of Health and Welfare takes this mandate as its sole responsibility. The remaining agencies have varying limits and interests in the conduct of Canadian sport. (see Table 8)

Table 8

Canadian Federal Agencies Involved in Sport and Physical Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department of Health and Welfare—Fitness and Amateur Sport Branch</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Department of Indian Affairs and Northern Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--National Parks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--Native Populations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department of Regional Economic Expansion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department of External Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of State for Urban Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department of National Revenue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department of National Defense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treasury Board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postmaster General</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canadian Broadcasting Corporation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Film Board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loto Canada</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air Canada</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canadian National Commission for U.N.E.S.C.O.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Fitness and Amateur Sport Branch is composed of four directorates: 1) Sport Canada, 2) Recreation Canada, 3) Program Operations, and 4) Administration and Planning, Research and Evaluation. Sport Canada and Recreation Canada
are program-oriented while the other directorates provide support services. A professional staff of over 60 people work to achieve the principal objective of the Branch which is to raise the fitness level of Canadians and to improve their participation in physical recreation and amateur sport. More specifically, the Branch seeks to:

1. Increase the appreciation for and understanding of fitness, physical recreation and amateur sport

2. Improve the Canadian delivery system of fitness, physical recreation and amateur sport

3. Improve the quality of participation of Canadians in physical recreation and amateur sport

Sport Canada programming covers leadership development, handicapped sports, training, international exchanges, national competition such as the Canada Games, promotional activities, and facilities development and maintenance. Many of these programs are put into operation through "arms-length" organizations such as the Coaching Association of Canada, Hockey Canada, and the National Sport and Recreation Center, organizations funded and influenced to some extent by the federal government but ultimately responsible only to non-government boards of directors. Fitness and Recreation Canada is mainly concerned with


60 Ibid.
physical recreation and mass participation activities. It funds a variety of national agencies which provide recreational opportunities to many segments of the Canadian population. Activities focus on increasing the quantity and improving the quality of both human and physical resources, to provide recreational opportunities and increase the awareness of physical fitness. Financial contributions and consulting services, though of a smaller nature than those of Sport Canada, are provided to groups such as the Canadian Red Cross, the Girl Guides, cycling, orienteering, and a number of associations for native people and the handicapped. 61 Another arms-length organization, Sport Participation Canada, or ParticipAction, is utilized by the Fitness and Recreation Directorate to promote physical activity among Canadians using a variety of marketing techniques including television advertisements and brochures.

The Department of Indian Affairs and Northern Development provides physical education and outdoor recreation opportunities for many Canadians through its National Parks and Native Populations Branches. The National Parks Branch administers 30 national parks which include a wide variety of recreational facilities such as campgrounds, boat launching facilities, horeseriding

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61 Ibid., pp. 11-12.
facilities, and golf courses. The Native Peoples Branch provides elementary and secondary school education for over 280,000 native peoples on reservations in the northern portions of the country. Included in this provision for general education is physical education class instruction and intramural/recreation programs. In cooperation with Recreation Canada, Indian Affairs provides out-of-school recreation programs and facilities and sporting competitions such as the Northern Games, an annual competition which features native Indian and Eskimo games and contests and is designed to help preserve these native populations' cultures.

The Department of External Affairs, as the government's link to the international community, has been very active in sports endeavors. It has advised and financially supported Canadian sports bodies that engaged in international meets and competitions, has helped Hockey Canada bring Chinese players and coaches to Canada to observe and study Canadian training methods, has helped the University of Toronto send its hockey team to China, and has provided support to Team Canada for its participation in the World Hockey Championships.

Following a visit to several


eastern European countries by the Minister of State for Fitness and Amateur Sport, the Department of External Affairs was successful in negotiating a sports exchange agreement with Poland. Such exchanges are seen as an important part in the development of Canada's international athletic productivity. Prior to the 1978 Commonwealth Games in Edmonton, a number of African nations threatened to boycott the Games to protest the appearance of New Zealand, a commonwealth country which had periodically engaged in sports competitions with South Africa. A great deal of negotiating by Prime Minister Trudeau and the External Affairs Department with the African nations averted the threatened boycott and allowed the Games to continue as scheduled. Out of these negotiations came the Gleneagles Declaration against apartheid in sport by Commonwealth heads of government. 64

The Ministry of State for Urban Affairs, created in 1971 to identify and analyze urban problems and to develop policies to improve the quality of life in Canadian cities, has recently become an active supporter of sport and physical education through its Neighborhood Improvement Program and Residential Rehabilitation Assistance Program. These programs provide for the construction of social and recreational facilities such as community centers and

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64 Ibid.
arenas, playgrounds, and swimming pools, as well as for the rehabilitation of similar but older facilities in urban areas.

The Department of Regional Economic Expansion has as its principle objective the increase in number and quality of viable long-term employment opportunities in economically depressed areas. To accomplish this goal, it provides grants to develop services, including tourism and recreation, and for the construction of facilities such as schools, recreation centers, and community sports facilities. Many of these projects are federal-provincial shared-cost arrangements. Post-secondary education receives approximately 50 percent of its needed funds through federal fiscal transfers to the provinces. These funds are used to build gymnasia and other physical education and sport facilities as well as provide for the salaries of physical education faculty and coaching personnel.

Other departments and agencies which have some involvement in sport and physical education are: 1) the Postmaster General which administers the Olympic coin and stamp program; 2) Loto Canada, a crown corporation which operates the national lottery to raise funds for several sport and recreation programs; 3) Air Canada, the national

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66 Ibid.
airlines and another Crown corporation which sponsors several sports competitions including the national midget hockey championships; 4) the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation and the National Film Board, Crown corporations which broadcast large numbers of sporting events, promote and develop films for Canadian sports groups; 5) the Department of National Defense which provides transportation for national teams competing abroad and has played an extensive role in providing security and communications services at Olympic, Commonwealth, and national competitions; 6) Department of National Revenue which regulates taxation of professional sport franchises and recently amended tax laws to specifically exclude professional athletes from tax shelters which they had previously enjoyed; 7) Employment and Immigration which grants visas to visiting athletes and teams. This department was at the center of the Taiwan controversy prior to the opening of the 1976 Summer Olympics in Montreal when the Taiwan team was refused permission to enter the country until they provided immigration officials with assurances that the Taiwan flag would not be paraded during the Games; 8) Canadian National Commission for U.N.E.S.C.O. which advises the federal government, through the Department of External Affairs, on U.N.E.S.C.O. programs, provides liaison between U.N.E.S.C.O. and Canadian agencies directly involved in U.N.E.S.C.O. affairs. The role of this agency is increasing
as U.N.E.S.C.O. increases its own concern for physical education and sport throughout the world.

The Department of Health and Welfare Assistant Deputy Minister chairs a committee of Health and Welfare, National Parks, and Fitness and Amateur Sport personnel which meets periodically to discuss common recreation issues and problems. Not content with this loose arrangement, various private groups have urged that Recreation Canada be made the officially-recognized coordinating body for recreation throughout Canada. Recreation Canada officials have mixed feelings on this however making implementation of such a plan very difficult. No standing committee to coordinate Federal involvement in sport exists although the Department of National Defense and the Fitness and Amateur Sport Branch do maintain an on-going but informal liaison. Sport coordination efforts are on an ad hoc basis, coming into being when specific projects, such as the Olympic or Commonwealth Games, demand a pooling of federal resources and a coordination of efforts.

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68 Statement by Dr. John Richardson, Director of Recreation Canada, personal interview, Ottawa, Canada, March 14, 1979.
The Department of National Defense and the Solicitor General's office, including the Royal Canadian Mounted Police and the Canadian Penitentiary Service, provide extensive sport and physical education programs and facilities to the personnel under their charge. Physical training is an essential part of the training of Armed Forces and R.C.M.P. recruits while physical recreation and sport competition is an integral part of the rehabilitation program of the Penitentiary Service. The civilian population is not afforded access to these programs or facilities however and will not be discussed further in this study.

The Canadian response to the extent of federal government involvement is generally positive with only nine per cent of the questionnaire respondents feeling that there is too much involvement. Fifty-one per cent felt the involvement appropriate and 40 per cent felt too little. (Table 9)
Table 9
Opinions of Canadian Sport and Physical Education Organizations Concerning Extent of Canadian Federal Government Involvement in Sport and Physical Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extent of Involvement</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Too Much</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appropriate</td>
<td></td>
<td>18</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Too Little</td>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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</table>

Along with these feelings, the organizations contacted felt a very strong need for greater cooperation between the federal government and the national sport governing bodies/educational institutions. Ninety-four per cent expressed this need for greater cooperation. (Table 10) This theme of a lack of cooperation has been in evidence for some time. On several occasions the federal government has been accused of being quick to issue policy and start programs but slow to consult, or so indifferent to the practice of consultation that it either ignored it or did it superficially. (Green Paper:6) The federal government has apparently seen the need to improve this condition and has taken steps to do so.
Table 10

Need for Greater Cooperation Between Canadian Federal Government and National Sport Governing Bodies/Educational Institutions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<td>%</td>
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</table>

A large percentage of the organizations responding to the questionnaire also felt the need for greater coordination among the national sport governing bodies. Table 11 shows that 77 per cent felt greater coordination was needed.
Table 11

Need for Greater Coordination Among Canadian National
Sport Governing Bodies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>No</th>
<th></th>
<th>No Response</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
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<td>27</td>
<td>77</td>
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<td>8</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Summary

The data collected would seem to indicate a greater involvement in sport and physical education by the governments of Canada and the United States than people generally perceive to be so. A large number of departments and agencies support or regulate this important aspect of North American life in both direct and indirect means. The United States has at least 20 agencies involved while Canada has 15. Also, there are greater similarities between these countries in the form that this involvement takes than people have perceived to be the case. Both countries have utilized the programs of several agencies with a wide variety of responsibilities to assist sport and physical
education whenever possible. Primary sources of this indirect aid are: 1) economic stimulation programs of the Canadian Department of Regional and Economic Expansion and the U.S. Economic Development Administration; 2) urban renewal and rejuvenation efforts by the Canadian Ministry of State for Urban Affairs and the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development; 3) development of cultural exchange programs by the Canadian Department of External Affairs and the U.S. State Department and International Communication Agency; 4) the administration of national parks and other outdoor recreation areas by the Canadian National Parks Branch and the U.S. Bureau of Outdoor Recreation, U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, and the National Parks Service; 5) the provision for education of Indian children by the Canadian Native Populations Branch and the U.S. Bureau of Indian Affairs; 6) the provision of federal grants to post-secondary educational institutions by Canadian fiscal transfers from the federal government to the ten provincial governments and the U.S. Office of Education.

However, a number of extremely important differences between these countries remain. While the United States and Canada both have one federal agency concerned exclusively with sport and physical education, the Canadian Fitness and Amateur Sport Branch has a much wider and more important role than does the President's Council on
Physical Fitness and Sports. As part of a large bureaucracy and with a substantial budget of over $30 million, the Fitness and Amateur Sport Branch provides direct financial support to sport governing bodies, recreation associations, national teams, individual athletes, and "arms-length" associations such as the Coaching Association of Canada and the National Sport and Recreation Center. The Branch also provides funds for facilities construction and for the hosting of world championships. Mass participation is supported and encouraged through directly administered programs and those of ParticipAction, another "arms-length" organization. In contrast, the tiny President's Council operates on a budget of $1.2 million. It provides no grants whatsoever confining its efforts to educating the public about the values of physical fitness and encouraging state government and private business to support fitness programs. The P.C.F.P.S. does administer the Presidential Physical Fitness Award and the Presidential Sports Award programs, similar to the Canada Fitness Award administered by the Fitness and Amateur Sport Branch. The role of these two agencies in sport development is also contrasted sharply. F.A.S.B. has been a focal point for national sport policy development and leadership. Although often in disagreement with national sports groups, particularly university-affiliated groups, the Branch takes a very active role in attempting to draw the Canadian sports associations
more closely together. The President's Council, on the other hand, has neither the authority, desire, nor influence to play such a coordinating role in the United States.

Congress has given broad regulatory powers over specific sport and physical education matters to U.S. government agencies. Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 and the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 provide for the close regulation of the types of physical education and sports programs offered by all elementary and secondary schools, colleges and universities receiving federal funds in any form. This includes practically every school in the nation. No such government regulations exist in Canada where the provinces adamantly oppose any intrusion into education by the federal government. Despite the presence of these regulations in the United States and the absence of same in Canada, the quantity and quality of opportunities and programs for female students in Canada has been traditionally superior to those offered American girls and women. This is undoubtedly due, in part, to the continued commitment by Canadian educators to the educational purposes of physical education and sports and the rejection of economic motives in providing or failing to provide opportunities for one sex and not the other.
MOTIVATION FOR FEDERAL GOVERNMENT INVOLVEMENT IN SPORT AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

The motives for government involvement in a particular aspect of a nation's life can be, and often are, masked falsely or hidden altogether from public scrutiny. Such practices have been justified as being necessary to protect the "national interest." Also, motivation for involvement changes as international world-wide conditions change. In some cases, involvement in a particular area will cease altogether due to extreme changes in the economic, social, or political climate. These factors make it difficult to assess government motivation particularly in an area such as sport and physical education which, in North America, has built up a stockade of myths and half-truths regarding the relationship of sport with government and politics.  

However it remains extremely important that we achieve some measure of understanding of the motivation for Canadian and American federal involvement in sport if a complete study is to be made. To accomplish this end, various sources have been analyzed including government

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documents and speeches by officials, physical education, athletics, and political science literature, with selected government officials. In addition, interviews were conducted and questionnaires were sent to selected sports officials not connected with either federal government. Questions were asked regarding various aspects of federal involvement in sport.

At times contradictions were found between the interview responses of government officials and the printed records of government actions and policy. Also, there were some discrepancies between government officials' perceptions of various issues and those of non-government sport and physical education organizations. However, these instances were not of a frequency or severity to detract from conclusions drawn in this section.

