eCOMMONS

Loyola University Chicago
Loyola eCommons

Dissertations | Theses and Dissertations

1996

A Descriptive and Exploratory Case Study of the Evolution of Intercollegiate Athletics and Education at Loyola University Chicago: 1922-1994

Thomas G. Hitcho
Loyola University Chicago

Follow this and additional works at: https://ecommons.luc.edu/luc_diss

Part of the Education Commons

Recommended Citation

Hitcho, Thomas G., "A Descriptive and Exploratory Case Study of the Evolution of Intercollegiate Athletics and Education at Loyola University Chicago: 1922-1994" (1996). *Dissertations*. 3622.
https://ecommons.luc.edu/luc_diss/3622

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Theses and Dissertations at Loyola eCommons. It has been accepted for inclusion in Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Loyola eCommons. For more information, please contact ecommons@luc.edu.

This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-Noncommercial-No Derivative Works 3.0 License.
Copyright © 1996 Thomas G. Hitcho

LOYOLA UNIVERSITY CHICAGO

A DESCRIPTIVE AND EXPLORATORY CASE STUDY OF THE EVOLUTION OF INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS AND EDUCATION AT LOYOLA UNIVERSITY CHICAGO: 1922–1994

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO

THE FACULTY OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF LOYOLA UNIVERSITY CHICAGO IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND POLICY STUDIES

BY

THOMAS G. HITCHO

DIRECTOR: STEVEN I. MILLER, PH.D.

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

MAY, 1996

Copyright by Thomas G. Hitcho, 1996
All Rights reserved.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This dissertation is conceptualized from an organizational dimension within a sociological perspective. It is a focus on the study of the roles which intercollegiate athletics plays, intramurally and extramurally, of one sectarian sponsored university in the American Midwest over the past six decades.

Thanks are due to the administration of Loyola University Chicago which contributed greatly to the underwriting of the degree program of which this dissertation is one expression.

The writer is indebted to the faculty and staff of the Graduate School and School of Education for their guidance and support. Specifically, appreciation is extended to the members of my dissertation committee, Dr. Steven I. Miller, Dr. Marcel A. Fredericks, and Dean Emeritus John Wozniak, for their suggestions and insights. Special gratitude is extended to Dr. Janet Fredericks, of Northeastern University, for her direction in organizational design in higher education and Dr. Kay Smith for her encouragement and support throughout my graduate studies.

A special note of thanks is due to my colleagues in the Athletic Department for their inspiration and help throughout the years. Special recognition is due those members of the Department, namely George Ireland, Jerry Lyne, Gene Sullivan, and Chuck Schwarz. Their encouragement and

leadership during my tenure has motivated me to carry on their tradition of living up to the challenge of using and developing, "...knowledge and service to others."

To the members of the study group—students, faculty, and staff—who have so graciously given their time during the preparation of this dissertation, the author offers his special thanks. Finally, gratitude is profoundly given to past, present, and in an anticipatory way, to the future members of the Society of Jesus whose efforts over time past, present, and hopefully future have so greatly benefited myself and others.

TGH May, 1996

Loyola University Chicago

To my late parents, John Hitcho and Helen Pranaitis Hitcho

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS iii

Chapter

I. INTRODUCTION AND HISTORICAL OVERVIEW 1

Introduction

Statement of the Problem

The Sociological Context—Historical Overview

Conclusion

II. METHODOLOGY AND REVIEW OF LITERATURE 51

Procedures and Methods of Research

Introduction

Research Design

Sources of Data, Theoretical Foundation

Research Purposes

Theoretical Foundation; Frames, and Themes–Theories

Motivation

Leadership

Conclusion

III. REPORT ON FINDINGS: PERCEPTIONS OF KEY INDIVIDUALS CONCERNING INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS AT LOYOLA UNIVERSITY CHICAGO: 1922–1994 77

Introduction

Methodology Synopsis

Qualitative Data: Biographical Sketches

John "Hicks" Connelly

Joseph Loftus

George M. Ireland

Raymond C. Baumhart

John T. Dillon

Summary

Reporting of Data

Conclusion

IV. THE SOCIO-CULTURAL CONTEXT FOR AN ORGANIZATIONAL STUDY OF INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS: TITLE IX, NCCA, KNIGHT COMMISSION, AND BUILDING NEW TRADITIONS 124

The Social-Cultural Context: the NCAA and Title IX

Hypothetical #1

Hypothetical #2

Hypothetical #3

Hypothetical #4

Building New Traditions

V. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION 156

Introduction

Summary and Findings

The Historical Dimensions to a Social Context of an Organization

Summary

Implications for Further Research

Closing Remarks

Appendix

A. "BUILDING NEW TRADITIONS" 175

B. "INTERVIEW SCHEDULE" 205

C. CODING GUIDE 213

WORKS CITED 215

VITA 224

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

"It is a great achievement to have found one way in which men, as possessed of finite bodies involved in finite situations, can become self-complete."

Introduction

This dissertation studies, from a sociological perspective, the organization of one aspect of higher education utilizing themes, theories, and pertinent literature. To accomplish this task, it focuses on recent insights from formal studies analyzing significant trends in organizational behavior. Furthermore, the scope of this focus moves beyond a contemporary concentration on such behavior to one which includes the analysis of historical, archival material, and also information gained from interviews of key, prior, yet living, participants in the organization's development and administration over the past eight decades.

