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The Role and Value of Intercollegiate Athletics in Universities

Myles Brand

America began its fascination with college sports in the middle of the 19th century. First it was primarily its version of football, and then all sports took root in institutions of higher education. By the latter half of the 20th century, the general public often knew some of its universities not as centers of learning but as hosts for big-time sports. The interests of the broadcast media have made these sporting events even more popular and accessible in the past few decades.

This relationship between sports and higher education is not without its detractors. The list of criticisms is long, from the exploitation of student-athletes to overpaid coaches, from the unfairness of limited opportunities for women students and minority coaches to performance-enhancing drug use. The central criticism is that sports on campus distort the mission of institutions of higher learning.¹

My view is that many of these criticisms are false or exaggerated, and where they are warranted, strong reform efforts are underway that will, for the most part, rectify the problems. College sport is far from perfect, but it is a popular cultural artifact that serves well both the university community and the students who participate.

In this article, my focus will be limited. I will not attempt to defend intercollegiate athletics from all its critics for all its alleged shortcomings. Rather, my target is to defeat some of the objections of one crucial constituency, namely the faculty and other members of the academy. In particular, I will argue for the following thesis: The role and importance of intercollegiate athletics are undervalued by the academy.

Intercollegiate athletics has the potential to contribute far more to the academic enterprise than it does currently. The contributions of intercollegiate athletics have failed to be realized because of misconceptions of college sports and preconceptions in the academy. Removal of these impediments provides an opportunity for sports on campus to better support the academic mission of universities and colleges.

Most of my defense of this thesis will focus on refuting defenses of it. I will also outline, very briefly, a constructive prospective of the value of sports in higher education.

The Standard View

The Standard View conceives of intercollegiate athletics as an extracurricular activity. It resembles participation in student government and protesting against

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the university administration. It has more educational value than fraternity parties but less than the chess club.

According to the Standard View, college sports may have some redeeming developmental value for students, but they are not part of the educational experience. Intercollegiate athletics can be eliminated from the campus without in any way diminishing the educational mission of the institution. Some critics go beyond the Standard View to claim that intercollegiate athletics detracts from the institution's ability to educate, and it is a strong negative force on campus.

College sports are merely "beer and circuses," as one author puts it, designed to entertain and distract attention from universities' failures (11). The Standard View, though not necessarily this stronger version, is widely held by faculty members, academic administrators, and many external constituents not closely allied with the university. It is not widely held by students, alumni, local community members, and national fans or by many governing-board members. The Standard View tends to pervade the nonstudent campus culture, mostly because of faculty influence.

The main problem with the Standard View is that it misrepresents college sports and the experiences of student-athletes. As a result, it creates problems for the functioning of an athletics department, and it inhibits the positive, constructive values of intercollegiate athletics from influencing campus life and the education of undergraduates. The Standard View is the leading contributor to the undervaluation of college sports.

Let me begin the argument with a seemingly small point. When the educational experience of student-athletes is compared with those studying the performing arts such as music, dance, and theater, as well as the studio arts, it is difficult to find substantive differences. Consider, in particular, music students at universities with major music programs. These students must be accomplished before admission. They have to audition, and the best of them receive scholarships. Those with exceptional talent are often admitted even if their purely academic credentials, demonstrated by their grade-point averages and SAT scores, are below the range of normally admitted students.

Many of the music students admitted to the best music departments and schools have ambitions for professional careers. Once admitted, they practice innumerable hours on their own and as members of the university's symphony orchestras, vocal and choral groups, and jazz ensembles. They perform with these groups on weekends and evenings during the semester, and, on occasion, they miss class to perform at off-campus locations. These performances often involve paid admission. In nearly every case, both performance and practice are intense, highly competitive for lead roles, time demanding, and year-round. Participation is similar to working a full-time job.

There are musical prodigies who bypass college and perform as soloists with international orchestras. Some who do enroll leave college early to follow career opportunities. Highly successful professional musicians, with or without college degrees, are well compensated and receive a great deal of public adulation.