United States

The United States federal government has, for many years, been concerned with maintaining a physically fit population, sometimes as preparation for military service. The Hale America program, conducted during World War II through the Office of Civilian Defense, was a national fitness movement designed to better prepare men of military age for active service. The High School Victory Corps, another wartime program, also emphasized vigorous activities

and exercises but confined itself to the high schools of the nation. Long after the war was over President Kennedy continued to make reference to the military necessity of a fit population calling the poor fitness levels of Americans "a menace to our security as well as our ability to live up to the challenges which lie ahead." At a White House Conference in 1961 Commissioner of Education Sterling McMarrin stressed the importance of physical fitness "in these times of international tension." The U.S. Army continues to contribute to the training of civilians for active service through the Civilian Marksmanship Program as well as providing for sporting competitions.

Fitness as a means of achieving individual well-being is more vigorously endorsed by the federal government. The President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports has developed programs to help people achieve higher levels of health and fitness and to use their leisure time more effectively. The non-strenuous nature of some of the programs offered and the fact that many efforts are directed at people of post-military service age clearly points out the non-military motives of this agency's work. Only eight percent of those responding to the questionnaire

felt that the government used its involvement in sport and physical education to achieve militaristic ends. The available data would seem to indicate that while military motives have been very important during wartime, and still find some forms of expression today, fitness for health and individual well-being, unrelated to any military motive, is much more important to the federal government.

Economic and labor motives have also been of importance through the years. During the Depression numerous programs, having a relationship to sport and physical education, were started but their primary importance was the creation of jobs and the stabilization of the economy. The Works Project Administration, the Civil Works Administration, and the National Youth Administration all conducted programs of this type. Today the Community Services Administration and its Community Action Programs, V.I.S.T.A., and the Economic Development Administration carry on this tradition of sport and physical education projects designed to fulfill economic improvement objectives. Only 11 percent of the questionnaire respondents felt economic motives influenced the government's involvement.

The federal government has not failed to overlook the prestige value of international sporting victories. In 1964 Attorney-General Robert Kennedy urged reconciliation of the N.C.A.A.-A.A.U. dispute on the grounds that the disagreement between these two athletic bodies would
diminish the quality of the U.S. Olympic team and hence, U.S. prestige abroad would suffer.\textsuperscript{73} Vice President Humphrey predicted humiliation in the 1968 Olympics "unless we buckle down to the task of getting young Americans ready to do battle in the Olympics."\textsuperscript{74} The State Department carried out an extensive study in 1965 which attempted to gauge the effects of U.S. international sports achievements on attitudes toward the United States generally. The study, not declassified until 1977 found that a degree of political prestige often accompanied prestige gained through athletic competition.\textsuperscript{75} The study recommended that careful selection of athletes, coaches, and teams to tour specific countries with the objective of increasing prestige for the United States in those countries.\textsuperscript{76} It would be interesting to note the number of U.S. athletes and coaches who travelled to Third World nations after 1965 and to evaluate their success in increasing U.S. prestige. A majority (68 percent) of the questionnaire respondents felt that the government seeks international prestige through its involvement in sport and physical education.

\textsuperscript{74}New York Times, May 24, 1966, p. 46.
\textsuperscript{76}Ibid., p.17.
There is some evidence to suggest that the federal government has used sport for nationalistic purposes. Sport is seen by many as a cultural force which binds people together and this may justify, even necessitate government action to prevent significant changes in its nature so that future generations may enjoy sport as we currently know it.\(^7\) The baseball anti-trust exemption was motivated by a concern to see baseball remain as a viable economic enterprise which would continue to pull all parts of the nation together in the "Great American Pastime." Similarly, the government, in granting the National Football League teams permission to bargain collectively for television contracts, prohibited the telecasting of any professional games on Friday evening or at anytime on Saturdays, the times when college football games were played.\(^8\) This allowed Congress to provide the public with greater access to an emerging national force (professional football) while ensuring that an established national force (college football) would not suffer in any way. The Congressional charter of Little League Baseball states as one of its objectives, "to help and assist boys develop qualities of citizenship...",\(^9\) while Richard Nixon, in proclaiming National Coaches Day

\(^7\)Johnson, op. cit., p. 325.


in 1972 stated, "whether or not they achieve athletic
distinction, most of those who participate in organized
sports will become better citizens . . ."  

Other statements by government leaders referring to the nationalistic
benefits of sport can be found throughout the literature.  

Thirty percent of those questioned believed
nationalism to be a motivating factor in the federal
government's role in sport.

The government's attitude toward encouragement of
individual growth, development, and self-fulfillment through
sport appears to be quite strong. President Kennedy felt
we could only achieve our full potential through an active
sporting life while Vice President Humphrey stressed
that the government would not subsidize athletes directly
since this would make them more agents of the state and would
detract from the joy and satisfaction of their participa-
tion and achievements. Some of the Community Action
Programs discussed earlier as part of the government's

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economic motives, also encourage individual satisfaction and feelings of accomplishment. The National Youth Recreation Program was originally, and remains today, an important government program to provide the nation's youth with the opportunity to engage in a variety of sports and activities and enjoy the benefits of such participation. Sixty-two percent of those polled felt the government wished to encourage individual and personal growth through its involvement in sport and physical education.

The State Department has been very active in developing international goodwill through sports for several years. Senator Stuart Symington, speaking in support of the State Department program of international exchanges said, "There is no better ground of common interest than the field of sport for Americans to win friends among the people of other countries." Singer concurred with the view believing that "Sport possesses the potential for influencing, over a long term, change in the area of diplomacy and international relations." The international exchange program has been very successful helping ease the U.S. into closer relations with China, Russia, and Cuba. The accomplishments of "Ping Pong Diplomacy" have been well

documented as have the exchanges with the U.S.S.R. during the 1960s. It remains to be seen how successful the sports exchanges with Cuba will be in reducing political tensions. Seventy-seven percent of those responding to the questionnaire were of the opinion that a desire to promote international goodwill motivated the U.S. government to become involved in sport and physical education.

There was undoubtedly, from time to time, a desire to spread U.S. political ideology throughout parts of the world via sport competitions and/or exchanges. The State Department study mentioned earlier suggested that sports be used as a medium to provide access to groups that might otherwise remain inaccessible to "official" U.S. representatives in order to spread political and social ideologies. However, there is little evidence to suggest a strong commitment on the part of the government to the utilization of sport in the pursuit of such ends although 22 percent of the questionnaire sample felt there was such a government commitment.

\[87\text{Study of the Impact of Sports on the Achievement of U.S. Foreign Policy Objectives, p. 14.}\]
Table 12
Opinions of United States Sport and Physical Education Organizations Regarding U.S. Federal Government Motivation for Involvement in Sport and Physical Education

<table>
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<th>No</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Don't Know</th>
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</thead>
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</tr>
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<td>7. military preparedness</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>68</td>
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</tr>
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</table>
The Canadian federal government has been involved in sport and physical education throughout this century. The wide variety of programs and projects supported or administered reflect changing motives and concerns. In 1908 the Canadian Militia-sponsored Strathcona Trust was established incorporating physical training and military drill into the school curriculum. While the Trust did provide for fitness activities and teacher training, the preparation for military service and defense of the country dominated its reason for being.  

The National Physical Fitness Act of 1943 was also the result of the government's desire to have a better prepared and physically fit populace to stave off the threat of the Axis powers. An alarming number of men and women had been found unfit for military service, prompting the quick passage of this bill. As the Second World War came to an end the needs of the nation changed and the motives of the government moved away from military preparedness.

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During the Depression economic motives guided the federal government in creating the Youth Training Programme. This program was designed to train unemployed youth and provide job opportunities. Recreation and sporting activities, incorporated into the program, were seen as a means of increasing its effectiveness. Following the war, the great influx of service veterans into the work force and the lack of employment opportunities demanded some action by the government. One result was the Veterans Training Course for Recreation Leaders established in Halifax in 1946. The course was less than successful and was discontinued the following year.

In the 1950s the absence of war and a booming economy provided the government with the opportunity to pursue its obligation to ensure the health and well-being of all Canadians. Statements by government officials clearly point out this motivation. M. B. Dymond, speaking in support of the proposed Bill C-131 said:

In wartime, government must give leadership because it alone has the authority to do all that is necessary in defense of our land. In peace time, too, it is equally essential that government provide needed help to communities in all reasonable efforts to improve the health of the nation.

\[90\] Ibid., p. 7. \[91\] Semotiuk, op. cit., p. 275.

In a similar vein the Duke of Edinburgh stated, before the Canadian Medical Association in 1959:

There is evidence that despite everything, people in Canada are not as fit as they might be . . . some scheme, therefore, which exists to encourage participation in all sports and recreation, for all ages and sections of the community is absolutely essential to any modern community with a high standard of living.93

The Duke's remarks were very instrumental in garnering enough public support to ensure passage of Bill C-131 shortly afterwards.

This Act, while supposedly based on a rationale of fitness and health benefits for all Canadians, found other motives lying beneath its surface. Principal among these was international prestige. The 1969 Task Force Report, recalling the attitudes of M.P.'s during Bill C-131 debates in 1961, stated that, "there was an unspoken all-party attitude that it was essential to do something for Canadian sport, but that such action was politically risky unless fitness could be used as a cover."94 By 1969 the prestige motive had gained momentum and had come out of the closet. Concern over a growing number of Canadian defeats in international competition grew to the point where Prime Minister Trudeau appointed the Task Force to find ways to improve


Canada's sports image. The attitude of government toward international sports defeats was expressed in the Task Force Report:

The defeats our national teams have suffered have had an adverse effect, not only upon our hockey reputation, but upon the standing which Canada generally has abroad. Officials of the Department of External Affairs have assured us that this deterioration in the overall image of Canada abroad, and especially in Europe, because of our recent failures in hockey, is of much concern to them.95

Three years later, following the first Canada-Russia hockey series, Douglas Fisher, a former Member of Parliament and a member of the series' organizing committee, spoke out against the prestige motivations which dominated the series:

International sport, particularly the Olympics, has always had a contradiction in it. The idealists theorize sweetly about the bridging and brotherhood accomplished by the contests and the association of athletes from different countries, unsullied by political motivation. All the while this "the game's the thing" is touted, the emphasis has kept building on winning, winning for national pride, medal totals and point scores. Now we Canadians have shared in this contradiction and found victory most important.96

Little heed was shown these dissenting views as the prestige motive has continued to be an integral part of the federal government's rationale for its support of sport. Present Assistant Deputy Minister of Health and Welfare, Peter Lesaux, supports the prestige motive stating, "sport is very much a part of the vibrancy and credibility of a


nation. The central government has the responsibility to assist, abet, and foster sport as part of the nation being represented internationally." Data from the questionnaire showed that 100 percent of the sport groups polled believe the motive of international prestige through sport victories to be of importance to the federal government. Similar findings were reported by Semotiuk in 1970.

While the prestige motive may have been camouflaged for a time, the desire to use sport as a tool of nationalism has never been hidden by the Canadian government. From their inception, the Canada Games were used as a unifying force in the country, or as John Munro described them, "an exercise in Canadianism." The Canada Games Handbook explains:

Through the pageantry of the opening and closing ceremonies and through the social milieu of a national multi-sport event, the Games help to strengthen mutual understanding among the athletes and encourage national unity through sport."

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97 Lesaux, loc. cit.  
Earlier, the Task Force Report had urged the government to greater involvement in sport from a nationalism perspective. It said:

Because of the nature of international sporting competition, and the new significance attached to it, it is inevitable that sooner or later our national government must take a hand in a matter so closely bound up with Canada's place in the world, as we Canadians and as others see it. It seems to us that the time has now arrived, both because of developments in Canadian sport, and because of the crisis in our national life.\(^1\)

In 1974 Toronto businessman John Bassett tried to establish a World Football League franchise in that city. Fearing that the introduction of "American" football to Canada might detract from the success of the Canadian Football League, Minister of Health and Welfare Marc Lalonde introduced legislation which would prohibit the World Football League from playing in any Canadian city. The preamble of this bill read:

And whereas Canadian football developed for itself a unique national institution to the strengthening of the bonds of nationhood and it is in the national and public interest that an effort be made to protect this institution from the encroachment of foreign sponsored enterprises.\(^2\)

Lalonde went on to stress that the Canadian Football League was an institution, much like the national railroad, which bound Canada together.\(^3\)

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\(^2\)House of Commons Debates (April 18, 1974), pp. 1561-1572.
\(^3\)Ibid.
In 1978 Sport Canada urged the speedy merger of the National Hockey League and the World Hockey Association since such a merger would bring more Canadian cities into the N.H.L. and would allow for the creation of a Canadian division within the league. The inter-city rivalries expected from this arrangement were seen as another unifying force in Canadian life. The concept of the federal government using sport as a unifying force is apparently accepted by most sport organizations questioned with 83 percent believing this to be a motivating factor to the federal government.

The government feels an obligation to provide opportunities for individual growth, development and achievement in all fields of endeavor, including sports and recreation. The Proposed Sports Policy for Canadians begins,

Our policy is about people—the greatest number of Canadians possible—increasing their participation in sports and recreational activities, and improving the benefits they can enjoy from such participation. The Task Force, believing that too little attention was being paid to this aspect of Canadian life stated,

104 Lefaive interview.
We feel that a form of culture which involves perhaps 90 percent of our people is a valid field for government support and interest . . . particularly because sport makes such a central contribution to our awareness of ourselves.106

More recently Peter Lesaux has stated that the government has a definite responsibility to assist young people achieve high levels of performance in sport as in ballet, music, or art.107 This responsibility or obligation to help people achieve personal satisfaction looms greater at the community/mass participation level than with elite performers whose success, or lack of, strongly reflects on "the credibility of a nation." Ninety-seven percent of those non-government sports groups responding to the questionnaire felt that the government used sport as a medium to assist people achieve personal growth and accomplishment.

Several nations, including Canada, have used sport in an attempt to foster international goodwill. The Canadian efforts have not been as concerted as those of other countries but are still worthy of attention. J. Waldo Monteith, Minister of Health and Welfare in 1961 believed that sport, " . . . could have a vital bearing on the achievement of understanding and friendship among nations and peoples."108 Further, he felt that the promotion

106Ibid., p. 13 107Lesaux interview.

of international goodwill was the greatest contribution of international athletic competition. The government apparently did not concur with Monteith since few exchanges were initiated by Canada until 1972 when Sport Canada and the Department of External Affairs started the International Exchange Program sending athletes and teams to Cuba, Russia, China, Mexico, and several Far Eastern countries, and hosting many of these same countries' athletes in Canada. Non-government sports groups strongly (86 percent) believed international goodwill promotion helped motivate federal government support of sport and physical education.