This focus grounds itself for the collection and interpretation of its data from the perspectives developed in the sociological tradition. This tradition shows itself most clearly in the emphasis placed on organizational development developed by Lee G. Bolman and Terrence E. Deal in their study, Modern Approaches to Understanding and Managing Organizations. The unit of analysis for this study group is a single, sectarian American higher education institution. In

contrast to a public institution, this particular organization was selected because it afforded a continuity of management organizational structure and philosophy not often evidenced in comparable, publicly owned and managed educational organizations. Specifically, the study group of interviewees from this organization is drawn from participants involved in one activity of higher education: intercollegiate athletics. This activity is highlighted within organizational analysis due to the variety of values it represents within and without higher education in the United States.

The dissertation is structured in the following way. First, Chapter I presents an introduction and statement of the problem. To attain this, the following format is introduced. Attention is given to the sociological context which gave rise to the development intercollegiate athletics in the United States. Then, Chapter II presents the theoretical foundation along with the design of research for the dissertation. This chapter highlights significant contributions relevant to this study by a review of pertinent literature. Following this, Chapter III reports the findings drawn from this sample group analysis utilizing the conceptual framework introduced in Chapter II. From this report applications are made using the same conceptual framework in Chapter IV to a specific issue crossing organizational lines yet addressed uniquely from the perspective of this study. Chapter V concludes the dissertation summarizing salient findings from the analysis as well as identifying recommendations for further research.

Statement of the Problem

This first chapter provides an introduction and statement of the problem under analysis. Specifically, this organizational research studies the key role played

in organizations of higher learning in the United States by intercollegiate athletics. Intercollegiate athletics as an organizational entity was chosen because it can be analyzed, within an educational institution, from a sociological perspective drawing upon contextual perspectives on historical and contemporary data. The analysis of such an activity, which endures over time and impacts on others, as a social force enables the organization the chance to see the ways in which other enduring programs impact on and are impacted by the social context in which they operate. To do this, the following format is followed.

First, Chapter I discusses the rise of athletics within American higher education with special reference to Jesuit institutions. This contextualizes the historical and contemporary social setting in which the organization operates and to which the conceptual analysis is drawn. It specifically traces the history of the sports movement by highlighting the rise of football, basketball, and baseball. The development of track and water sports are noted in passing. While there is great reliance on published materials for this history, anecdotal information drawn from informal conversations, as well as interviews undertaken as part of the research, is also discussed. Such a survey provides quantitative data to give depth to the social world with which the organization interacts.

The chapter ends with a short summary and significant conclusions.

The Sociological Context—Historical Overview

It was noted by George Santayana, a prominent philosopher from Harvard, who said that in athletics as in all performance:

> The value of talent, the beauty and dignity of positive achievements depend on the height reached, and not on the number that reach it. Only the supreme is interesting: the rest has value only as leading to it or reflecting it.[1]

The evolution of intercollegiate athletics and accompanying policies within organizational institutions of American higher education has been a long, drawn out struggle. Initially, unfavorable attitudes towards athletics kept them from developing at all. In 1787 at Princeton University, the faculty prohibited the student body from playing games of "shinny," a form of hockey, because it was not for gentlemen and scholars. In 1789 an official document from Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute stated that, "Such exercise as running, jumping, climbing, scuffling, and the like are calculated to detract from that dignity of deportment which becomes a man of science."[2]

Despite these attitudes, the importance of physical conditioning for young men at the university level started with the arrival, in the nineteenth century, of German immigrants. These immigrants arrived with their Gymnasium academic background which involved a formal calisthenics program. Unlike the descendants of Anglo-Scottish Calvinism, with their aversion to all things enhancing the body, these Germans came with a culture encouraging vigorous physical health through simple calisthenics. Over time their influence reached into American higher education.

---

[1]Palmer Chamberlain Ricketts, History of Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute: 1824-1914, 3rd ed., (New York, 1934), 44–45.

[2]Ibid., 159.

At Harvard University, in 1826, Charles T. Follen introduced a series of gymnastic exercises in a cafeteria. Later, he constructed outdoor gymnastic apparatus for the entire student body. In time, Yale, Amherst, Williams, Brown, Bowdoin, and Dartmouth followed Harvard's lead and established outdoor gymnasium apparatus on their campuses. But these gymnasiums in university settings would not get beyond the infancy stage in the early decades of the nineteenth century. The persistence of the Puritan work ethic during this era prohibited such free play. Hence the gymnasium movement of the early 1820's did not grow.

Also, a good majority of the college students came from farms where hard work was the norm and people were judged by their vocation, not by their leisure activities such as athletics. William Paley, a noted eighteenth-century English theologian, stated that "if young men had an itch to do something, they should plant a garden."[3]

In general, the American undergraduate would not direct his energies to structured physical conditioning. Indeed, until the late 1880's, the American undergraduate would focus his attention only on physical activities such as "bowling, boxing, marbles, dancing, hunting, foot races, and early free-for-all versions of football and baseball."[4]

---

[3]Frederick Rudolph, The American College and University A History (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1962), 151.