Of course, the vast majority of music students never have a significant music career. Even in the best university music departments, the proportion of students that become international stars is infinitesimal. Some music graduates teach music; most, however, enter careers that are, at best, indirectly related to their music education. Nonetheless, these individuals benefited from their college education, not only in

music but also because of the learning achieved in general-education coursework and because of broadly based intellectual and personal growth.

The similarities of the experience of music students and student-athletes should be apparent. Student-athletes must be accomplished in their sport before enrollment, especially at the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I institutions, and they must “audition” through game performances and camps.² Like musicians, the best are sought by universities and receive scholarships. Some talented prospects are admitted even if their grade-point averages and SAT scores are below the range of the student body. Student-athletes practice on their own and as members of teams, they play on weekends or evenings during the semester, and they travel to off-campus sites. Their games provide entertainment to the college community, and tickets normally must be purchased.

There are rare athletics prodigies, but most attend college. Very few of those who play in college become professionals in their sports. In Division I men’s basketball, for example, less than one half of 1% of Division I scholarship players each year have an opportunity to play in the professional National Basketball Association (NBA), and the large majority of those have short careers. Some teach their craft after graduation—that is to say become coaches—but most pursue other careers, only some of which are related to college sports.

Like student-musicians, student-athletes receive public praise for the exercise of their abilities. In both cases, their successes—and failures—reflect on their home institutions. Both groups tend to form strong bonds with their mentors—their coaches or master teachers—as well as other students in the program. Student-musicians tend to major in music, though not always. Student-athletes undertake a broad array of majors, with business and the social sciences being the predominant ones, although sometimes their majors reflect their interests in athletics, such as kinesiology and broadcasting.³

These similarities point to a convergence of educational experiences between student-athletes and others engaged in certain preprofessional courses of study. Given this convergence, it might be expected that the student-athlete experience and that of students in the performing arts would have similar academic standing, but that is not the case.

In general, music students receive academic credit for learning their instruments, practicing, and playing in the school symphony. In general, student-athletes do not receive academic credit for instruction by coaches, nor do they receive academic credit for team practice or play. Many institutions give credit to members of the general student body to take classes in sports, say golf or tennis instruction. When physical education was required, as it tends not to be now, credit was awarded to nonathletes. But again, at NCAA Division I institutions, students do not receive credit for intercollegiate athletic participation.

What are the reasons for this apparent disparity in academic standing between student-athletes and student-musicians? There appear to be two primary ones. The first is the claim that credit is awarded only when the activity has content and the class (or its equivalent) is taught by a qualified instructor. This reason for the difference between student-musicians and student-athletes is not tenable, however.

How are we to specify content in this instance? In the case of physics, psychology, and philosophy courses, for example, the content is relatively clear. It is the systematic knowledge that is organized and conveyed by the instructor and

textbooks and learned by the students. This is factual knowledge, knowledge “that.” For example, physics students are expected to know that the speed of light is a constant, and philosophy students are expected to know that Western philosophy began with the ancient Greeks.

Music performance students are expected to gain knowledge “that” in some of their classes, such as music theory, but, by and large, performance students gain knowledge “how.” That is, they learn how to do certain things, for example, how to play Bach’s Brandenburg concertos. Learning how to do something is to gain a skill or to exercise an acquired skill in specific circumstances (8).

Student-athletes, too, must learn factual knowledge. They must know the rules of the game and about nutrition and exercise. But the most important learning undertaken by student-athletes is to come to know “how.” Individual and team practices provide opportunities for student-athletes to learn skills and to apply those skills in specific situations.

Content includes knowing “how,” as well as knowing “that,” both facts and skills. Content need not be restricted to propositional representation. Other kinds of mental representation including skill schemata and imagery also qualify as content. Nonpropositional representation is critical to action (3: part IV, ch. 7 and 8).

Thus, student-athletes and performance students each learn content in the same way. Some content is acquired in cognate courses, and that tends to be factual knowledge. The primary content, however, in both cases is knowledge how, and that is acquired in individual or group settings with a master teacher or coach. It is this knowledge how that enables them to perform in the concert hall or on the playing field.