A minimum of evidence was found linking government involvement in sport to the promotion of a particular political ideology, although there were some references to the "triumph of democracy over communism" following the 1972 Canada-Russia hockey series. Only 23 percent of the sports bodies polled felt that political ideology motives helped direct government involvement in sport and physical education.

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109 Ibid.
Table 13
Opinions of Canadian Sport and Physical Education Organizations Regarding Federal Government Motivation for Involvement in Sport and Physical Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Yes %</th>
<th>No N</th>
<th>No %</th>
<th>Don't Know N</th>
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<td>5. promote political ideology</td>
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<td>23</td>
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<td>46</td>
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<td>6. increase labor productivity</td>
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<td>17</td>
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<td>7. military preparation</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>5</td>
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Summary

A number of different purposes have been found to underlie both American and Canadian federal government involvement in sport and physical education. The prestige, nationalism, goodwill, and individual well being motives are evident in both nations but the order of importance of these motives varies considerably. While the Canadian government actively pursues increased international prestige through its sports programs, the United States is motivated by the opportunities sport presents to improve international relations. The pattern of increased funding for elite athletes in Canada and the statements of government officials supporting the prestige motive provide us with a clear view of Canadian government motivation. The long and consistent record of the U.S. State Department's exchange program and the present program of the International Communication Agency lends considerable support to the contention that goodwill motives stand behind U.S. government sport programs.

The Canadian government has also capitalized heavily on the unifying force of sport, both professional and amateur. This is not unexpected considering the social and geographical barriers to a strong unified populace which exist in Canada. The United States makes some use of sport as a nationalizing agent but other institutions such as the schools are utilized in this capacity to a much greater
extent. Also, the needs for strong unifying forces are not as great in the United States with its deep sense of history and 'melting pot' traditions.

As democratic countries, both the Canadian and United States' federal governments feel a moral obligation to assist the individual citizen achieve a state of well-being. Sport and physical education have been successfully utilized by both nations in this regard. However, the tremendous number of bills passed by Congress guaranteeing specific sports' rights to all citizens coupled with the decreasing funding for mass participation in Canada indicates a slightly stronger motivation to assist the individual in the United States than in Canada although the questionnaire results on this issue would seem to indicate otherwise.

Certainly the United States has gained a measure of prestige through its teams competing in international sports events and there are some indications that the State Department used sports tours by selected American athletes and teams to increase U.S. prestige in particular countries. However this evidence does not show a deep government commitment to utilization of sport as a prestige-increasing vehicle.

In a similar fashion, Canada has achieved some success in promoting international goodwill through sports competitions and exchanges but the improvement of international relations was incidental to the technical lessons learned and the prestige gained by Canada in these competitions.
Neither country shows any strong evidence supporting economic, military or political ideology concerns as motivation for involvement in sport and physical education although both countries do support economic improvement programs which are indirectly associated with sport, and the United States Army does administer a sport program (riflery) which has as one of its objectives the preparation for military service.
Chapter V

PROGRAM OF INVOLVEMENT

The purpose of this chapter is to describe and compare specific selected programs of areas in terms of federal government involvement. Information and data were gathered from the literature and government documents, and the questionnaire. Each program or area was presented individually, including a summary, to allow for some measure of detail in the comparisons. The section entitled "Recent Developments" was utilized to describe and compare the effects and influence of the passage of the Amateur Athletic Act in the United States and the development of a national sports policy in Canada.

AMATEUR SPORT AND COMPETITIONS

United States

The United States has no record of federal grants to amateur sport or physical education organizations for operating or development purposes although legislation has been passed periodically permitting one-time appropriations to such organizations for specific projects such as the Olympic or Pan American Games. Also, the Amateur Athletic Act of 1978 provides for the appropriation of $16 million
to the U.S.O.C. to operate national training centers and as "seed" money for sportsmedicine programs but the dispersement of these funds is slow to be realized. Primary sources of support, other than for facilities construction, have been through indirect means such as the provision of security and communications services at Olympic and Pan American trials and competitions by Armed Forces personnel. Table 14 shows that 68 per cent of those polled felt that the government does not provide adequate funding for sport and physical education. Athletes and officials have demanded greater government financial assistance to sport for several years\(^{1,2,3}\) but they were completely unsuccessful until the 1978 Amateur Athletic Act and its limited provisions for financial assistance was passed.

Table 14

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adequacy of United States Federal Government Financial Assistance to Sport and Physical Education Programs</th>
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</table>

With such a scarcity of funds for amateur sport, the development of a pattern of preferential treatment in distributing those funds would be most difficult to detect. Consequently, only 30 per cent of the questionnaire sample felt that the government did distribute funds in a preferential manner. (Table 15) However, only 11 per cent evaluated the mechanism for distribution of funds as efficient. (Table 16) Thirty per cent were unable to offer an evaluation of the mechanism for distribution possibly due to a lack of familiarity with the mechanism.

**Table 15**

**Preferential Distribution of Funds to Sport and Physical Education Programs by United States Federal Government**

<table>
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<tr>
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**Table 16**

**Effectiveness of Distribution of United States Federal Government Funds to Sport and Physical Education Programs**

<table>
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</table>


A number of national competitions are administered by agencies of the federal government. The Marine Corps conducts the Annual Marine Corps Physical Fitness Championships for high school students. In 1978, the thirteenth annual competition had 1600 high schools and 97,000 students involved from the preliminary rounds to the finals.\(^4\)

The U.S. Army provides competitive opportunities in marksmanship for members of the civilian population. Army funds are made available for travel to and from competitions and to provide for equipment and training.

The President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sport is engaged in sponsoring a number of national competitions in cooperation with other groups. The National Explorer Olympics, sponsored by the Council, A.A.U., U.S.O.C., and Boy Scouts of America are held every two years and attract some 2000 competitors. The Junior Superstars is to be held in cooperation with a soft drink manufacturer while the Pitch, Hit and Run National Competition is sponsored by the Council, the National Recreation and Park Association, and a retail shoe store chain. The Council has indicated that it is actively pursuing other agreements

with private industry to assist in the sponsorship of other sport and fitness competitions.\footnote{5}

Canada

Since 1961 the Canadian federal government has progressively increased its financial support of amateur sport and recreation. Funds are derived from three principal sources: Sport Canada, Recreation Canada, and Loto Canada. Sport Canada provides direct grants and administrative support services to the national sport governing bodies to strengthen their programs and provides financial assistance to selected athletes through grants and university scholarships. Recreation Canada provides grants to recreation associations. Loto Canada, as of December 31, 1973, has provided $132 million to the Olympic and Commonwealth Games committees, and another eight million dollars to the Fitness and Amateur Sport Branch for distribution among the sport governing bodies.\footnote{6}

The Canadian sport and physical education organizations are apparently not content with the amount of federal money being spent (Table 17) or with the preferential manner in which these funds are distributed (Table 18).

\footnotetext{5}{Statement by Dr. Matt Guidry, President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports, personal interview, Washington, D.C., June 7, 1979.}

\footnotetext{6}{Loto Canada, Information brochure, 1978.}
Table 17
Adequacy of Canadian Federal Government Financial Assistance to Sport and Physical Education Programs

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Table 18
Preferential Distribution of Funds to Sport and Physical Education Programs by the Canadian Federal Government

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Excessive spending on elite athletes and Olympic sports to the detriment of recreation and mass participation was a common complaint of the respondents. With regards to the efficiency of the distribution mechanism, 51 per cent felt the mechanism inefficient. (Table 19) In 1976, several athletes who were receiving assistance through Game Plan, a Sport Canada-Canadian Olympic Association joint program
of direct assistance to elite athletes, threatened to boycott the Olympic Games unless the program was streamlined to provide easier access to the available funds. Sport Canada officials claimed that the procedures were essential to maintain complete accountability for these funds which were derived partly from tax revenues.

Table 19
Effectiveness of Distribution of Canadian Federal Government Funds to Sport and Physical Education Programs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>No Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The federal government supports a number of competitions. The Canada Games, both Winter and Summer, are the country's major national sporting competition, bringing together 2500 athletes from all the provinces and territories. In 1976-1977 Sport Canada provided $1.5 million towards capital and operating costs for the 1977 Summer Games and $1.1 million for organizational costs for the

8Statement by Mr. Peter Lesaux, Assistant Deputy Minister, Department of National Health and Welfare, personal interview, Ottawa, Canada, March 13, 1979.
In addition $1.6 million was made available to individual sport governing bodies to conduct national and regional sport trials and championships. Associations hosting world championships also receive substantial financial support from the federal government. The 1967 Pan American Games and 1978 Commonwealth Games, both hosted by Canadian cities received over ten million dollars in federal funds.

Recreation Canada provides annual support to the Northern Games, a competition of traditional athletic and recreation activities for Canada's northernmost inhabitants, and to the Special Olympics. In 1976-1977, $96,000 was provided for these competitions.

Summary

The United States federal government has had an extremely limited role in the funding of amateur sport while the Canadian government has played the most dominant role in the funding of Canadian amateur sport over the past 18 years. Despite its excellent record of support, the Canadian federal government still faces criticisms from sport and physical education organizations regarding the

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10 Ibid.

amount of funds provided and the manner in which they are dispersed. The U.S. federal government also faces these same complaints, but justifiably so in view of its performance in this area.

No competition of any consequence is provided by the U.S. federal government. The marksmanship competition provided by the U.S. Army is the only competition sanctioned by a national or international sports federation. The remainder of the competitions are limited to fitness activities or skill-development and are directed exclusively at the youth population.

Canada, on the other hand, has again produced an admirable record of support to and development of national and international competition opportunities for its amateur athletes. These competitions include the Canada Games, individual national sport championships, and World Championships and have been utilized fully in dramatically improving Canada's standing in the Olympics and Commonwealth Games as well as providing a unifying force within the country.
United States

A large number of federal agencies contribute to the construction of sport and physical education facilities in the United States. Those having the greatest impact are:

1) Department of Housing and Urban Development through Community Development Grants. The President's Commission on Olympic Sports felt this source of federal funds to be very important.

2) Economic Development Administration which has already committed over $70 million to the 1980 Winter Olympic Games facilities in Lake Placid. Of course, the E.D.A. provides funds for much smaller community projects such as design and construction of swimming pools and tennis courts.

3) Department of Agriculture through its Recreation Facilities Loan Program. This provides loans to individual farmers and rural communities to develop recreation facilities in those rural areas where such facilities are in demand.

4) Department of Health, Education and Welfare and 1965 Higher Education Act grants. These grants have provided funds for college physical education facilities for several years and remain a most important source today.

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13 President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports Newsletter, April, 1971, p. 10.
5) Bureau of Outdoor Recreation through the Water Conservation Fund Act of 1965 which provides matching grants to states and cities to acquire, develop, or plan recreation projects.

6) Amateur Athletic Act of 1978 which provided $16 million to the U.S.O.C. to assist in the financing and administration of national training centers.

Through the implementation of Title IX the federal government has provided the influence needed for the construction of athletic and physical education facilities for girls and women in schools and colleges which previously had poor or non-existent facilities for the female student. The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 has had a similar effect in providing facilities for the handicapped.

Despite these efforts and outcome, 81 per cent of U.S. sport and physical education organizations polled are dissatisfied with the amount of money made available for facilities by the federal government. (Table 20)

Table 20
Adequacy of United States Federal Government Financial Assistance to Facilities Construction and Maintenance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No Response</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Also, 78 per cent felt there was a need for more or better quality facilities in the U.S. with the need for national training centers being cited most frequently. (Table 21)

Table 21
Need for More Facilities in the United States

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>No Response</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With regards to the construction and operation of national training centers, Table 22 shows that most (78 per cent) supported a cooperative effort between government and private organizations while a similar number were opposed to complete government funding and control.

Table 22
Support for U.S. National Training Centers Under Various Funding and Control Schemes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Funds and Control</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>No Response</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>78</td>
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<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government and Private Cooperation</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Canada

The Canadian federal government has engaged the resources of few agencies in the construction of sport and physical education facilities. The Ministry of State for Urban Affairs and the Department of Regional Economic Expansion have played a significant role in providing arenas, swimming pools, tennis courts, and other community facilities. The Fitness and Amateur Sport Branch, while maintaining a policy of not providing grants for the installation of capital equipment and facilities, has attacked the problem of a lack of facilities in the country (Table 23) through other avenues. The Canada Games have been used as a means to upgrade and construct facilities in each of the host cities with the federal government contributing one third of the cost. This program has produced specialized facilities such as an international rowing course and a track and field training center in Burnaby, British Columbia and a sportplex and international speedskating oval in Lethbridge, Alberta.


The 1977 Summer Games site of St. John's, Newfoundland, received $1.5 million for capital improvements and Brandon, Manitoba, site of the 1979 Winter Games, a comparable amount. In addition, the Commonwealth Games, through a special grant, received eight million dollars for facilities development in 1976-1977.

A program of assistance to organizations to pay up to $50,000 toward the installation of artificial turf in already completed stadia was instituted in 1972. The cities of Edmonton, Hamilton, Toronto, and Vancouver all enjoyed the full benefits of this program. In 1978, Iona Campagnolo provided $18.5 million to various cities to upgrade and expand their hockey arenas. These funds have yet to be provided to the cities however.

Another program of importance is the Physical Resources Development Program which was approved by the Treasury Board in 1975 to provide up to $2.5 million over three fiscal years for the expansion or upgrading to international standards of new and existing university sports facilities. The assistance is allocated on an equal basis whereby each of the five regions--the Atlantic Provinces, Quebec, Ontario, the Prairie provinces and the Northwest Territories, and British Columbia and the Yukon--can receive

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18 Ibid. 19 Ibid.
20 Toronto Globe and Mail, June 12, 1979, p. 35.
up to $500,000. The federal government will pay no more than 20 per cent of the total cost to any one institution. Already several universities have taken advantage of this program including Dalhousie University, University of Manitoba, University of Moncton, Sherbrooke University, and University of Toronto. Recreation Canada has had a very minor role in facilities development providing only fitness trails in the cities of Ottawa and Toronto.