[4]Ibid.

The military academies at both West Point and Annapolis were established by the federal government as institutions of higher education to train and educate young men not only in general studies but also with specific objectives necessary for a Presidential commission in either the army or navy. Thus for the cadets and midshipmen marching, physical drill, and combative sports such as boxing were emphasized in addition to the games and activities their counterparts at other American colleges enjoyed.

When the second wave of 19th century German immigrants settled in America they brought with them the Turnvereine, a form of gymnastic activity which stressed conditioning through flexibility and routines involving movable apparatus. Often their practitioners organized themselves into what came to be known as "Gymnasium Clubs." Such gymnasium clubs grew, and prior to the start of the Civil War, moved beyond the German community into the mainstream of college life. As with their earlier interest in German-inspired athletic apparatus, American colleges were very supportive of this new forms of the gymnastic movement. "By 1860, gymnasiums were functioning at the University of Virginia, Harvard, Yale, Amherst, Williams, Bowdoin, and Oberlin."[5]

Also in 1860, Amherst College was the first institution of higher education to establish a Department of Hygiene and Physical Education solely for the health and welfare of its students and to gain enthusiasm for the classroom.

But at the University of Virginia some members of the student body were concerned that the traditional sports like cricket and crewing were taking a back seat

to the gymnasium movement. For example, in 1852, the first intercollegiate athletic contest of any kind was a crew race between Harvard and Yale. Nonetheless, the mid-nineteenth century undergraduate student was still looking for a game that was not only competitive but demanded great physical skills like dexterity. These skills of dexterity were to be found in baseball.

The first intercollegiate baseball game was played between Amherst and Williams on July 1, 1859, at Pittsfield, Massachusetts. At the time little did they realize that baseball would grow and develop into the "national pastime." Prior to the Civil War, baseball was played in the northeastern part of country and mainly in the state of New York. During the Civil War it was played by both Union and Confederate soldiers. Its popularity grew as the veterans returned home to cities, farms, and colleges throughout America. Up to the turn of the century, Harvard dominated intercollegiate baseball, capitalizing on its popularity and making it the most widely played team game on campus. The reason for baseball's popularity has been a much debated topic. And, "The love affair with baseball came about because it fulfilled for young males their emotional needs for comradeship, recognition, and order."[6]

Although other sports helped fill some of these needs, it was baseball that best served young males and became their salvation during an period characterized by industrialization and destabilizing mobility.

---

[5]Fred E. Leonard, Pioneers of Modern Physical training, 268ff.

[6]Allan Nevins, Illinois (New York, 1970), 202.

But other sports were soon brought to American campuses. Intercollegiate track and field was influenced by "Scottish-American Caledonian games and the Oxford-Cambridge competition first scheduled in 1864."[7] Universities often used their "field days" to promote running, jumping, and throwing into organized track meets. As the popularity of track spread throughout the country, again mainly in the Northeast, the collegians organized the Intercollegiate Association of Amateur Athletics of America (hereafter IC4A) as its governing body. Harvard and Yale continued its dominance of intercollegiate sports so that either school won all the IC4A track meets from 1880 to 1897. The association encouraged amateurism by its participants and frowned upon any relationship with professionals what so ever.

A modified version of football or kicking an animal bladder was played during the tenth-century in England. The first football games played by college students were actually initiation rites for incoming freshmen. Harvard and Yale discontinued this practice of inter-class matches, in 1860, due to the physical injuries sustained by the freshman and disorderly conduct by the upper classmen in 1860.

The initial intercollegiate football game was played between Princeton and Rutgers in 1869. During its infancy the game of American football changed from a soccer or kicking style of play to the English rugby or running style of play. Yale was especially instrumental in the development of playing mechanics and rules for American football as we know it today. Walter Camp, the "Father of American Football" and a 1880 graduate of Yale, was the inventor of the line of scrimmage

---

[7]Samuel Crowther and Arthur Ruhl, Rowing and Track Athletes (New York, 1950), 275–76.

and the down-yardage system, which revolutionized the game.[8] The line of scrimmage replaced the "scrum" used in rugby and provided a reference point in which to place the ball. Also, the offensive team had three plays or "downs" to go a distance of five yards or give up the ball. (In contrast to modern football, where the offensive team has four downs to go a distance of ten yards.) The down-yardage system led to the development of lines five yards apart and the term "gridiron." Camp devised the offensive huddle where the quarterback used both words and numerical signals to designate a play. Prior to 1888 all tackling below the waist was prohibited. Collegiate football incorporated Camp's proposal for body tackling and open field running. "The University of Pennsylvania developed the "V Trick" in which players formed a V with their arms as they ran down field with their halfback in the middle of the V."[9]

Camp was such an innovator for the development of football that during his tenure at Yale, as the unpaid advisory coach and supervisor of athletics, many institutions sought him as a consultant to model their programs after the Eli athletics. From 1872 through 1909 Yale "recorded 324 victories, 17 losses, and 18 ties."[10] Coach Camp was also a pioneer in the promotion and marketing of intercollegiate football. He scheduled and promoted games in New York City and other major cities which had in stadiums that attracted more fans than the college's home field. An

---

[8]Benjamin G. Rader, American Sports from the Age of Folk Games to the Age of Televised Sports (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall), 102.