Another account of the educational value of athletics participation is often offered. This account, compatible with the one given here but different, focuses on student-athletes learning cognitive skills (10: pp. 154 ff; pp. 160–161). In mastering their game, student-athletes gain skill in critical thinking and problem solving. These cognitive skills transfer to learning in the sciences, humanities, and other areas. Being successful on the field of play requires observation, weighing alternatives, assessing probabilities, and hypothesizing solutions. Of course there are other ways to learn to think critically and solve problems, but athletics participation stimulates and encourages the learning of these skills.

This account focuses on learned cognitive skills, whereas the perspective I am stressing is based on learned physical skills. Cognitive-skill learning is, for the most part, gaining knowledge that; physical-skill learning is, for the most part, gaining knowledge how. No doubt, both occur through athletics participation, and both contribute to a student’s education, but the main part is that, although athletics participation may well generate learning that is assimilable to the intellectual model of a university education, there is another type of learning that occurs in athletics participation that focuses on physical-skill development and that is a legitimate and worthy part of a university education.

The remaining part of this defense of the Standard View is that there is a difference between learning by student-athletes and performance students because of the differences in qualifications of the instructors. Here, too, the claim does not stand up to scrutiny. At fine universities and colleges across this nation, we expect a large majority of the instruction of undergraduates to be undertaken by those with terminal degrees or the equivalent in their fields. We do permit those in

training—graduate students—to render instruction, but only under the supervision of senior teachers.

In the case of physics, psychology, and philosophy, among other disciplines, the terminal degree is the PhD. That is the appropriate degree when the primary, often exclusive, learning is factual knowledge. In the case of skill-based disciplines, however, such as the performing and studio arts, the PhD is not ordinarily the terminal degree. In these cases, it is usually the MFA, though that, too, might not be required. Rather, in these disciplines, the underlying requirement is that there is a track record of excellence, verified by peers, of teaching the skills appropriate to the activity. Peer judgment in the cases of skill instruction plays at least as important a role in asserting qualifications, and likely more so, than it does in factual knowledge instruction.

In athletic coaching, and to a large degree in the performing and studio arts, there is an apprenticeship system for instructors. Of course, minimal academic credentials are required, usually at least the baccalaureate degree, but after that, one learns from masters. Coaches begin as assistants and, through involvement with successful coaches, emerge, if they are talented, as head coaches. Similar routes to leadership in their fields are followed by performing and studio master teachers. Often, though certainly not always, coaches and master teachers themselves have or had high skill levels in their areas of expertise.

Those who teach in the performing and studio arts tend to be on the tenure track. That often held for coaches in the past, but Division I coaches are not now on the tenure track, except for a few elders who retain their faculty positions. There are some institutions in Divisions II and III that continue the practice of putting coaches on the tenure track, especially when they teach classes to the general student body.

Thus, the first purported reason for the disparity in academic standing between athletics and performance students—namely, differences in instructional content and teacher qualifications—is not defensible.

The second reason for the disparity between athletics and performance disciplines cuts to the heart of the matter. It focuses directly on the role and value of intercollegiate athletics in universities. This reason is that there are unsubstantiated cultural preconceptions within the academy about intercollegiate athletics.

Not all faculty members and academic administrators are antiathletics. There are many faculty members who are fans and many who work toward the success and proper conduct of intercollegiate athletics, for example, through service as NCAA faculty representatives and on campus-based committees. Nonetheless, on the whole, there is an underlying and growing disconnect with intercollegiate athletics within the campus-based academic community. Academic fraud; academically underperforming student-athletes; growing athletics department budgets; large compensation packages for some coaches; student-athletes, coaches, and even presidents misbehaving; and many other issues fuel this discontent.