Table 23 shows that 80 per cent of Canadian sport and physical education organizations are not satisfied with the funds appropriated by the federal government for facilities construction.

Table 23
Adequacy of Canadian Federal Government Financial Assistance to Facilities Construction and Maintenance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>No Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 24 shows that 80 per cent of the respondents feel there is a need for more or better quality facilities in Canada. Swimming pools, field houses, and multisport complexes were most frequently mentioned as most needed.

Table 24
Need for More Facilities in Canada

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>No Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The concept of developing a national training center has been proposed by several politicians, from Judy LaMarsh in 1966 to Iona Campagnolo in 1978. The concept has always met with resistance, most people feeling that the vastness of the country and the scarcity of population is not effectively served by a national center.22 The idea of regional centers has more appeal to some.23 Table 25 shows that if a national center were to be built, 83 per cent of the sport and physical education organizations would support a

\[\text{Robert F. Osborne, "Should Canada Have a National Sports Centre?," Journal of the Canadian Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, XXXII (June-July 1966), p. 27.}\]

\[\text{Ibid.}\]
government-private cooperative effort and only 31 per cent a government funded and operated center.

Table 25
Support for Canadian National Training Center Under Various Funding and Control Schemes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Funds and Control</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>31</td>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17</td>
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<td>29</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government and Private Cooperation</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>83</td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary

The United States, through the efforts of several federal agencies and its schools and colleges, has developed an extensive array of sport and physical education facilities with little need for an increase in development. The need for more national training centers is noted however. Canada, with fewer federal agencies involved and fewer schools and universities from which to draw assistance, has not developed the same number or quality of facilities. Efforts are being made to develop better facilities through the Canada Games and other international championships hosted by Canada and through the Physical
Resources Development Program which provides assistance grants to universities. Still the primary responsibility for facilities construction remains with the provincial and municipal levels of government. It would appear that the U.S. federal government has contributed much more to the development of sport and physical education facilities than has the Canadian government in Ottawa.

RESEARCH AND SPORTSMEDICINE

United States

The United States federal government has had an outstanding record of financial support to basic and applied research in all disciplines over the years but, until very recently, there had been no means of coordinating sportsmedicine or fitness research or of disseminating the information to coaches, trainers, and athletes. On October 15, 1978 Bill S.2474 cleared Congress providing for the establishment within the Department of Health, Education and Welfare an Office of Health Information, Health Promotion, Physical Fitness and Sportsmedicine. Part of this office's functions will be to make grants and enter into contracts to conduct research and establish model physical fitness programs, and to establish a program

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of project grants to conduct research into the problem of athletic injuries. To carry out this mandate, an appropriation of $15 million over a three year period was included in subsequent legislation. The President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports, which already liaises with other federal agencies conducting related research grant programs, was designated as the advisory body to the new Office. This will assist in research coordination and development efforts.

Other recent federal assistance to sportsmedicine came from the Amateur Athletic Act of 1978 which included a $16 million appropriation for the U.S.O.C. to utilize in the funding of its training centers and as "seed" money for sportsmedicine programs. Previous to this legislation the Office of Education, National Institute of Health and other federal agencies had been, and remain, very active in the support of research and sportsmedicine. However, Amateur Athletic Act and Bill S.2474 mark the first time that federal funds have been set aside

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27 Ibid.

28 President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports Newsletter, April, 1971, p. 10.
specifically for sportsmedicine and fitness research and provide hope for greater coordination and development of all such research carried out in the nation. Considering the recency of these efforts and the uncoordinated nature of previous research, it is not surprising to note that 78 per cent of sport and physical education organizations felt the federal government did not provide sufficient funding for research and sportsmedicine programs. (Table 26)

Table 26
Adequacy of United States Federal Government Support to Sportsmedicine and Research Programs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>No Response</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Canada

Bill C-131 provided for research and fitness testing from its beginning in 1961 through to 1971 when the research program was discontinued. The 1961-1971 period saw the funds directed toward research increase steadily as well as providing for the development of fitness research centers at the Universities of Alberta, Toronto,
and Montreal. 29 Too great an emphasis on basic research and too few applied research projects were the reasons cited for discontinuation of the program. 30 Some special projects were funded by the Fitness and Amateur Sport Branch over the next few years 31, 32, 33 but these have been relatively insignificant efforts. The Branch does provide limited funds to the Canadian Academy of Sports Medicine and the Canadian Athletic Therapists Associations, two groups which conduct various research projects but the primary source of Federal assistance has reverted to individual departments and the Canada Council which provide grants to a variety of disciplines and professions. These grants have also been in a state of decline over the past few years. 34


The development and dissemination of research findings has improved considerably over the past two years with the Coaching Association of Canada decision to publish a journal for coaches which would "convey to the coaches of Canada's amateur athletes a diversity of information that will enable them to increase their coaching effectiveness." The journal has initiated the process of "bridging the gap" between researcher and coach/athlete and plans for further Coaching Association ventures in this area are underway. Table 27 clearly shows the Canadian sport and physical education community's dissatisfaction with the amount of funds made available for sportsmedicine. Only 29 per cent felt federal support in this area was adequate.

Table 27
Adequacy of Canadian Federal Government Support to Sportsmedicine and Research Programs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>No Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>25 71%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Summary

The United States federal government appears to be moving toward a greater effort in the area of support and coordination of research and sportsmedicine. Recently passed legislation had provided funds specifically for this research and shows promise of more effective utilization of research findings by coaches and athletes. Canada, on the other hand, has moved in the opposite direction providing fewer and fewer funds for research and sportsmedicine programs, preferring to concentrate its efforts and funds on other aspects of sport and physical education development and on the application and dissemination of outside research findings. Provided Canada maintains a close relationship with researchers in Canada and abroad and is permitted immediate access to their findings, this emphasis on the development of research findings rather than on the funding of the research itself may prove to be a most effective strategy.
United States

The U.S. federal government has had some involvement in sport and physical education leadership development through a variety of avenues for several years. The most consistent effort has been that of the President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports. Since 1956 the Council has been staging workshops, demonstrations, and clinics in cooperation with State and local governments, voluntary organizations, sports governing bodies and private enterprise to promote the development of physical fitness leadership. Over 180,000 elementary and secondary school teachers have participated in Council leadership development activities.37

The U.S. Office of Education has also promoted workshops and conferences on school-community recreation and physical education leadership training while the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 provides grants for supplemental educational centers and services and in-service training for recreation and physical education

leaders.\textsuperscript{38} These funds, although limited, have assisted groups such as the A.A.U. Weightlifting Division, U.S. Baseball Federation, and the U.S. Field Hockey Association to support and promote the development of coaches and leaders.

The State Department has assisted in the development and training of coaches from other countries by sending American coaches abroad to conduct clinics and in inviting groups of foreign coaches to the United States to study under U.S. coaches.\textsuperscript{39} Table 28 shows that 14 per cent of those U.S. sport and recreation organizations who responded to the questionnaire received federal financial assistance to conduct leadership development projects while 19 per cent received promotional assistance, including P.C.P.F.S. endorsements and other forms of free advertising.

\textit{Table 28}

\textbf{United States Federal Government Provision of Support for Leadership and Coaching Development}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Support</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>No Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotional</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Canada

Leadership development and training has been an integral part of the Fitness and Amateur Sport Act since its inception. In the early years of the program, fellowships and bursaries were provided for graduate study in physical education to build a corps of leaders in that field while coaching and leadership clinics and workshops were conducted for hockey, track and field, and other groups such as the Y.M.C.A. The emphasis placed on leadership training is evidenced by the fact that by 1968, one third of all grants to national sport associations were allocated to that purpose. In 1970 the Coaching Association of Canada was created to "permit sports governing bodies to pursue with greater vigor the development of their coaching programs." Since its beginning, the C.A.C. has had a tremendously positive influence on the development of Canadian coaches through its National


41Annual Report 1963-1964, p. 3.


Coaching Development Program which includes certification for coaches in 45 sports. By 1977 over 12,000 coaches had completed the first two levels of this five level program.

Sport Canada has also contributed to the development of a strong sport and physical education leadership through its provision of salaries for technical and executive directors for the many national associations along with support of national coaches' salaries. Fifty-four associations presently take advantage of these salary provisions while 15 national coaches and a similar number of apprentice coaches are supported by Sport Canada funds. A concerted effort to improve the quality of officiating was undertaken in 1972 and has increased the number of internationally accredited Canadian officials from 95 to 200.

Recreation Canada has also been very active in leadership training and development. Some activities include physician workshops, adult fitness leaders courses and employee fitness training courses for public servants.

47 Ibid.
Organization such as the Boy Scouts, Girl Guides, Canadian Canoeing Association, and Canadian Badminton Association all have been provided with financial or technical support for leadership programs. 49

Table 29 shows that 97 per cent of Canadian sport and physical education organizations responding to the questionnaire received financial support from the federal government for leadership projects while 77 per cent also received promotional support from the government.

Table 29

Canadian Federal Government Provision of Support for Leadership and Coaching Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Support</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th></th>
<th>No</th>
<th></th>
<th>No Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotional</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary

Leadership development and training programs conducted and supported by the U.S. federal government have been restricted to physical fitness and recreation.

activities with little involvement in the area of competitive athletics and sports. This contrasts sharply with the situation in Canada where federal funds and services have provided for graduate study in physical education, recreation leadership training, and a model coaching development and certification program. The need for coaching development is so much greater in Canada since its athletic and sport programs are not tied as closely to the educational system as in the United States. The Canadian government efforts have apparently filled this need in a most effective manner. While the physical education professional preparation programs of the American colleges and universities have done an admirable job in preparing coaches for school sport programs, nothing of any consequence has been accomplished in providing even minimal training or development for non-school athletic program coaches. With the rapid growth of youth sport programs in the past few years a growing need for leadership/coaching training has developed and will soon demand some satisfaction.
The U.S federal government has had a very limited experience in administering or supporting national awards or testing programs. Since 1960 only two such programs, both administered by the President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports, have been offered. In 1964, under the direction of Stan Musial, the Presidential Physical Fitness Awards program was launched to provide physical fitness incentives for boys and girls between the ages of ten and 17. The Council provides score sheets, application forms, test manuals and promotional materials to schools and clubs who carry out the actual testing. Over 15 million boys and girls try to achieve the Award annually with a total of five million having done so over the 14 year history of the program.

When the President's Council was expanded to include sports participation programs in 1968, the Presidential Sports Awards were established. This sports participation and incentives program is for people aged 15 and over and has awards available in 40 popular participant sports.

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50 President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports, "A Brief History," mimeo, p. 3.
51 Conrad interview.
The sport and physical education organizations responding to the questionnaire were reserved in their evaluation of the success of the Presidential Physical Fitness Award and the Presidential Sports Award. As Table 30 shows, only two per cent rated them as excellent while 54 per cent rated them as satisfactory and 41 per cent as poor.

Table 30
Evaluation of the Presidential Fitness Awards

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Response</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Federal involvement in the area of national awards and tests does not extend beyond the programs of the President's Council. Table 31 shows that 54 per cent of the organizations contacted administer some type of skill-testing or awards program but zero per cent receive any assistance for these programs from the federal government.
Table 31
Provision of United States Federal Government Funds for Privately Administered National Awards/Testing Programs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Private Awards/Testing Programs</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
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<td>Program Offered</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federal Funds Provided</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Canada
The involvement of the Canadian federal government in sport and physical education has resulted in four national awards and testing programs being developed. The first was the Centennial Athletic Awards program which was created as part of the 1967 Centennial celebrations. The award recognized outstanding achievement in sport at all levels of competition. The tremendous success of the Centennial program led to the development of the Canada Fitness Award program which started in 1970. This program, for youth aged seven to seventeen, was based on six Fitness

Performance Tests developed in cooperation with C.A.H.P.E.R.\textsuperscript{54} and hoped to encourage a nation-wide interest in fitness through participation in a continuous and measurable program. By 1978 over 1.8 million youth had won the Canada Fitness Award.\textsuperscript{55}

Recreation Canada has been involved in the development of the Canadian Home Fitness Test. This test, completely self-administered, was first presented to the Canadian public in March of 1976\textsuperscript{56} as a simple means of assessing one's own cardio-respiratory fitness. In addition to this test, Recreation Canada is presently evaluating the results of a pilot project which utilized the standardized Fitness Test, a sophisticated test battery for use by paramedical, physical education and trained lay people, as an evaluation tool in an industrial/commercial environment.\textsuperscript{57} Table 32 shows that only 14 per cent of the questionnaire respondents evaluated the overall success of the Canada Fitness Awards as "excellent" while 31 per cent felt that the program had been poor.

\textsuperscript{55}Fitness and Amateur Sport Annual Report 1977-1978, p. 22.
\textsuperscript{56}Fitness and Amateur Sport Annual Report 1975-1976, p. 2.
Table 32
Evaluation of the Canada Fitness Awards

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Response</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The government contributed to other awards and testing programs also. Table 33 shows that 49 per cent of the questionnaire sample administered some type of national award or skill-testing program and 41 per cent of these received federal government assistance for the programs.

Table 33
Provision of Canadian Federal Government Funds for Privately Administered National Awards/Testing Programs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Private Awards/ Testing Program</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>No</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Program Offered</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federal Funds Provided</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Summary

The Canadian and American federal governments have both developed physical fitness awards programs and have both, at one time, administered a sports award program. Canada no longer conducts any sport award program but it does provide support to sport governing bodies for their own sport awards and skill-testing programs. It seems that Canada has made greater efforts to improve testing procedures and to increase participation through innovations such as the Canadian Home Fitness Test and the newly-developed Standardized Fitness Test. The limited audience of the Presidential Fitness Award is a deterrent to greater success for the program and requires a more imaginative effort to overcome. Both programs have, however, made a significant contribution in the fight to build a more physically fit population.
United States

Sport and physical education organizations are afforded planning, technical or advisory services by three federal agencies. Chief among these is the President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports which consults with schools, colleges, clubs, recreation agencies and major employers on physical fitness/recreation program design and implementation. The Council receives an average of 20 requests per month from corporations for consultative advice in developing fitness programs and is anxious to increase this number. The Council also disseminates technical information through a large number of publications and clinics. A 1973 study indicated that the government, and particularly the President's Council, was the source of fitness information for over 40 per cent of those Americans seeking such information.