[9]Ibid., 103.

[10]Ibid., 104.

accomplished writer, Camp wrote over twenty books on sports from novels to coaching manuals. His greatest journalistic promotion, however, was the selection of a team composed of the best collegiate football players in the nation. After every football season, Camp would select his "All-America" team from the best athletes on campuses who would take their place in history as a member of this elite fraternity.

From an organizational perspective, these sociological trends in the larger society were starting to impact on the organizational structures of higher education both internally and externally. One sign was its popularity. Football's proliferation throughout the colleges started a movement in which University presidents tried to maintain some type of control and regulation. In contrast to British students, whose culture stressed that they were to be gentlemen on and off the field when it came to gray areas or rules governing the game of rugby, American culture instilled the student athletes, as it did men in general, with a competitive drive to win at all costs. As a result they often compromised and exploited the nascent rules to benefit the outcome of the game. Hence, more stringent rules were introduced as necessary to insure the integrity of the game. Despite team rowdiness, team captains democratically elected by students were more popular than members on the academic Dean's list. Not surprisingly, they became campus heroes.

To this day, American football is still an "continuously evolving sport." Much of this evolution was due to external sociological factors like intercollegiate travel. For example, in 1881 and before the advent of quick and efficient air travel, the University of Michigan went East by rail and played Harvard in Massachusetts, Yale in Connecticut, and Princeton in New Jersey. All this travel was done in the same

week! In 1889 the University of the South at Sewanne was on the "road" for six consecutive days - all this obviously was before cars or airplanes. Institutions of higher education, which seldom consulted with one another regarding curriculums, now found it necessary to find ways of regulating intercollegiate football.

The institutionalization of amateur sports was now aimed at intercollegiate athletics. As will be noted later in the analysis of Loyola University Chicago, administrative policy had to reassert the academic identity of the organization and the structural and political elements necessary to maintain it. For example, there was a general consensus among university administrators and populace that athletic professionalism was not conducive to a bona fide educational atmosphere and environment. To survive intercollegiate athletics had to turn control for athletics from student to university administrators and faculty.

President McCosh of Princeton was the first administrator to recognize the need for control. With his endorsement the faculty formed the first college athletic faculty committee to govern the institutional control of its teams. The forming of the faculty committees was a step in the right direction, but according to Alexander Meiklejohn of Brown University, "the independent Athletic Councils can never solve the problem of athletics. There is no provision for intercollegiate cooperation in the management of athletics. That there must be mutual understanding and cooperation between competitors for the keeping of such agreements as are necessary for the

welfare of the sport."[11] As this dissertation will show, the colleges and universities are still wrestling with this idea of equity for intercollegiate athletics.

Traditionally, the faculty had controlled the curriculum monitoring of student behavior, acting "in loco parentis." Now with the growth of other extracurricular activities, the faculty was in a paradoxical position. Its members did consider their appointment to an athletic board as a form of academic integrity until the athletic teams interrupted learning in the classroom. Football was bigger than the university. Walter Camp stated that at Yale "Neither the faculties nor other critics assisted in building the structure of college athletics. In fact, they put some obstacles in the way. It is a structure which students unaided have builded, and with pride they point to their labor, and love it more dearly for its very difficulties."[12]

Princeton in 1881 and Harvard the following year were the first two universities to organize athletic faculty committees solely for control of its athletic teams. The number of days missed from classes, passing a mandatory medical physical, banning competition against professional teams, and prohibiting betting on their own games were some of the issues faced by the pioneer athletic faculty committees.

By 1900 most colleges had athletic committees composed of faculty members, alumni, and student representatives that had the power to regulate athletic teams on the field and in the classroom. Each committee was unique and

---

[11]David K. Wiggins, ed., Sport in America from Wicked Amusement to National Obsession (Champaign, IL: H uman Kinetics, 1995), 155.

[12]Ibid., 154.

had its own set of rules for governing its teams. Problems arose when one institution's regulations gave it a playing advantage over a competing institution.

Yet even in 1882 President Charles W. Eliot of Harvard realized the importance of collective inter-institutional athletic control so as to prevent professionalism in collegiate sports and he tried to initiate an alliance with powerful arch rival Yale which with Harvard and Princeton dominated college athletics at that time.[13] But Yale was against any efforts to establish inter-institutional athletic control and rejected any compromise submitted to it by an athletic faculty council. Thus Yale took a laissez faire attitude towards such an arrangement which arose because athletic teams were dominating their opponents and the administration did not what to interfere with their success.

Another attempt by a Harvard man, Dudley A. Sargent who was on its three-member athletic faculty committee, was made to organize inter-institutional control, being held at a New York City Conference on December, 1883. Its focus was also directed towards not using professional coaches for college athletic teams. Eight universities attended the Conference and, once again, Yale pulled out of the meeting and continued to flex its muscles when it came to inter-institutional control. Nevertheless, the Conference did make the following four point resolution:

1. No professional athlete should be employed as a coach of any college team.

---

[13]Ibid., 154.