Some faculty members are helping to resolve these issues in intercollegiate athletics that lead to discomfort, especially the academic issues. Recently, for example, the Coalition on Intercollegiate Athletics, which consists of Division I faculty-governance leaders, has been a strong advocate for integrity in intercollegiate athletics (4). Aside from these efforts to understand and reform intercollegiate athletics, however, there is serious and growing discontent among faculty

members. The underlying reason is that, for the most part, faculty members hold intellectual powers in higher esteem than they do bodily abilities. Put provocatively, the American academy is prejudiced against the body.

Most faculty members are engaged in disciplines that are intellectual. Universities generally are involved in research and scholarship involving factual knowledge. This approach was inherited from the 19th-century German universities, which in many respects are the forerunners of the American research university. But there is also a long-term trend, which is distinctively American, that attempts to democratize higher education and emphasize the practical. This perspective led to the Morrill Act of 1862, by which universities were founded through a federal grant of land in order to teach agriculture and the mechanical arts (engineering). Nonetheless, despite this practical, skill-oriented history of American higher education, the intellectual, cognitive approach prevails. In it, emphasis on bodily skills is inappropriate; indeed, it subverts the true aim of the university. A focus on bodily skills leads to a vocational or purely professional view of education, and that, it is held, is antithetical to the mission of an institution of higher learning. Ballet counts; hip-hop does not. The core of the university is the study and advancement of the liberal arts.

Music and dance performance, though not purely intellectual, are treated as exceptions because they fall into the category of art. Actually, that is not entirely correct. It depends on what kind of music or dance. Classical music qualifies; rock and roll does not. The art form must relate to high culture. Rock and roll can be studied in a disinterested, intellectual way, and there are college courses on the history and sociology of rock and roll, but playing in a rock band does not ordinarily warrant college credit toward graduation.

In sum, the prejudice against the body, and with it professional studies that emphasize physical skill, is deeply rooted in the American academy. It was not until the middle of the 20th century that music, even classical music, rose to departmental status in many universities. This bias against the body and toward cognitive and intellectual capacity is the driving force of the disdain by many faculty members for college sports and the acceptance of the Standard View.

Financing Intercollegiate Athletics on the Standard View

The Standard View of intercollegiate athletics has far-reaching consequences. It affects the way Division I institutions budget for intercollegiate athletics. Because athletics is merely an extracurricular activity, according to the Standard View, the athletics department is to be treated like an auxiliary, similar to residence halls and parking, and not like an academic unit. Therefore, general-fund resources should not be used to support athletic departments. Rather, in Division I, athletics departments should be self-supporting or, better, return revenue to the institution for central academic purposes.

Universities are budgeted through a system of cross-subsidization. Graduate programs are subsidized by undergraduate programs. Some undergraduate programs, such as service courses in English and the social sciences, subsidize other undergraduate programs. One of the most costly programs in the university is

music; one of the best revenue producers is Psychology 101. Auxiliary units such as residence halls and technology-transfer operations do not have academic value by themselves and they are not to be subsidized, if at all possible.

Because athletics is conceptualized in the Standard View as an auxiliary, as something without academic value, it should not be entitled to a university budgetary subsidy if at all possible. Athletics should earn its own way. This perspective has been codified as part of the NCAA Division I philosophy statement: “[A member of Division I] strives to finance its athletics program insofar as possible from revenues generated by the program itself” (5).

Divisions II and III institutions do not, and cannot, expect their athletics departments to be self-sufficient. The reason is that they lack the ticket and broadcast-media proceeds and donor contributions to produce substantial revenue. In those divisions, intercollegiate athletics is a subsidized activity, but in the high profile, high-cost athletics programs of Division I, the expectation is for self-sufficiency.

Faculty members and academic administrators like this principle. There is enormous competition for resources in a university; in fact, the contemporary university can almost be defined by saying that the good ideas of the faculty always outstrip the available resources. Faculty members tend to strongly prefer to invest university resources in academic programs and not subsidize athletics or other auxiliaries. Indeed, in this time of limited resources, there is increasing pressure to not subsidize athletics, or at least minimize the subsidy by, for example, increasing student athletic fees.