58 President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports Information brochure.


60 President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports Newsletter, May, 1973, p. 3.
Other agencies which provide advisory services are the International Communication Agency and the Foreign Service. The services offered by these agencies are all related to sports exchanges or foreign tours by athletes and teams. The International Communication Agency provides information about international sports such as foreign and domestic tournaments, tours, conferences, and clinic schedules to all interested parties. It also advises groups considering foreign tours on topics such as how to finance a tour, pre-tour preparations, publicity, travel arrangements, conduct while abroad, and customs procedures upon return. These services were all formerly provided by the Department of State, Office of International Athletic Programs. The Foreign Service provides sports tours or exchanges with briefings on the country being toured and its political situation, assistance in contacting local sports organizations, advice on press interviews and other public relations activities.

The limited scope of the planning, technical and advisory service offered by the federal government helps to explain why only 16 per cent of the sport and physical education organizations who responded to the questionnaire had utilized any of these services in the past two years. (Table 34)


62 Ibid.
Table 34

Utilization of United States Federal Government Planning, Technical and Advisory Services by Sport and Physical Education Organizations in Past Two Years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Canada

The planning, technical and advisory services available to Canadian sport and physical education organizations are concentrated in the Fitness and Amateur Sport Branch and Department of External Affairs. Consultants have been an integral part of the Fitness and Amateur Sport program since 1965 when they were hired to help the sport governing bodies plan three year development programs which would increase funding and administrative efficiency.\textsuperscript{63}

These consultants also worked very closely with the sport governing bodies in assessing projects and programs receiving federal financial assistance.\textsuperscript{64} In this way

\textsuperscript{63}Fitness and Amateur Sport Annual Report 1966-1967, p. 5.

\textsuperscript{64}Ibid.
the consultants provide a direct link between the federal government and the sports and recreation programs being conducted across the country. As the sport governing bodies expanded their programs, the consultants were increasingly called upon for technical and advisory assistance. Between 1965 and 1978 the consultant staff grew from four to 20, an indication of the demand for their services.65 Recreation Canada consultants have helped establish employee fitness programs in the Capital Area66 and have held clinics to educate health and fitness professionals in the administration of fitness tests67 as well as helping recreation organizations improve their administration and planning of programs.68

The Department of External Affairs provides planning and advisory services to athletes and teams preparing for competition abroad. Information about the country(ies) to be visited along with travel protocol and customs requirements are made available.69


69 Lesaux interview.
Table 35 shows that 40 per cent of the questionnaire respondents have utilized the planning, technical and advisory services of the federal government in the last two years.

Table 35

Utilization of Canadian Federal Government Planning, Technical and Advisory Services by Sport and Physical Education Organizations in Past Two Years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Response Yes</th>
<th></th>
<th>Response No</th>
<th></th>
<th>No Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary

While the President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports provided physical fitness planning, technical and advisory services to schools, colleges, and businesses, little is available to competitive sport groups other than foreign travel assistance and advice. Sport organizations requiring consultative services must look to private consultant firms for assistance but the cost is often prohibitive, forcing the sport organizations to develop their own, and often ineffective, solutions to the problems at hand. The resulting haphazard and uncoordinated nature of sport planning in the U.S. has been a major obstacle.
to the development of a greater number of international calibre athletes.

Contrastingly, Canadian sport, fitness, recreation, and physical education groups all are provided with the excellent services of planning, technical and advisory consultants. This has enabled most groups to develop consistent long-range planning and has provided a measure of coordination among all groups, thereby increasing administrative funding and technical efficiency. The development of a national sport policy would have been many years away without the cooperative planning efforts of the sport governing bodies and government consultants.

**PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SPORTS FOR THE HANDICAPPED**

**United States**

There are approximately 35 million handicapped individuals in the United States. Since 1965 the in-school sport and physical education opportunities afforded these individuals has become of increasing concern to the federal government. In that year the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped was established in the Office of Education as a focal point for leadership, guidance, and support of programs.\(^70\) A great deal of work was necessary since a

1965 H.E.W. study showed that only 12 per cent of all elementary and secondary schools in the nation offered some type of physical education program for the handicapped.\(^1\) The Bureau established a program of grants to fund research and development projects, to assist students become professionally trained as physical education teachers, and to bring about better coordination of educational services. In 1973 the Rehabilitation Act was passed to protect handicapped persons against discrimination because of their handicap. In 1975 the Education for All Handicapped Children Act was passed providing special funding to ensure inclusion of physical education and recreation programs as a defined part of special education.\(^2\) The research, leadership development, demonstration projects, and advisory services of the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped coupled with the legislative authority of these laws has greatly assisted the handicapped achieve some measure of equality with non-handicapped in the school setting but this assistance has not carried over to competitive out-of-school sports. The 30 regional and national associations which conduct athletic programs


for the handicapped receive no funds from any government agency for development, administration, or competition expenses. The President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports provides promotional consideration and endorses several of these groups' activities, often serving as co-sponsor, but it does not provide any grants or other financial assistance. Closely related to handicapped programs, the President's Council has put considerable emphasis on programs for the physically underdeveloped. Promotional and educational materials, testing assistance, and program development assistance have been made available to a wide variety of agencies with particular attention paid to the schools.

The sport and physical education organizations involved in this study are apparently cognizant of the lack of federal support for handicapped out-of-school sports, 59 per cent evaluating the government's efforts "poor." (Table 36).

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75 The Physically Underdeveloped Child, p. 8.

76 Conrad interview.
### Table 36

**Evaluation of United States Federal Government Efforts to Assist the Handicapped in Sport and Physical Education**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Response</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Canada**

Canadian federal government involvement in sport and physical education for the handicapped is a recent development. Prior to 1970 none of the handicapped sports organizations received any federal funding or assistance but in 1970 the Canadian Wheelchair Sports Association received a federal grant of $6,100\(^77\) followed by a grant of $11,000 the following year.\(^78\) Since that time federal concern for and assistance to handicapped or disabled sports and recreation groups have increased tremendously. The 1977 grant was approximately a half a million dollars or ten per cent of the total Recreation Canada expenditures.\(^79\)

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\(^78\) Ibid.

Part of these funds were used to develop provincial advisory councils to assist organizations develop more coordinated programs.\textsuperscript{80} In 1977, disabled skiers were sent by the government to Europe for a series of international competitions.\textsuperscript{81} Perhaps the most striking example of the government's desire to bring about greater opportunity for the disabled is the awarding of student grants-in-aid and other forms of athlete assistance to disabled athletes within the same terms of reference as applied to able-bodied athletes.\textsuperscript{82}

In 1977 a technical liaison officer was hired by the Coordinating Committee--Sport for the Physically Disabled, his role being to provide a technical link between sport governing bodies and handicapped sport and recreation organizations.\textsuperscript{83} Through his efforts with the Coaching Association of Canada and the technical directors from the sport governing bodies, adaptations for the physically disabled have been added to existing coaching certification

\textsuperscript{80}Ibid., p. 20.
\textsuperscript{83}Coordinating Committee/Sport for the Physically Disabled, Information Brochure.
programs. Slides, films and technical manuals have also been prepared in several sports. The Coaching Association has also hired an Information Officer on Sport and Recreation for the Disabled to coordinate on a national scale the initial development of an index of information on sport and recreation for the disabled.

In spite of these efforts and obvious gains, some dissatisfaction remains among the sport and physical education organizations. Table 37 shows that 23 per cent of the questionnaire respondents rate government efforts of support to handicapped programs as "poor" while 46 per cent rated them as "satisfactory" and 14 per cent excellent.

Table 37

Evaluation of Canadian Federal Government Efforts to Assist the Handicapped in Sport and Physical Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Response</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

85 Ibid.
86 Ibid., p. 12.
Summary

The United States has exerted considerable influence on the conduct of physical education and sport for the handicapped in colleges and schools through a number of legislative acts designed to reduce or eliminate discrimination toward the handicapped. While these efforts are commendable and have done a great deal to improve the lot of the handicapped, little has been done to improve the sport and physical education opportunities available to the disabled in out-of-school settings. A great deal more needs to be done in this area since handicapped's needs for sport and physical education do not end upon graduation from school.

The Canadian federal government has taken a very different course, confining its efforts to out-of-school programs. This is primarily due to the nature of federal-provincial powers which exclude federal intervention in any education matter. The programs which have been developed and the opportunities which have been made available to handicapped sportsmen and sportswomen are indeed noteworthy and could provide provincial education departments with the needed incentive to develop comparable quality in-school sport and physical education programs for the handicapped.
The influence of the federal government on sport and physical education in the schools has been increasing steadily since the early 1960s. The primary source of influence has been Congress which has enacted a large number of laws to provide for greater equality of opportunity in the educational system for all students. Among the more important Acts passed having an influence on school sport and physical education are:

1) Higher Education Facilities Act of 1963 which provided federal funds for the construction of college facilities

2) National Defense Education Act which provided grants and loans to college students and encouraged many to enroll in physical education professional preparation programs along with other education programs

3) The Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1973 which provided a number of grants for the development of physical education programs

4) The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, discussed earlier in this chapter, which provided for the availability of physical education for all handicapped students

However, the Act having the greatest impact on school sport and physical education thus far is Title IX of the Education Amendment of 1972 which specifies equality of opportunity in physical education and athletics for all students, regardless of sex. A great deal of controversy
and debate surrounded this piece of legislation with most of the furor centering around athletics. Many male college athletic directors and coaches felt that the implications of Title IX would destroy "big-time" college sport and consequently they spent thousands of dollars lobbying against the bill in Washington. It has been stated that, the "N.C.A.A. spent $200,000 lobbying to avoid sharing a dime with women."\footnote{Mark Leepson, "Women in Sports," \textit{Editorial Research Reports}, I (May 6, 1977), p. 338.} However, the legislation was passed and college athletics are still flourishing and participation by women in varsity athletics has increased dramatically. Between 1971 and 1975 the number of female high school varsity participants grew by over one million.\footnote{Betty Spears and Richard A. Swanson, \textit{History of Sport and Physical Activity in the United States} (Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Company, 1978), p. 296.} Also, new sports have been added for women including softball, lacrosse, and ice hockey. The great numbers of women on the athletic scene have put increased pressures on already tight budgets. Through sound fiscal management and the elimination of "frills," most programs have been able to continue with adequate funding.

The legislation also brought about the merger of formerly separate men's and women's physical education and
athletic departments at all levels of education leading to the development of an entirely new co-education curriculum.

The President's Council has influenced physical education class programs toward a greater fitness awareness through its Presidential Fitness Awards program, and program of lifetime sports clinics and demonstration schools. A great number of teachers have attended and participated in Council workshops/clinics and have returned to their classes with new ideas for implementation.

This past year the N.C.A.A. underwent a Congressional investigation which attempted to determine whether the N.C.A.A. had acted unfairly and perhaps illegally in the enforcement of its rules and regulations. The House Committee threatened legislative action if the N.C.A.A. did not clean up its policies in the near future. The effect that this warning will have on the N.C.A.A. cannot be determined at this time but some observers feel that nothing will change despite the warnings by Congress.

Table 38 shows that 35 per cent of the sport and physical education organizations responding to the questionnaire felt that the federal government had provided a positive influence on school programs. Forty-three per cent did not respond, possibly due to their lack of familiarity with school programs.

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89Ibid., p. 278.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Influence</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
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<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Influence</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Response</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 38**

Evaluation of United States Federal Government Influence on the Conduct and/or Development of Physical Education in the Schools

Canada

The influence of the Canadian federal government on sport and physical education in the schools has been limited by the terms of the Canadian constitution which provides the provinces with sole responsibility for education matters. A few programs still have been successful in bringing the federal government into an active role in the conduct of school sport and physical education. An important part of Bill C-131 prior to the 1970s was the provision of funds to encourage undergraduate and graduate study and research in physical education. Many students had their education financed by the federal government in this manner, greatly increasing the number of trained teachers and researchers. The more recent program of
assistance-to-athletes has not had the same positive influence. This program provides post-secondary scholarships in any field to highly skilled athletes to enable these athletes to combine their athletic career and education without undue financial strain. An important negative influence of this program has been the clustering of these athletes at institutions where the national coach was on the staff, thus throwing university conferences out of balance.\textsuperscript{90}

The Physical Resources Development Program which provided funds to universities to upgrade new and existing facilities to international standards has provided many schools with better facilities and should be mentioned as a small but positive influence.

The federal government has been trying since 1969\textsuperscript{91} to persuade educational institutions to put a greater emphasis on competitive sport in order to produce more world class athletes, similar to the educational system in the United States. The Canadian schools have resisted this notion so far but economic conditions may make this resistance more difficult in the coming years.


Table 39 shows that 34 per cent of those polled felt that the federal government influence on school sport and physical education has been negative while 32 per cent felt it had been positive. Thirty-four per cent did not respond to the question, possibly due to a lack of familiarity with school programs.