2. No college team should play against a non-college team (including professional teams), and games should only be contested on one of the college's home grounds.
3. Athletes were to be limited to four years of athletic participation.
4. Each college should set up a faculty athletic committee to approve rules and regulations, and the colleges who accepted the resolutions would only compete against others who accepted them.[14]

But unfortunately this first attempt for inter-institutional control did not obtain the five necessary votes out of twenty-one eastern institutions. Failure by the different faculties to achieve a consensus on the resolutions was one of the many obstacles the Conference participants had to over come.

In 1883, the student-controlled IC4A meeting adamantly opposed faculty regulation, encouraged professional coaches for their sports, suggested a four year rule of eligibility, and advocated a hands-off attitude for college athletic teams by the faculty.

One Yale professor, E.L. Richards, actually agreed with the students' perception of athletic control. Writing to Princeton's chairman of the faculty conference, he noted that "The management of athletic sports might wisely be left to the student."[15]

---

[14]Ibid., 155.

[15]Ibid., 156.

The struggle between student control and faculty administration of institutional athletics would carry over into the next decade. The students felt that it was their program and that the faculty committees should intervene only when a sports-related crisis occurred on their campus. And again Yale's immortal Walter Camp wrote in support of student control. He noted that "College athletic organizations if left to themselves would soon work out their own salvation."[16]

Yale, still the power house in intercollegiate athletics (especially football), declined an offer from its arch rival, Harvard University, for a third conference to address the issue of athletic expediency. But that was not to be. On February 18, 1898, faculty, alumni, and undergraduate members from seven colleges—in what came to be known as the Brown Conference—met at Providence, Rhode Island to find a solution to the perpetual problems in intercollegiate athletics, especially for the sports of football and baseball.

The universities in attendance, which we know today as the Ivy League, were Brown, Columbia, Dartmouth, Harvard, Pennsylvania, and Princeton; Yale by its own admission declined the invitation to attend.

In regard to the agenda, the meeting was like the prior meetings, yet organizationally, the purpose of the Brown Conference was to make the games equal in terms of rules standardization. As noted above, often one institution's rules governing athletics gave it an advantage over its opponent. This was exemplified in player eligibility for football. Frequently, "tramp athletes" transferred at will from one school to another without any restriction. Often they played more than four years at

---

[16]Ibid.

the undergraduate and even graduate level. As a result, maintaining a normal academic load for graduation was often compromised and abused. Student athletes with exceptional skills were often paid to play baseball and football. "...In the 1890's, several midwestern colleges formulated an agreement to limit the number of professional players to two per game,"[17] whereas the remainder of the players were to be student athletes. Historically, commercialization in college sports can be traced to a game between Harvard and Yale in 1859, sponsored by a eastern railroad company. Yale was also involved in the professionalization of college sports when it hired a "pro" to coach its crew team against Harvard. However in 1869, Charles W. Eliot, in his inaugural address as president of Harvard, said "there is an aristocracy to which sons of Harvard have belonged, and, let us hope, will ever aspire to belong—the aristocracy which excels in manly sports..."[18]

Intercollegiate football, a sleeping giant, was becoming a Trojan horse within the academy for commercialization. Revenue sources independent of the organizations and administrators threatened the focus of the institution. Gate receipts and big business overshadowed the major mission of the university sponsoring the team as will be seen in Chapter IV. Thus intercollegiate athletics and higher education were on a collision course in dire need of a governing body to legislate control over the evils in athletics. In its initial draft the Brown report charged that "many of the abuses which have existed in inter-university athletics were due to athletics being vested solely in undergraduates, while most of the quarrels are due

---

[17]Rudolph, 374.

[18]Ibid., 158.

primarily to the actions of graduates."[19] The faculty also was authorized to "weed out" any student enrolled at their university for the sole purpose of playing football. The Brown Conference Committee Report stated that "We are not engaged in making athletes and restrict them from interfering with the mental and moral training of the students."[20]

Thus professionalism and commercialism were not the goals of the Committee on Intercollegiate Athletics. A concerted effort was to be made by all parties to keep it from tainting the sole purpose of athletics.

To do this, the Committee favored the British model formed at Oxford and Cambridge, "where gentlemanly game of enjoyable competition transcended victory-at-all-costs and we should not seek perfection in our games, but, rather, good sport."[21]

Unfortunately, neither the Brown Conference philosophy nor its twenty rules on institutional control by faculty direction and administration were accepted by the universities. However, it did establish some guidelines that universities could adopt in their policies concerning intercollegiate athletics. According to the Brown Report: (1) each institution should form an athletic committee composed of members of its faculty, (2) the athletic committee should approve all coaches and trainers, (3) all athletic events must be approved by the athletic committee, (4) student/athletes

---

[19]Ibid.

[20]Ibid.

[21]Ibid.

needed special approval by the athletic committee to participate in more than one sport, (5) all student/athletes should be in good standing academically.[22]

As to student athlete academic eligibility, the Brown Conference recommended that: (1) all students should be in good standing, (2) part-time students were not eligible for competition until they were in residency for one year, (3) a student deficient in grades in one department of the university could not transfer to another department to become eligible, (4) a student must pass the universities entrance examination.[23]

In terms of athletic eligibility, the Brown Committee recommended that: (1) each student would be allowed to play a maximum of four years, (2) transfer students would have to sit out or "redshirt" for one academic year, (3) incoming freshmen students would be limited to junior varsity or freshman teams, (4) freshman were not eligible for varsity teams.[24]

Moreover, the specific area of practices and competition, the Brown Committee recommended that: (1) practice was prohibited during university vacations, except for a ten day pre-season football camp prior to the first day of the Fall semester, (2) all competition should take place on the university campus, (3) visiting teams were permitted to purchase tickets for their contest.[25]

---

[22]Ibid., 159.