Many athletics administrators, especially athletic directors, also like this principle. Although they certainly want additional resources that come from institutional subsidy, this principle justifies a degree of autonomy within the university not achieved by most academic units. Athletic directors are expected to find ways to generate resources through ticket sales, media contracts, entrepreneurial activity, and fundraising. They are permitted, with considerable autonomy, to undertake these activities.

In Division I, especially for institutions with the most successful athletics programs, revenue can be increased, even dramatically so, through broadcast-media contracts. For example, in men’s and women’s basketball, the NCAA conducts postseason tournaments. Long-term agreements for the men’s postseason basketball tournament provide a payout of more than \$6 billion over the 11-year length of the contracts.⁴

Given the principle that intercollegiate athletics is to be self-supporting, presidents and athletic directors have also sought to make improvements and investments in their athletics programs in order to be highly competitive. Competitive success, they reason, will increase their revenue streams. One example of investments for enhancing competitiveness is new or renovated facilities. Football stadiums are enlarged, and luxury boxes are added to increase ticket revenue and to satisfy donors and supporters. As the perceived value of winning teams increases, the market for the best coaches does, too. The competition for these coaches is such that they command seven-figure compensation packages. The recent escalation of the costs of competitive Division I athletics programs has been labeled the “arms race.”

There is competition in other parts of the university, as well. English departments compete to hire the most accomplished faculty members, which then drives up personnel budgets. Biology departments compete not merely on the basis of

salaries but also on laboratory facilities and scientific instrumentation. Investments are made in residence halls and recreation centers to attract more and better students. In these cases, however, the university, through its normal budgetary process, makes priority decisions about which units to support.

Because according to the Standard View athletics departments are not taken to be central, or even part of the academic mission of the institution, the tendency is to not make budgetary decisions within the overall institutional context. The autonomy of the athletics department at some institutions enables the department to make its case directly to the president or even, in some cases, to the university's governing board.

But recent studies conducted under the auspices of the NCAA cast serious doubt on the claim that continued increases in expenditures results in improved competitiveness or in an enhanced ability to satisfy the principle of self-support (6). These studies are predicated on the best databases ever assembled. They show, for example, that for every dollar invested in football or men's basketball in Division I, the institution can expect a dollar back. That is, the rate of return is 0%. These studies also show that there is no correlation between winning teams and funds for operational expenditures. Overall, the studies do not support the rationale often given for increased expenditures on athletes.

Of the 117 Division I-A athletics programs, the highest level engaged in football, over one third claim that they cover their expenses or are producing excess revenue on an annual basis. This claim is presently difficult to evaluate because there is no uniform means of accounting for athletics expenditures. For example, some do not fully count facility costs such as bonded indebtedness and physical-plant maintenance; some do not fully account for academic support for student-athletes, such as advising and tutors; and others fail to include student fees in institutional support. Based on the economic studies, it may be more reasonable to believe that fewer than two dozen Division I-A schools, perhaps as few as one dozen when everything is taken into account, actually meet the principle of self-support. The 100 or so Division I-A institutions and the remaining 900 other schools with NCAA athletics programs all subsidize them.

Is that bad? It is only if one is committed to the Standard View that athletics lies outside the central mission of the university. If the Standard View is relinquished, and with it the principle of self-support, then subsidizing athletics becomes acceptable in Division I, as it is in the other divisions. Athletics departments, like every other unit in the university, should and will continue to seek ways to increase revenue, but the felt need to ratchet up investment in the hope of improving revenues should diminish. Athletics-department budgetary decisions can, and should, flow through the normal university budget process, once it is clear that subsidization is an acceptable reality of life. The stigma of subsidies for athletics is removed when the Standard View is foregone.

The Integrated View

The Standard View should be replaced by a more balanced view about athletics that integrates it into the mission of the university. Call this the Integrated View. The primary and defining feature of the Integrated View is that athletic programs

are made part of the educational mission of the university. Although they are not part of the liberal-arts core, they play the same type of role as music and art and, perhaps, business and journalism.