Table 39

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Influence</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Influence</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Response</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary

The United States federal government has developed a much greater involvement in school sport and physical education than has the Canadian federal government. Through a large number of legislative acts and an extensive system of grants to state and local school boards, the U.S. federal government has greatly helped reshape the nature of elementary, secondary, and college sport and physical education. Legislation calling for equal opportunity for
the handicapped and women has forced the redesign of school curricula and the development of many new programs to satisfy these laws. The Canadian federal government, with no power of authority over education, has only been able to become involved in school sport and physical education in a peripheral way through the provision of scholarships for students and through a universities facilities development program. Undoubtedly the Canadian federal government would love to have a greater control over education matters, thereby being better able to utilize the human and physical resources of the educational system to provide greater assistance in the development of international class athletes.\footnote{92 Toward a National Policy on Amateur Sport: A Working Paper (Ottawa: The Queen's Printer, 1977), p. 24.}

PROFESSIONAL SPORTS

United States

The United States federal government, through the actions of the legislative and judicial branches have affected the character of professional sports substantially. Baseball was awarded antitrust exemption in 1922 and has retained this status to the present although other professional sports have not been able to do so. However, specific partial exemptions have been awarded to other
professional sports including the right to negotiate collective contracts with television networks. These federal actions have greatly enhanced the economic stability of professional sports and contributed to the tremendous rise in popularity of professional sports since 1960. 93

The involvement of the federal government in professional sports has been growing over the past few years. In 1972 an attempt was made to establish a federal regulatory commission to help achieve some order out of the chaos surrounding professional sport at that time. This legislation did not pass but the problems related to the rapid expansion and proliferation of professional sports franchises did not disappear. By 1976 Congress had established a Select Committee to investigate the problems and recommend legislation. 94 The committee's report, issued after several months study did not present any recommendations for legislation but called for further study in a number of areas. 95 Perhaps the strongest recommendation

93Spears, op. cit., p. 243.


was that of eliminating baseball's antitrust exemption although no method for doing so was discussed. Other recommendations concerned themselves with the areas of sports franchises as tax shelters, gambling, immigration of foreign-born athletes, broadcasting laws, and player safety. These and many other problems are extremely complex in nature and may be, as suggests, too difficult for any federal government agency to regulate.

**Canada**

Canadian federal government involvement in professional sport has been somewhat limited although there has been, and still remains, a strong effort to monitor the influence of professional sport on amateur sport. The 1969 Task Force examined this area in great depth and found that professional sports, especially hockey, had a negative influence on amateur sport. To ease the problems, Hockey Canada was founded as an arms-length organization to promote the game of hockey in Canada and to manage the National Team. It is important to note that the Task Force recommended that the N.H.L. be represented in Hockey

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96 Ibid., p. 60.


Canada. Fitness and Amateur Sport Branch officials today still maintain close surveillance of professional sport activities in terms of their effect on amateur sport.

The government has become involved in professional sports in other ways. In 1974 legislation was introduced into Parliament prohibiting the World Football League from establishing franchises in Canada (see Chapter IV) and in 1978 Minister of State for Fitness and Amateur Sport, Iona Campagnolo, mounted a campaign to speed up a proposed N.H.L.-W.H.A. merger which would bring more professional hockey to Canadian cities. However, most contacts between the federal government and professional sport came about as the result of normal federal regulation of national commercial enterprises, of which professional sport is a part.

Summary

Both the United States and Canadian federal governments have become involved, from time to time, in professional sport matters although the U.S. has had a more consistent and vigorous record of such. The greater number of professional teams in the United States and a greater affinity for regulation of economic activity has ensured

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99 Ibid., p. 79.
100 Erb interview.
this greater involvement in professional sports by Wash­
ington than that achieved by the government in Ottawa.
The Canadian government's involvement continues to center
around the influence of professional sport on amateur
sport.

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS

United States

In 1975 President Ford established the President's
Commission on Olympic Sports to study the amateur sport
situation in the United States and to develop recommenda­
tions for improvement. The President's Commission took
two years of intensive work before releasing their report.
The report called for many organizational and funding changes
in the amateur sport structure, the most significant being
the creation of a Central Sports Organization to coordinate
all amateur athletics.\footnote{101}

These recommendations were not acted upon by the
Congress until 1977 when the Amateur Athletic Act was first
introduced. The bill finally passed both Houses in October
of 1978 and included many of the recommendations of the
President's Commission. The most important aspects of the
Act centered around the designation of the U.S.O.C. as the

\footnote{101} The Final Report of the President's Commission on
Olympic Sports, 1975-1977 Executive Summary (Washington,
coordinating body for amateur sport and subsequently it having jurisdiction to recognize certain rights for amateur athletes, to provide for the resolution of disputes involving national governing bodies, and to charter national sport governing bodies. 102 There was opposition to the bill from various sources. The N.C.A.A. opposed the designation of the U.S.O.C. as the coordinating body for amateur athletics since this reduced N.C.A.A. power significantly. 103 The N.C.A.A. and A.A.U. both opposed the exclusion of multi-sport bodies from the newly created structure. Of course, this exclusion was designed specifically to end the power bloc tactics of the A.A.U. and N.C.A.A. 104 However, the bill passed and has since been implemented to some extent although the A.A.U. has not relinquished all of its power yet and may make a last attempt to have the bill turned back. The chances of success on the part of the A.A.U. are poor however. 105

The Amateur Athletic Act also provided $16 million to implement the Act and to provide "seed" money for sports-medicine programs. The original bill called for $30 million

105 Conrad interview.
but was reduced during the House-Senate conference, while the President's Commission had recommended $215 million initially and $83 million annually thereafter.\footnote{Amateur Athletic Act of 1978: Fact Sheet, p. 1.}

This drastic reduction in funds may seriously hamper the ability of the U.S.O.C. to effectively implement the Act and appears to be an overreaction on the part of the legislators to prove that they are not attempting to control amateur athletics through the passage of this Act.

The Act does represent the first comprehensive piece of legislation aimed at the correction of amateur athletics ills, or at least some of them. It provides for a less complex organizational structure which is sensitive to the needs and rights of the athletes themselves, something which previous structures had not been. Hopefully this newly-created structure, built around the U.S.O.C., will be given the help it will need to succeed.

\textbf{Canada}

In 1976 Prime Minister Trudeau appointed Iona Campagnolo as Minister of State for Fitness and Amateur Sport with the task of developing a national sport policy—a policy which would be truly national in nature. In 1977 Campagnolo released the Green Paper for discussion as the
first step in the process. In it the Minister emphasized that the development of a national policy must be a cooperative effort between government and the sports community and that, contrary to past practices, the government would guarantee serious, regular consultation with sports bodies.\textsuperscript{107} While parts of the Green Paper were found to be unacceptable by various groups, a widespread response was achieved through public meetings throughout the country and the call for briefs from sport and physical education organizations. With this response and through consultation with various sport officials over the next year, a national policy was prepared and released in March of 1979. The most significant part of the policy is the establishment of a Sport Council with representatives from sport governing bodies, umbrella organizations, volunteer associations and government. (for other highlights, see Appendix E) This Sport Council is to serve as a forum for debate on the needs of Canadian sport, and to take the steps necessary to achieve those needs. Sport Canada is to be removed from the departmental bureaucracy and into the more flexible Sport Council (a Schedule B Crown Corporation) where it could more effectively respond to the dynamic nature of sport.\textsuperscript{108}

\begin{flushright}
\textsuperscript{107} \textit{Amateur Athletic Act of 1978: Fact Sheet}, p. 1.
\end{flushright}

\begin{flushright}
\end{flushright}
The creation of the Sport Council makes possible a government/volunteer partnership in sport but does not in itself create such a partnership. That can only come about through the readiness of sports bodies to develop that partnership. Given the fragmented nature of the Canadian sporting structure, that process will take time. 109

Summary

Both countries federal governments have recently taken significant steps to improve the coordination of amateur athletics in their respective countries, moving from opposite ends of a continuum toward more middle ground. The U.S. federal government seems to be ready to explore a limited partnership in the running of amateur sport while Canada, through a process of evolution, has come to realize that the formalized structure of government bureaucracy is not conducive to the effective administration of sport and that some other structure must be developed in which to work. That other structure is now in the formative stages and presents promise for the future of Canadian sport. The Amateur Athletic Act, as an initial step, also presents great promise for U.S. amateur sport but it must not be seen as a final solution.

109Ibid., p. 11.
aspect of U.S. culture must be continued, encouraging the cooperation of the U.S.O.C., national sport governing bodies, and other segments of the sports community to develop better means through which to satisfy the sport needs of all Americans.
Chapter VI
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

An examination of the literature and government documents, personal interviews, and responses to a questionnaire sent to sport and physical education organizations were used to help the author compare the involvement of the federal governments of Canada and the United States in sport and physical education since 1960. The period since 1960 has been marked by increasing federal government involvement in sport and physical education throughout the world, Canada and the United States being no exceptions. However, the precise nature of Canadian and American involvement grew in very different directions and with different emphases. It was the intent of the study to discuss and analyze these differences as well as other areas of similarity.

Initially a historical overview was presented focusing on federal responses to a number of different influences and conditions of the first 60 years of this century. The similarity of response to the First and Second World Wars (both countries developing extensive military training/physical fitness programs), the Great Depression (both countries developing recreation training
programs for youth and the unemployed as well as economicimprovement programs which assisted in the construction of sports facilities), and the Kraus-Weber studies in the early 1950s (both countries developing a new emphasis on physical fitness in school and recreation programs). These similar responses are not unusual when one considers the proximity of Canada to the United States and the tremendous influence that American thinking had on that of Canada. A great percentage of Canadian physical educators received their formal training in American institutions since the opportunities for such were limited in Canada prior to this time. Upon their return to Canada, these sport and physical education leaders naturally set about to implement many of their "American" ideas. The economic dependence of Canada on the United States during this period greatly contributed to the perception of Canada as a satellite of the United States. With such general and specific sources of influence acting on Canadians, it seems very natural that the two countries would have had such similar approaches to the events of the period 1900-1960.

Beginning in 1960 the two countries began to grow in different directions. This change can be partially explained by the fact that Canada was beginning to develop a corps of Canadian-educated physical educators and the development of an anti-American attitude was apparent. Also,
peace and economic prosperity allowed both countries to plan for their individual futures rather than simply respond to crisis situations. From 1960 to 1978 Canada moved more and more into direct support and control of amateur sport. Although Canadians had strongly opposed any government control of sport in 1945, they had come to freely accept such control and support by 1969. The potential for the development of more competitive international teams through a government controlled system dissipated the fears and concerns of 1945.

A number of arms-length organizations were created to provide a direct link to the sporting public and federal support to sport increased from five million dollars in 1961 to over $24 million in 1978. A federal Ministry was created in 1976 to oversee a growing bureaucracy and to bring about a national sport policy. Through these and other developments, Canada's record in international competition improved drastically. The United States remained firm in its belief of the separation of government and sport. The federal government in Washington was given several opportunities to provide financial support to various Olympic and Pan American Games competitions but they provided only token assistance, feeling that the public would not condone such an "intrusion" by the federal government.
The United States was not adverse to using sport to further its foreign policy. The State Department began a very active program of sports tours and exchanges with several foreign countries. This program greatly assisted the U.S. to develop better diplomatic relations with other countries and helped overcome the image of the "ugly American" abroad. On the domestic front, a number of anti-discrimination and educational improvements Acts provided wide-ranging benefits to sport and physical education participants. In spite of an avowed policy of separation of government and sport it is obvious that from 1960 through to 1978 the United States federal government exerted considerable influence on the conduct of sport and physical education, although in a very different fashion than that of the Canadian government.

Following this historical overview, a framework for the comparison of federal governments' involvement in sport and physical education was described and applied to the countries of Canada and the United States. A section-by-section summary follows.
Political, Legislative and Bureaucratic Systems

The Canadian and American systems are both based on the concept of federalism, or sharing of powers. The concept is applied differently however, giving the Canadian provinces much more power than the American states and centralizing the power at the federal level in Canada in the cabinet. The cabinet in the U.S. system does not have the same legislative clout. This lack of a centralized source of power coupled with the tremendous influence of special interest groups and the uncoordinated nature of the U.S. federal bureaucracy has greatly reduced the potential for U.S. government involvement in sport and physical education. Several bills have been introduced to Congress only to be defeated by the pressure of an army of lobbyists. On the other hand, the Canadian system with its unified executive and legislative branches, and the centralization of power in the cabinet, has enabled the Canadian federal government to act in a manner based on its own conscience rather than the demands of self-seeking interest groups.

Federal Agencies Involved in Sport and Physical Education

A wide variety of federal agencies in both countries are involved in some aspect of sport and physical education. Programs of economic stimulation, urban renewal, cultural exchanges, education for special populations such as Indian
children, and grants to post-secondary educational institutions are common to both countries and represent significant forms of assistance and control of sport and physical education.

However, a critical difference lies in the fact that Canada has developed an agency which deals exclusively with sport and physical education matters, which provides substantial grants to sport bodies, which organizes and supports national competitions, and which, until most recently, has directed the form and substance of Canadian sport policy. No such agency exists in the United States where the "separation of government and sport" myth demands that no such system be allowed to exist. The United States federal government has been able to make a much more significant impact than Canada has on school sport and physical education. The strict control of responsibility for education by the provinces has precluded any Canadian federal government action in this area. The U.S. federal government, without these same restrictions, has been able to demand greater opportunity for several special groups and subsequently helped shape school curricula and direction in the area of sport and physical education.
Motivation for Involvement

Four dominant motives direct Canadian and American federal government involvement in sport and physical education. These include: 1) increased prestige gained through international victories, 2) promotion of international goodwill, 3) development of nationalism through sport, 4) promotion of individual well-being. The order of importance of these motives varies considerably between the two countries. Increased prestige through international sport victories and the development of nationalism through sport are of greatest importance to the Canadian federal government while the promotion of individual well-being and international goodwill are of lesser importance. The fragmented nature of Canadian society cries for strong unifying forces such as sport while American society has not had the same great needs. The United States has been motivated more significantly by a desire to assure all individuals of equality of opportunity within American society. Various laws have been enacted to define equality of opportunity in the areas of sport and physical education and to set minimum standards for compliance with these definitions.

As a leader of the Western nations the United States is constantly seeking to develop friendly relations with other nations, particularly developing nations. In this regard, the U.S. State Department has been consistently
involved in sport and physical education exchange programs and tours as a vehicle to foster international goodwill. To a lesser degree these programs have been used to increase U.S. prestige internationally.