[23]Ibid.

[24]Wiggins, 160.

[25]Ibid., 160.

Since a major issue facing university administrators was the growth of professionalism amongst its student athletes, the Brown Committee recommended this amateur code:

1. No student could participate in athletics if he had previously played for money, such as a baseball player at a summer resort or an athlete who received financial support to participate on a college team.
2. No student could participate in athletics if he had ever taught sports for financial gain, and
3. No student would be athletically eligible if he received free board at a training table, or he owed money for such meals.[26]

In summation, the Brown Conference Report of 1898 recommended faculty and athletic committee control for amateur competition for student athletes on venues within the university campus with restricted commercial enterprise. But this concept based on the British upper class system of amateurism would not be accepted by the highly competitive, working class people within the open class system of the American society. Consequently, colleges were hesitant to attend annual conferences where faculty committees would control the direction of athletics and student input for extracurricular activities

Thus an organizational dilemma for governance of intercollegiate athletics existed between the university faculty and student groups. How to exercise administrative, i.e. enduring organizational focus and yet affirm the value politically

and through effective human resource management the transient yet strong worth of student management. Harvard, for example, which initiated faculty control of athletics in 1882, recognized the importance of student management of athletics and maintained it. According to Harvard Athletic Committee Chairman, Ira N. Hollis: "It is at present the settled policy of the Athletic Committee to leave the management of sports and contests in the hands of students so far as it is compatible with good behavior and good scholarship."[27] Yet, Yale's obdurate posture concerning the control of intercollegiate athletics was just the opposite of Harvard. Yale was for exclusive student control and administration of its athletic programs, because if control of intercollegiate athletics was in the hands of the faculty and managed by the student groups, there might be no clear cut policies or anyone actually managing the sports.

The movement towards control by administrator in intercollegiate athletics continued to grow. It reached a peak in 1905 when the violence, brutality, and professionalism of football, resulted in the death of eighteen young athletes. A threatening crisis faced intercollegiate football. From the White House President Theodore Roosevelt "ordered the colleges to clean up football or he would abolish it."[28]

Despite the football community's positive response to these allegations of brutality and questionable ethics by different players, disruption occurred.

---

[26]Ibid.

[27]Ibid, 161.

[28]Rudolph, 376.

"...Because of the brutality, some colleges, notably Columbia, University of California, and Stanford did give up football for a decade, whereas Northwestern and Union suspended it for a year."[29] But despite these objections football's popularity grew.

Chancellor MacCracken of New York University was very instrumental in organizing a meeting of the Eastern universities on these issues threatening the existence of football and on the direction of intercollegiate athletics. In this meeting faculty members and administrators from over 60 universities on December 28, 1905 to establish the foundation for the future National Collegiate Athletic Association, which would address intercollegiate issues on a national scale.

Before a Harvard audience President Roosevelt in 1907 said, "As I emphatically disbelieve in seeing Harvard, or any other college, turn out mollycoddles instead of vigorous men I may add I do not in the least object to a sport because it is rough.[30] But brutality was condemned and the country was wanting football to be played fairly and by the same rules on every collegiate campus-whether played by sons of wealthy and influential men of corporate America, or by sons of Pennsylvania coal miners and midwestern farmers, so that athletics would be a truly democratic institution.

This spirit of democratization in athletic programs so evident decades later, as this study will show in Chapter IV in its focus on gender rights, inspired the sociological interplay for academic organizations between men and the larger social

---

[29]Ibid.

[30]Ibid., 377.

context as seen in the interplay between industry executives. The 38th president, Gerald Ford, who played center for the University of Michigan, credited his academic and athletic experience there as keen preparation for the challenges he later faced in Congress and in the White House. Still another endorsement came from Coach Amos Stagg, of the University of Chicago: "Until intercollegiate athletics became popular the major sport in America had been drinking."[31] This interplay was also seen in the impact of business and the military culture which impacted on academic sport.

The atmosphere of America at the turn of the century consisted of a dominating expression of big businesses such as the Standard Oil Company or U.S. Steel Corporation, and the adventures of the "Great White Fleet" with its show of force throughout the world. Hence, football was to many an extension of our national interest in business and war, either as a training ground for high finance or for battle. Thus President Eliot of Harvard "considered football a combination of both business and war."[32] At the University of California, President Benjamin Ide Wheeler "recognized football as a military metaphor."[33] Also football was instrumental for cutting the number of protests and hazing found on campus.

During World War I the U.S. military used athletic competition to foster a kind of competitive esprit de corps. The Army and Navy both established boxing and

---

[31]Fredrick Rudolph, The American College and University quoted in W. Carson Ryan, Jr., The Literature of American School and College Athletics (New York, 1929), 130.

[32]Ibid., 380.