The Integrated View is based on a different perspective of the role of physical-skill education than that of the Standard View. The Integrated View disposes of the bias against physical-skill development. The Attic Greeks had a good perspective. They believed that the mental and the physical should both be part of a sound education. Even someone as committed to the superiority of the mental as Plato held that physical accomplishment was necessary for successful citizenship. The central idea here is that of harmony. The harmony, the unity, of mind and body is crucial to a happy life (7: Book II 376E, Book III 412B, Book VII 521C–541B).⁵

The idea of harmony between mind and body in education comports well with the underlying philosophy of education in this country. America is the only country in the world that includes athletics extensively in its educational system. In Europe, sports are played mostly outside the university. Independent club sports, many of which involve payment to the athletes, substitute for intercollegiate athletics. Some Asian countries are reconsidering the separation of sports and education. Mainland China is reviewing its educational system, and there is some prospect that they will emulate the American system and incorporate athletics directly into it.

By focusing on the harmony between mind and body in education, athletics takes on a more central role. That role is not unlike the role of music in education, once again following the ancient Greeks. Some students specialize in music, but not many. Nonetheless, music is to be appreciated and enjoyed by all. It is considered a valuable part of the curriculum and the campus environment. Similarly, a minority of students are focused on intercollegiate athletics—from less than 2% of the general student body at large Division I institutions to 30% or more at some highly selective Division III liberal-arts colleges. Nonetheless, athletics and student-athletes should find a central role in university life. Athletics should be a valuable part of the educational environment.

The Integrated View raises a provocative issue. If athletic participation is relevantly similar to music performance with respect to content—namely, in knowledge of skills—as well as instructor qualifications, then if academic credit is provided for music students, should it not also be provided for student-athletes? There are some obvious limitations in providing credit to student-athletes. We should not offer majors in basketball or other sports. But it appears reasonable to provide a small number of credits, one time only, provided that the course has been approved through the normal process by appropriate faculty committees and it has an attendance requirement. There is the potential for abuse and academic fraud but, with faculty oversight, not more so than with some other courses in the university. In any case, the idea of offering credit for students participating in intercollegiate athletics is worthy of consideration, once the Integrated View is established at an institution.

Intercollegiate athletics, at its best, demonstrates positive values. These values include striving for excellence, perseverance, resilience, hard work, respect for others, sportsmanship and civility, and losing—and winning—with grace. Consider for a moment reactions to losing. Most undergraduate students, especially freshmen, have difficulty with failure, but student-athletes, who are accustomed

to competition and the failures that accompany it, become good at overcoming adversity. If they lose a big game on Saturday afternoon, they are on the field the next Monday working doubly hard. Many students would do well to embrace this value of resilience and coping with failure early in their college careers.

In general, it would be good if the positive values exhibited by student-athletes were learned and adopted by the general student body. A college education is not only an exercise in gaining factual and skill-based knowledge; it is an opportunity to develop a value system, a set of enduring goals, and a perspective on life. In large part, college is about becoming a productive citizen and a mature person. This developmental aspect of a college education is especially pertinent to traditional-age students who have a residential experience. The positive, constructive values of student-athletes, gained through their experiences in intercollegiate athletics, are apt models.

Given that certain types of physical-skill development have roles to play in an institution of higher education and that intercollegiate athletics is one such type of skill development, intercollegiate athletics should be treated similarly to music education and education in other areas that involve skill development. For example, departments of intercollegiate athletics and schools of music should be relevantly similar in terms of the university's organizational chart.

Athletic directors should have a role similar to those of deans of major units such as medicine and arts and sciences. It would be good if there were a direct reporting relationship between the athletic director and the president (although it can be helpful for a vice president or other high-level administrator to work with the athletic director on local operational issues). The athletic director should serve in the president's cabinet or similar body. Doing so enables the athletic director to gain knowledge of and contribute to the strategic priorities of the institution, as well as providing an opportunity for university leadership to be informed about the issues facing the athletics department and to assist the department in fulfilling its institutional role.