Program of Involvement

Amateur Sport Support and Competitions. The Canadian federal government has played a most significant role in the area of amateur sport support and competitions. The Fitness and Amateur Sport Branch has assumed responsibility for the cultivation of this most important aspect of Canadian culture having recognized the benefits which can accrue from appropriate emphases in sport and physical education. Several million dollars per year are allocated to sport and physical education programs including a large number of national and world championship competitions. The United States federal government has not provided any financial or other tangible support to amateur sport until this past year, having been content to let organizations such as the N.C.A.A. and A.A.U. administer and provide all support to amateur athletics in the U.S. Only the organizational chaos created by the ineffectiveness of these bodies in international sport matters and the public demand for some semblance of order brought the U.S. federal government into the supportive role it now assumes.
Facilities Construction and Maintenance. Through a number of programs of assistance to schools, colleges, urban communities, and economically depressed areas, the U.S. federal government has helped develop an excellent network of sport and physical education facilities throughout the country. Canada, with its much smaller population, and fewer federal agencies involved in sport and physical education, has not been able to develop the number or quality of facilities which the U.S. has. The Canadian federal government has utilized some of the same avenues of assistance as the U.S. government has, including assistance to universities to upgrade existing facilities to international standards, and these have proved to be very beneficial but much more needs to be done. The harshness of the Canadian winter demands many indoor facilities such as field houses, indoor tennis courts, etc. but these are expensive to build and presently beyond the budget of the Canadian federal government.

Research and Sportsmedicine. The U.S. federal government has managed to provide excellent support to research and sportsmedicine programs through a variety of funding agencies. The record of support has been better than that of Canada which, in 1970, phased its sport research support programs almost out of existence. Support has been extremely limited over the past few years although greater success is enjoyed by the Canadian government in
coordinating and disseminating research findings to the practitioner. An effort to improve coordination of research and dissemination of results is currently underway in the United States through funds provided by the Amateur Athletic Act and other legislation.

Leadership Development and Training. Canada's federal government has achieved an admirable record of accomplishment in the development and training of sport and physical education coaches and leaders. A five level national coaches certification program involving over 45 sports is at the hub of government activity in this area. Other programs of leadership workshops, mini-courses, etc. are provided by the federal government to various sport and physical education organizations. The U.S. federal government has not developed any similar program relying on the country's colleges and universities to develop sport and physical education leaders and coaches. Virtually 100 per cent of these college-prepared coaches assume positions within the educational system and its sport programs, few coaching in non-school sports programs. The rapid growth of youth sports programs in the past few years has created a serious shortage of qualified leadership, a need which will have to be satisfied in the near future.
National Awards and Tests. Both the Canadian and United States' federal governments conduct national physical fitness awards and testing programs with the U.S. also administering a national sports award program. While the Canadian government does not have any direct involvement in the administration of a sports award program, it does contribute significant financial and other support to individual sports organizations which maintain their own program. The Canadian government is more innovative in its approach and has developed a more diverse base of participation in its programs.

Planning, Technical and Advisory Services. The President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports provides valuable technical assistance and advice on fitness and related matters to schools, colleges, and private industry but the limited staff of the Council greatly restricts the number of groups or organizations who can take advantage of these services. Also, the nature of the services are limited to physical fitness concerns. The Canadian government provides much more comprehensive planning, technical and advisory services. A large percentage of Canadian sport and physical education organizations make use of these services to assist them in the development of coaching manuals, technical films, annual budgeting and other organizational planning. Had similar services been available to U.S. organizations over the past ten years,
many of the organizational problems associated with American amateur athletics could have been avoided.

Physical Education and Sports for the Handicapped. Canadian and American federal agencies have recently taken significant steps to improve physical education and sport opportunities for handicapped people. The Fitness and Amateur Sport Branch has come to include handicapped sports in its responsibilities and has provided the same services and support to these athletes and administrators as to the non-disabled. Opportunities within the school setting in Canada remain less than satisfactory however. The U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare has greatly enhanced the physical education and sports opportunities made available to handicapped students through the passage of federal anti-discrimination legislation. Increased funds for new facilities, equipment, and trained personnel have been made available by the federal and state governments to meet new requirements for the education of the handicapped. These same sport and physical education benefits have not been made available to out-of-school handicapped youth and adults however although the needs of this population are as great as those of the student population.
Sport and Physical Education in the Schools. The control of education by the provinces has excluded the Canadian federal government from any involvement in this area save for scholarship and facilities assistance programs. These programs have had some influence on school sport. The athlete-assistance scholarship program has created some minor imbalances in university conferences with the gravitation of these scholarship recipients to universities where the national coach is on staff. The facilities assistance program has helped some universities upgrade their facilities although the amount paid by the federal government is modest.

The United States federal government, with much greater influence and power over education, has greatly influenced the nature of elementary, secondary, and college sport and physical education. Of most recent impact has been the implementation of Title IX which demands coeducational physical education classes and equal opportunity in sports for females. This law has had a tremendous influence on the physical education curriculum, varsity sports programs and administration of physical education and athletic departments. The long-term effects of the legislation has yet to be gauged however with change having come in such a rapid fashion. Without this legislation there is doubt that these changes would ever have occurred given the traditional nature and orientation of American physical education.
Professional Sports. The Canadian and U.S. federal governments have both exerted influence on professional sport although the U.S. government has been much more vigorous in its attempts to regulate various aspects of professional sport. Solutions to problems associated with anti-trust exemption, television blackouts, league mergers, and player union activities have been of prime concern to U.S. government officials and legislators over the past ten years.

The scarcity of professional sport franchises in Canada and the relative tranquility of their operation have ensured a minimum of government interference or involvement. The legislating out of Canada of the World Football League in 1974 is a notable exception however. The Canadian government is quite concerned about the effects of professional sport on amateur sport and does closely monitor these developments.

Recent Developments. Recent developments such as the passage of the Amateur Athletic Act in the U.S., and the development of a Sport Council removed from the Canadian federal department bureaucracy to administer Canadian sport indicate a movement toward middle ground. The United States federal government and people alike seem to have recognized the value of a limited amount of federal government involvement in sport and physical education. Likewise, the Canadian government and people have determined a need to
move from the direct government control of the past few years into a more flexible and responsive structure while maintaining the continuity and financial resources of the government. Hopefully these developments will not be seen as ultimate solutions by either country but only as currently effective solutions subject to change as conditions and needs demand.

CONCLUSIONS

This study has shown there to be a great deal of federal government involvement in sport and physical education in both Canada and the United States. The extensive list of federal agencies described in Chapter IV as having responsibilities of note in this area reflects a general increase of government regulation of our daily lives. This trend, coupled with an explosion of participation in sporting activities by North Americans in the last 20 years has directed us to an inevitable marriage of government and sport. This study has attempted to describe the precise nature of this marriage in Canada and the United States.

Based on the data collected and analyzed, the following conclusions were developed:

1) The involvement of the Canadian federal government has played a positive role in the development of both Canadian domestic and international athletic programs. The United States federal government has been more reluctant
to enter into direct control or regulation of amateur sport allowing private organizations such as the N.C.A.A., A.A.U., and U.S.O.C. to fulfill this role. While these groups have each developed strong domestic programs without government involvement, this same lack of government action has permitted the continuation of a destructive power struggle among these groups at the expense of U.S. international representative athletes and teams. Early U.S. federal government action could have assured greater cooperation and coordination among the quarreling groups and allowed for the development of stronger international athletic programs.

2) The application of the concept of federalism in the United States has permitted the federal government to exert a considerable, and positive influence on the conduct and development of school sport and physical education while the Canadian application of the concept of federalism has permitted no such influence.

3) Canadian society is fragmented in anture and has benefitted from the strong unifying characteristics of sport while the traditional nature of United States society has perpetuated the "separation of government and sport" myth.

4) The Canadian legislative system is more conducive to the development of legislative leadership and the passage of controversial bills than that of the United States which is so heavily dominated by political pressure groups and a fragmented bureaucracy.
5) There has been a lack of a stable national sport and physical education policy in both Canada and the United States. The Canadian potential for the development of such is much greater because of the lessons learned from previous attempts.

6) While greater United States federal government involvement is called for, the development of a large, centralized, federal agency to administer sport and physical education, similar to Canada's Fitness and Amateur Sport Branch, would hinder the further development of U.S. sport and physical education, the U.S. federal bureaucracy being notoriously impersonal and slow moving. An organization with the resources of the federal government behind it yet without the accompanying bureaucracy and red tape is called for in light of current needs.

7) Through indirect means both Canadian and American federal governments have been able to provide significant financial and other forms of assistance to sport and physical education in their respective countries.

8) The responsibility for sport and physical education is a function of both the private and government sectors in Canada and the United States. Periodical adjustments of the precise balance of responsibility will be necessary to best satisfy current needs.

9) Both countries have used sport to reach foreign policy objectives.
10) The democratic nature of both countries is reflected in their concern for the well-being of the individual.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In view of the findings of this study, the following recommendations are offered:

1) The development of a national sport policy through the cooperative efforts of the federal government and private organizations in the United States. The policy developing mechanism should be maintained on a standing basis and should present the opportunity for continual discussion and debate of national sport issues and needs and concerns. The present Amateur Athletic Act could be amended to create a United States Sport Congress including representatives from non-Olympic and Pan-American Games sports, multi-sport groups, recreation organizations, physical education professional organizations, and the federal government itself. Under this proposal the U.S.O.C. would maintain its coordination role with Olympic and Pan American Games sports but issues related to national sport and physical education policies would be considered by the Sport Congress as a whole. It is expected that this congress could provide the necessary forum for discussion of relevant issues and would lead to a better coordination of sport and physical education needs and federal government legislation.
2) An increase in funding to sport and physical education organizations by the U.S. federal government to a level more in line with that recommended by the President's Commission on Olympic Sports.

3) A greater coordination of existing U.S. federal government programs which have a direct or indirect influence on sport and physical education programs. An existing federal agency could have its duties expanded to include coordination of these programs and publication of an annual catalogue of federal programs of assistance available to sport and physical education organizations.

4) The development of a pool of federal government consultants to provide technical, advisory, and consultant services to sport organizations. This would greatly assist the sport community to better utilize its own resources as well as those available from the federal government.

5) The development of a U.S. national lottery to assist in the financing of sport.

6) The development of a National Youth Sport Festival in the U.S. to be sponsored by the federal government and national sport governing bodies and to include non-Olympic and Pan American Games sports.

7) The establishment of a United States Sport Library with appropriate computer tie-ins with major university and municipal libraries throughout the country to make available to all sport organizations and the general
public a comprehensive collection of sport and related
documents and publications.

8) The adoption and implementation of the recently-
developed Canadian national policy on sport be effectuated
as quickly as possible.

9) An increase in funding by the Canadian federal
government for the construction of indoor athletic facil-
ities such as field houses and indoor track and field areas.

10) The establishment of Sport Institutes in
Canadian Universities utilizing the physical and human
resources already available there to conduct, develop and
apply research in all areas of the sport sciences.

11) An increased cultivation of private sources
of funds for the support of sport and physical education
by the Canadian federal government.

12) The adoption of tax incentives in Canada to
increase the appeal of private donations to amateur sport
and physical education.
APPENDIX A

COVER LETTER TO ACCOMPANY QUESTIONNAIRE
February 17, 1979

Dear Sir/Madam:

I am currently in the process of gathering data for my Ph.D. dissertation entitled "A Comparison of the Involvement of the Federal Governments of Canada and the United States in Sport and Physical Education Since 1960." A critical part of this study is determining the attitudes and opinions of sport governing bodies, multi-sport organizations, and educational institutions toward the federal government role. In this regard your cooperation and assistance in completing the enclosed questionnaire would be greatly appreciated. No more than ten to fifteen minutes of your time will be required.

A stamped, self-addressed envelope has been enclosed for your convenience in returning the questionnaire. If you wish to receive a copy of the results please check the box on the last page of the questionnaire.

I sincerely thank you for taking time from your busy schedule to be of assistance in a matter in which you have a most valuable and knowledgeable opinion.

I look forward to your early reply,

Sincerely,

Robert Corran
Teaching Associate
APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE
Federal Government Involvement in Sport and Physical Education

This questionnaire is designed to gather opinions and attitudes toward the federal government role in sport, physical education and recreation. Identification of respondents is sought only to facilitate an accurate account of all respondents. You are to be assured that all responses will be kept in strict confidence.

Questionnaire Completed by: Name ____________________________

Title ____________________________

Institution or Association ____________________________

1. For what reason(s) is the federal government involved in the support of sport and physical education? Please respond to each part of the question.

   Yes No Don't Know

a. to promote a particular political ideology

b. to promote United States/Canada's prestige through international sporting victories

c. to prepare for military purposes

d. to increase labour productivity

e. to promote international goodwill

f. to promote nationalism

g. to promote the psychological, emotional and physical well-being of individuals

h. other __________________________________________________

2. The extent of federal government involvement in sport and physical education is:

too little ___ appropriate ___ too great ___

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3. To what extent does the federal government, through its formal and informal powers, influence decision-making in your association or institution?
   very little ___ some ___ a great deal __

4. To what extent do associations or institutions such as your own influence decision-making within the federal sport structure?
   none ___ very little ___ some ___ a great deal __

5. Is there a need for greater cooperation between the federal government and national sport governing bodies educational institutions on issues affecting sport and physical education?
   yes ___ no ___

6. Is there a need for greater coordination among the various national sport governing bodies?
   yes ___ no ___

7. Does the federal government provide adequate funding for sport and physical education?
   yes ___ no ___

8. Do you feel that particular programs or types of programs receive preferential treatment or consideration in the appropriation of those government funds which are made available?
   yes ___ no ___

9. Is the mechanism for dispensing funds efficient?
   yes ___ no ___

10. Does the federal government provide sufficient funds for facilities construction and maintenance?
    yes ___ no ___

11. Is there a need for more or better quality facilities in Canada/United States today?
    yes ___ no ___

    If yes, please describe:
12. Do you support the construction of national training centers?
   a. using government funds and under government control
      Yes ___ No ___
   b. using private funds and under private control
      Yes ___ No ___
   c. through a cooperative effort of government and private organizations
      Yes ___ No ___
   d. Other _______________________________________________
13. Does the federal government provide sufficient support for sport, physical education and recreation research?
   yes ___ no ___
14. Does the federal government provide any support for leadership development or coaches training in sport, physical education, or recreation in the following areas:
   financial support
      yes ___ no ___
   promotional support
      yes ___ no ___
   other support (please describe)
      yes ___ no ___
15. How would you evaluate the success of the Presidential/Canada Fitness Awards?
    Excellent ___ Satisfactory ___ Poor ___
16. Does your association/institution administer any national awards or skill-testing programs separate from the Presidential/Canada Fitness Awards?
    yes ___ no ___
    If yes, do you receive any federal aid to support this program(s)?
    yes ___ no ___
17. Has your organization/institution utilized any planning, technical or advisory services of the federal government sport agencies in the past two years? 
yes ___ no ___
If yes, please describe and evaluate the service(s)

18. Has the federal government influenced the development and/or conduct of physical education in the schools?
yes ___ no ___ no opinion ___
If yes, in what way?