[33]Ibid.

football teams to build confidence and teach aggressiveness to young recruits so that positive attitudes and dispositions could be nurtured. The services also encouraged inter-camp competition between its athletic teams. Thus John Griffith, an officer during World War I, argued "that championship play complemented the goals of mass participation by encouraging interest in sports."[34] After the war Griffith became Commissioner of the Big Western Athletic Conference and later in his professional career he held several key positions in the National Collegiate Athletic Association. (Today, all three military academies sponsor numerous Division IA athletic teams, within the guidelines of the NCAA, which are consistently competitive in all sports. In contrast, during the Vietnam era, the caliber of athletes at West Point was marginal at best and this trend continued until the conflict was over. Blue chip student athletes chose to sign tenders at major academic institutions that emphasized football which did not include an officer's commission, five year military service commitment and a possible thirteen month battle tour in Vietnam).

Large organizations like those in the academy did not restrict the role of athletics only to on-field competition. Over time, the effectively developed mythic rituals and symbols to convey through athletic competition, the mission or character through concrete symbols, e.g., team names, school colors, mascots, and ceremonies. Part of the mystique for college football was due to the many symbols and rituals which took on an almost religious character and formed an important part of the game. Uniforms and their colors took on religious significance in terms of loyalty and group identification. In 1854 the Yale crew team wore blue flannel

---

[34]Wiggins, 204.

jerseys. The Harvard crew wore crimson red bandannas to set them apart from the Irish rowers, who donned green during the Boston regatta. The colors of blue and gray were adopted at Georgetown to show its divided loyalty during the Civil War.

To go along with the various color schemes, colleges chose nicknames which were often very creative and helped establish and reinforce an identity of the team and university. For example, Yale became the Elis named after the founder of the university and later on it was called the Bulldogs. Loyola's teams were called the Maroon and Gold until its 1926 football team schedule caused the media to write that it was "rambling from state to state." and thus became "The Ramblers." All students at Georgetown University were required to take both Latin and Greek and the students started the chant 'Hoya Saxa', which translates as "What Rock!" The cheer was popular and the term Hoyas was adopted by the Georgetown athletic teams as their nickname. Probably the most famous collegiate mascot recognized today is the "Fighting Irish Leprechaun" of the University of Notre Dame. Land Grant or State Universities reflected their allegiance and loyalties to statehood in their nicknames. The following is a sample of a group from institutions: University of Texas—"Longhorns," Oklahoma University—"Sooners," Florida State University—"Seminoles," University of North Carolina—"Tar Heels," Ohio State University—"Buckeyes," Indiana University—"Hoosiers," University of Michigan—"Wolverines," and University of Illinois—"Fighting Illini."

But the mystique and structure needed resources and political savvy to provide its lifeblood. Catholic organizations dependent on sport revenue were not immune. For example, intercollegiate football and Notre Dame are household words.

"In the 1920s, Fighting Irish football began to produce significant revenue for the university's educational and building funds, and later helped Notre Dame survive the Great Depression."[35] Knute Rockne, the immortal coach who was the architect for Notre Dame's rise to big time football, often spent more time negotiating contract guarantees than diagramming plays. For competing against Stanford University in the 1925 Rose Bowl, in which the Four Horsemen were pitted against All-America running back Ernie Nevers, Notre Dame received a check for $52,000.

Unlike most universities with major football programs, Notre Dame operates in the black and often underwrites non-revenue sports, student financial aid, and extra-curricular activities on campus. "At approximately $17 million, the university's athletic budget represents only about 5 percent of its overall operating budget and, among major athletic programs, ranks only in the mid-range. Stanford and Michigan, by comparison, each have budgets in excess of $30 million."[36] Under Rockne, the 1924 Notre Dame football would travel over 10,500 miles throughout the country, playing against top ranked teams like Army, Princeton, Georgia Tech, Nebraska, and Stanford before sell-out crowds. All travel was done by train which caused the athletes to sometimes miss a whole week of classes if they were playing on either coast.

(According to Notre Dame legends, Mrs. Rockne enjoyed California and persuaded her husband to schedule the University of Southern California in

---

[35]Dennis Moore, "Big Time Bucks," Notre Dame Magazine (Autumn, 1994), 3–6.

[36]Ibid.

November to get away from the early winter snowstorms in South Bend, Indiana. This series between Notre Dame and "Southern Cal" has continued into the current Lou Holtz era at Notre Dame and has grown into one of the most famous rivalries in college football.)

The "Big Game" takes on many meanings, but the administration and alumni not only want winning teams but also victories over their traditional arch rivals. Success or failure is often decided by the outcome of this game, where trophies more than metal are passed on to the victors. In the Big Ten Conference, Purdue and Indiana battle for the Old Oaken Bucket and Minnesota and Michigan for ownership of the Little Brown Jug. In the Pacific Ten Conference, Stanford and California compete for the Axe. The most famous rivalry pits the cadets of West Point against the midshipmen of Annapolis for bragging rights in the armed services. All symbolize the chance for revenue.