The advantage of mainstreaming the athletic department into the mission and structure of the university is that it reflects the balanced approach to education that includes both cognitive and physical capacity. It also has the advantage of removing the impetus for the bias against intercollegiate athletics underlying the Standard View. Mainstreaming, undertaken successfully, should yield a better appreciation for the athletics enterprise by faculty members. One expected result is that there will be an increased willingness among faculty to accept, if necessary, cross-subsidization of athletics, at least to the extent that there is acceptance for cross-subsidizing music and art. By placing athletics in the mainstream of the university, its value to the education of undergraduates becomes more apparent.

Students' education may include both intellectual- and physical-skill elements. Although an emphasis on the intellectual certainly has had salutary effects, a university education should not be limited in that skill development is necessarily excluded. The structure of the university, in turn, should reflect this integrated approach. On the defensive side, failure to place adequate operational controls on intercollegiate athletics is a recipe for deep problems, including public exposure by the media. On the constructive side, mainstreaming intercollegiate athletics into the campus structure is likely to yield value for the institution in terms of broadly based developmental educational opportunities.

Conclusions

The rationale for the Standard View is weak. It discredits intercollegiate athletics, ignoring its educational value and relegating it to mere extracurricular activity. The underlying rationale for it is that a university education should be dedicated entirely to the mind. By contrast, I have been arguing that there is a legitimate place in the university for physical-skill development. Not everyone, of course, should concentrate on skill development, as do music, drama, dance majors, and student-athletes, but a university should accommodate those who, in addition to learning factual knowledge, gain certain physical abilities.

In a university in which this integrated approach is undertaken, the constructive values associated with intercollegiate athletics, even for those who do not themselves participate, can influence the campus culture. The values of hard work, striving for excellence, respect for others, sportsmanship and civility, team play, persistence, and resilience that underlie the ideal of sport should be brought into the developmental aspects of a college education affecting all students. The Integrated View of college sports, as opposed to the Standard View, not only puts intercollegiate athletics in its proper perspective but also has positive effects for the campus community.

The role of intercollegiate athletics in universities has been undervalued. The problems surrounding intercollegiate athletics, often sensationalized, should be kept in perspective. The constructive values represented by the sports ideal can positively influence students and enable them to become productive citizens. Intercollegiate athletics can, and should be, a positive part of undergraduate education and campus culture.⁶

Notes

1. The best statement of the contemporary problems of college sports, which is based on sound social-science research, is reference 9. The follow-up volume is reference 1. This latter book focuses on highly selective private schools and also makes specific recommendations to resolve the issues. For a summary of some of the criticism, see reference 10, especially chapter 7. See also reference 2.
2. The NCAA divides colleges and universities into three divisions reflecting athletic scholarship (grants-in-aid) support, the level of competition, and differences in philosophy. For example, Division III, unlike Divisions I and II, does not offer athletic scholarships. Division I, in turn, is subdivided in football, and only in football, into Divisions I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA. Division I-AAA does not field football teams. Division I-A, which consists of 117 schools, plays at the highest competitive level and receives the lion's share of fan and media attention. Overall, there are approximately 360,000 current student-athletes in the NCAA competing at more than 1,000 colleges and universities. See www.ncaa.org for details of structure and membership.
3. See reference 9 for the majors and postcollege careers of student-athletes.
4. The NCAA national office uses less than 5% of the funds from media contracts to conduct its operations and redistributes the remaining 95% of the proceeds to member colleges and universities and to student-athletes.
5. See also reference 10: pp. 156ff. Simon quotes A. Bartlett Giamatti, former president of Yale University and commissioner of Major League Baseball: "The Greeks saw physical training and games as a form of knowledge, meant to toughen the body in order to temper the soul, activities pure in themselves, immediate, obedient to the rules so that winning would be sweeter still" (10: p. 157).

6. I want to thank Dr. Marshall Swain for his helpful comments on an earlier draft of this article and the editor and referees of the *Journal of the Philosophy of Sport* for constructive comments. I also want to thank the several university audiences who commented on an earlier version of this article.

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