19. What influence has the report of the President's Commission on Olympic Sports/establishment of the Ministry of State for Fitness and Amateur Sport had on the development of sport, physical education and recreation in United States/Canada?
positive influence ___ negative influence ___
no influence ___
Comment:

20. Evaluate the federal government efforts in supporting athletic, physical education, and recreational opportunities for the handicapped?
poor ___ satisfactory ___ excellent ___
Comment:

21. Additional comments, observations, opinions, attitudes concerning the involvement of the federal government in sport, physical education and recreation:(use reverse)

Results of study requested ___ Thank you very much for your cooperation in completing this questionnaire.
APPENDIX C

INSTITUTIONS AND ORGANIZATIONS PARTICIPATING IN THE STUDY
UNITED STATES

Sport Governing Bodies

National Archery Association
Track and Field Division of the A.A.U.--Men's
--Women's

U.S. Baseball Federation
U.S. Modern Pentathlon and Biathlon Association
Boxing Division of the A.A.U.
U.S. Cycling Federation
U.S. Field Hockey Association, Inc.
U.S. Figure Skating Association
U.S. Gymnastics Federation
National Association of Amateur Oarsmen
U.S. Ski Association
U.S. Soccer Federation
Aquatics Division of the A.A.U.
U.S. Team Handball Federation
U.S. Tennis Association
U.S. Volleyball Association
Weightlifting Division of the A.A.U.
Wrestling Division of the A.A.U.
International Racquetball Association

Multi Sport Groups

National Recreation and Parks Association
National Campers and Hikers Association
Amateur Athletic Union
National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics
National Collegiate Athletic Association
United States Olympic Committee
National Federation of State High School Associations
Young Men's Christian Association

Educational Institutions

Denison University
Ithaca College
Springfield College
University of North Carolina (Chapel Hill)
University of Tennessee
University of Texas
Ohio State University
University of Oregon
Oklahoma University

Total--37

CANADA

Sport Governing Bodies

Canadian Amateur Basketball Association
Canadian Cycling Association
Canadian Amateur Football Association
Canadian Amateur Speedskating Association
Canadian Amateur Wrestling Association
Canadian Equestrian Federation
Canadian Figure Skating Association
Canadian Gymnastics Federation
Canadian Lacrosse Association
Canadian Racquetball Association
Canadian Table Tennis Association
Canadian Track and Field Association
Federation of Canadian Archers
Hockey Canada
Judo Canada
Shooting Federation of Canada
Canadian Waterpolo Association

Multi-Sport Organizations

Canadian Association for Health, Physical Education and
Recreation
Coaching Association of Canada
Canadian Intercollegiate Athletic Union
Canadian Parks and Recreation Association
Canadian Federation of Provincial School Athletic Associa-
tions
Sports Federation of Canada
Sport for Physically Disabled
Young Men's Christian Association

Educational Institutions

University of British Columbia
University of Alberta
University of Manitoba
University of Western Ontario
McGill University
University of New Brunswick
Dalhousie University
University of Prince Edward Island
Memorial University

Total--35
APPENDIX D

THE FITNESS AND AMATEUR SPORT ACT
BILL C-131

An Act to Encourage Fitness and Amateur Sport

(Assented to 29th September, 1961).

Her Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate and House of Commons of Canada, enacts as follows:

SHORT TITLE

1. This Act may be cited as the Fitness and Amateur Sport Act.

INTERPRETATION

2. In this Act,

(a) "agreement" means an agreement entered into under this Act;
(b) "Council" means the National Advisory Council on Fitness and Amateur Sport established by this Act;
(c) "Member" means a member of the Council; and
(d) "Minister" means the Minister of National Health and Welfare

OBJECTS AND POWERS

3. The objects of this Act are to encourage, promote and develop fitness and amateur sport in Canada, and, without limiting the generality of the foregoing, the Minister may, in furtherance of such objects,

(a) provide assistance for the promotion and development of Canadian participation in national and international amateur sport;
(b) provide for the training of coaches and such other personnel as may be required for the purposes of this Act;
(c) provide bursaries or fellowships to assist in the training of necessary personnel;
(d) undertake or assist in research or surveys in respect of fitness and amateur sport;
(e) arrange for national and regional conferences designed to promote and further the objects of this Act;
(f) provide for the recognition of achievement in respect of fitness and amateur sport by the grant or issue of certificates, citations or awards of merit;
(g) prepare and distribute information relating to fitness and amateur sport;
(h) assist, co-operate with and enlist the aid of any group interested in furthering the objects of this Act;
(i) co-ordinate federal activities related to the encouragement, promotion and development of fitness and amateur sport, in co-operation with any other departments or agencies of the Government of Canada carrying on such activities; and
(j) undertake such other projects or programmes, including the provision of services and facilities or the provision of assistance therefor, in respect of fitness and amateur sport as are designated to promote and further the objects of this Act.

4. The Minister, in furtherance of the objects of this Act, may with the approval of the Governor in Council make grants to any agency, organization or institution that is carrying on activities in the field of fitness or amateur sport.

AGREEMENTS AUTHORIZED

5. (1) The Minister may, with the approval of the Governor in Council, enter into an agreement with any province, for a period not exceeding six years, to provide for the payment by Canada to the province of contributions in respect of costs incurred by the province in undertaking programmes designed to encourage, promote and develop fitness and amateur sport.

(2) In this section, "costs" incurred by a province means the costs incurred by the province determined as prescribed in the agreement made under this section between the Minister and the province.

(3) In this section the expression "programmes designed to encourage, promote and develop fitness and amateur sport" in respect of a province, means programmes, as defined in the agreement made under this section between the Minister and the province, that are designed to further the objects of this Act.
6. Any agreement made under this Act may be amended
   (a) with respect to the provisions of the agreement in
   respect of which a method of amendment is set out in
   the agreement, by that method; or
   (b) with respect to any other provision of the agree-
   ment, by the mutual consent of the parties thereto
   with the approval of the Governor in Council

COUNCIL ESTABLISHED

7. (1) There shall be a Council to be called the National
      Advisory Council on Fitness and Amateur Sport,
      consisting of not more than thirty members to be
      appointed by the Governor in Council.
   (2) Each of the members of the Council shall be appointed
      to hold office for a term not exceeding three years.
   (3) The Governor in Council shall designate one of the
      members to be chairman.
   (4) Of the members of the Council, at least one shall
      be appointed from each province.
   (5) A majority of the members constitute a quorum of
      the Council, and a vacancy in the membership of
      the Council does not impair the right of the remain-
      ing members to act.
   (6) In the event of the absence or temporary incapacity
      of any member, the Governor in Council may appoint
      a person to act in his stead during such absence
      or incapacity.
   (7) The Council may make rules for regulating its
      proceedings and the performance of its functions
      and may provide therein for the delegation of any
      of its duties to any special or standing commit-
      tee of its members

8. (1) The Chairman of the Council shall be paid such
      remuneration for his service as may be fixed by
      the Governor in Council.
   (2) The members other than the chairman shall serve
      without remuneration, but each member is entitled
      to be paid reasonable travelling and other expenses
      incurred by him in the performance of his duties.

9. (1) The Minister may refer to the Council for its
      consideration and advice such question relating to
      the operation of this Act as he thinks fit.
10. The Minister of Finance shall, upon the certificate of the Minister, pay out of the Consolidated Revenue Fund such amounts not exceeding in the aggregate five million dollars in any one fiscal year as may be required for the purposes of this Act.

11. Such officers, clerks and other employees as are necessary for the administration of this Act shall be appointed under the provisions of the Civil Service Act.

12. The Governor in Council may make regulations
(a) defining for the purposes of this Act the expressions "fitness" and "amateur sport";
(b) respecting the provision of facilities in respect of fitness and amateur sport; and
(c) generally, for carrying into effect the purposes and provisions of this Act.

13. The Minister shall, within three months after the termination of each fiscal year, prepare an annual report on the work done, moneys expended and obligations contracted under this Act and cause a report to be laid before Parliament if Parliament is then sitting or, if Parliament is not then sitting, on any of the first fifteen days next thereafter that Parliament is sitting.

14. This Act shall come into force on a day to be fixed by proclamation of the Governor in Council.
APPENDIX E

HIGHLIGHTS OF THE WHITE PAPER ON SPORT
The goal of Canadian amateur sport in international competition ought to be the highest pinnacle of athletic performance. Within the next decade, its goal should be continued improvement upon the position Canada held following the 1976 Olympic Games.

The federal government is prepared to sponsor a national Congress of Sport, which would engage in fundamental debate on the needs of Canadian sport, discuss the possibility of sport partnership and move toward the achievement of that goal.

Canadian sport must develop greater momentum than it has generated to this point, and the pooling of knowledge, experience and urgent requirements is one of the best ways to bring this about.

The federal government proposes the creation of a Sport Council, comprised of representatives of national sport governing bodies, umbrella organizations and volunteer associations. Those elements of Sport Canada now in the Fitness and Amateur Sport Branch, Health and Welfare Canada, would be transferred to the Sport Council. Fitness and recreation activities would remain in Health and Welfare Canada.

The Sport Council will be charged with responsibility for matters relating to Canadian participation in national and international sport, and will work closely with those sport associations dedicated to the pursuit of excellence at these levels of competition.

In addition to the monies allocated by Loto Canada to the Sport Council to assist with its on-going programs, it is hoped that additional funds may be secured to establish a National Sport Trust.

Increased federal public funding for sport is unlikely in the foreseeable future and amateur sport will be obliged to secure through the private sector the further financing it will need.

Responsible business leadership must judge what weight should be given to the achievement of the national athletic goals and how their support forms part of their good corporate citizenship and social responsibility.
Canadian universities can play a decisive role in the pursuit of athletic excellence in our country. They have the capacity to relate advances in research to sport situations and where that research can be directly applied.

Canadian universities constitute an important pool of athletic potential, one that might be further enhanced were the universities to accept the principle of athletic scholarships.

Canada's success in sport stems in part from the help and advice received from more advanced sporting nations. We have an obligation to repay this debt, so far as we can, by assisting those countries still developing in the field of sport.

Great care must be taken not to blunt or discourage the drive and enthusiasm of the private citizen whose voluntary work remains a foundation of the Canadian sport system.
APPENDIX F

The White House

EXECUTIVE ORDER
11562

PHYSICAL FITNESS AND SPORTS

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By virtue of the authority vested in me by the Constitution and statutes of the United States of America, and as President of the United States of America, Executive Order No. 11462, as amended, is further amended as follows:

Section 1. Section 1 is amended to read:

"Section 1. Program for physical fitness and sports. The Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare (hereinafter referred to as "the Secretary"), shall, in carrying out his responsibilities in relation to education and public health, develop and coordinate a national program for physical fitness and sports. The Secretary shall:

"(a) Enlist the active support and assistance of individual citizens, civic groups, professional associations, amateur and professional sports groups, private enterprise, voluntary organizations and others in efforts to promote and improve the health of all Americans through regular participation in physical fitness and sports activities;

"(b) initiate programs to inform the general public of the importance of exercise and the link which exists between regular physical activity and such qualities as good health and effective performance;

"(c) strengthen coordination of Federal services and programs relating to physical fitness and sports participation;

"(d) encourage State and local governments to emphasize the importance of regular physical fitness and sports participation;

"(e) seek to advance the physical fitness of children, youth, adults and senior citizens by systematically encouraging the development of community recreation, physical fitness and sports participation programs;

"(f) develop cooperative programs with medical, dental, and other similar professional societies to encourage the implementation of sound physical fitness practices;

"(g) stimulate and encourage research in the areas of physical fitness and sports performances;"
"(h) assist educational agencies at all levels in developing high-quality, innovative health and physical education programs which emphasize the importance of exercise to good health;

"(i) assist business, industry, government and labor organizations in establishing sound physical fitness programs to elevate employee health and to reduce the financial and human costs resulting from physical inactivity.".

Sec. 2. The following new subsection is added to Section 5:

"(c) Notwithstanding the provisions of any other Executive order, the functions of the President under the Federal Advisory Committee Act (5 U.S.C. App. 1), except that of reporting annually to the Congress, which are applicable to the Council established by this Order, shall be performed by the Secretary in accordance with guidelines and procedures established by the Office of Management and Budget."

Gerald R. Ford

THE WHITE HOUSE,
October 25, 1976
APPENDIX G

PRESIDENT'S COUNCIL ON PHYSICAL FITNESS AND
SPORTS COUNCIL MEMBERS 1978
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Location</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Governor Jerry Apodaca</td>
<td>Albuquerque, N.M.</td>
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<tr>
<td>(Chairman)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Hank Aaron</td>
<td>Atlanta, Ga.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dorothy Hamill</td>
<td>Colorado Springs, Colo.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mrs. Charles M. Johnson</td>
<td>Phoenix, Az.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dr. Sammy Lee</td>
<td>Los Angeles, Ca.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Billy Mills</td>
<td>Sacramento, Ca.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Al McGuire</td>
<td>Milwaukee, Wis.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dr. James A. Nicholas</td>
<td>New York, N.Y.</td>
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<td>Dinah Shore</td>
<td>Miami, Fla.</td>
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<td>Joseph B. Smith</td>
<td>Beverly Hills, Ca.</td>
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<td>Dr. Claude E. Terry</td>
<td>Atlanta, Ga.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dr. Leroy T. Walker</td>
<td>Durham, N.C.</td>
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