John D. Rockfeller, the Standard Oil magnate, with his newly endowed University of Chicago and president-elect William Rainey Harper, hired Amos Alonzo Stagg, a former Yale athlete under Walter Camp, to put his institution on the map by producing a winning team. President Harper told Coach Stagg to "develop teams which we can send around the country and knock out all the other colleges."[37] Coach Stagg accepted the challenge and turned the University of Chicago Maroons into the "Monsters of the Midway" dominating college football during his tenure. Also, Alonzo Stagg was the first collegiate football coach to hold professorial rank in the country.

Knute Rockne, a convert to Catholicism, former student athlete and chemistry assistant at Notre Dame, was a person with a vision, as pure as the "Golden Dome" and as American as George Gipp with his famous battle cry for Notre Dame football: "When things are wrong and the breaks are beating the boys, tell them to go in there with all they've got and win one just for the Gipper."[38] Knute Rockne made one of the most inspiring and memorable half-time speeches while trailing Army by a touchdown in 1928 so like a script out of Hollywood, that the Irish went on to defeat the cadets in the second half. Former President Ronald Reagan, an intercollegiate football star at Eureka College class of 1932, played the part of George Gipp on the silver screen during his early acting career. During Rockne's thirteen years as head coach of the Irish he compiled a Herculean record of 105 victories, twelve defeats, and five ties. From 1920 to 1950 era, such coaches as Knute Rockne, Glen S. "Pop" Warner of Pittsburgh, Robert Zuppke of Illinois, and Dana X. Bible of Texas A.M. were far more popular than their star players and received a higher salary than the professors and in some cases surpassed their president's salary. According to the Carnegie Commission study of 1929, "full professors averaged a salary of $5,158. annually, whereas head football coaches received an average annual salary of $6107."[39]

The symbolic importance especially of football was not only expressed along organizational personnel lines (e.g., staff line) distinctions (e.g., players, coaches,

---

[37]Rader, 110.

[38]Ibid., 185.

[39]Ibid.

sponsors) but also in the "vestments" (e.g. uniforms) and in temples (e.g. stadiums.) As Greece had its amphitheaters and Rome its coliseums, American intercollegiate football had its revenue generating stadiums. To show allegiance and nationalism going beyond religious loyalties, administrators of universities, during the twenties and thirties added the term Memorial to their newly built stadiums, and incorporated civic and politically evocative elements such as the raising of the flag and choral singing of the national anthem by players and athletes together.

The Los Angeles Coliseum and Rose Bowel in Pasadena, which had over 100,000 seats, were built with backing from local businesses. At Soldier Field in Chicago the "Army -Navy game of 1926 had 110,000 people watch the game."[40] By 1927 the University of Michigan in Ann Arbor had over 87,000 seats for its fans and its love for football can be attributed to Fielding Yost, the coach of the Wolverines from 1901 to 1923. His teams were so offensively minded that they often scored every time they had the ball and hence the media called him Fielding "Hurry Up" Yost.

Today, Michigan stadium holds over 104,000 fans and every game is a virtual sell-out. Revenue from ticket sales, concessions, and parking total well over three million per home game—an issue of great importance, as Chapter IV shows, for integrity issues in educational organizations.

The University of Notre Dame just recently announced a $50 million expansion which will add 21,195 seats to its stadium, bringing its capacity to 80,990 making it the 14th largest football venue among the 106 Division I-A schools.

According to Rev. E. William Beauchamp, executive vice president in charge of athletics, "We certainly could sell out a 100,000-seat stadium—that's not the issue. What we think we have done is provided an opportunity to [enjoy the experience] without significantly changing it."[41] With the marching band celebrating 150 years of existence and the football team competing for 108 years, Notre Dame has been able to push this great tradition of intercollegiate football to its zenith.

But even the force of these reconstituted religious-like symbols could not overcome scandalous issues. Seven midwestern institutions of higher education met at the Palmer House in Chicago during 1895 to form an athletic conference and implement twelve bylaws to govern the administration of their intercollegiate athletics. Among the issues these bylaws addressed were the role of non-student athletes, the escalation and overspending of team budgets, and overzealous alumni who would do almost anything to produce a winning football team were some of the issues addressed in the formation of the Western Athletic Conference, which today is known as the Big Ten Conference. The original seven schools included Illinois, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Purdue, Northwestern, Michigan and the Univ. of Chicago. Indiana University and the University of Iowa joined in 1899 and Ohio State was added in 1912 to round out the ten universities. The University of Chicago dropped out of the Big Ten in 1946, much to the dismay of Alonzo Stagg and the alumni, and Michigan State took its place as the tenth member in 1949. Penn State became the eleventh member in 1994, although the conference is called the Big Ten.

---

[40]Ibid.

[41]Moore, 6.

In a nut shell, the university presidents were basically trying to keep the bylaws simple by requiring the athletes be legitimate student amateurs. Professionalism should not have a place on college campuses, so that the corruption which continued to escalate in intercollegiate athletics was contrary to the philosophy of the new conference. A challenge, as this study will show, did not escape smaller, sectarian organization's mission. In 1935, Carl D. Voltmer wrote that Michigan President J.B. Angell feared "an overemphasis of the game [football], causing subsidizing of athletes, intense rivalries, commercialism and wrong ideals of college life."[42] Notre Dame, the perennial independent football power, made a bid in 1926 to join the Western Conference. Strong opposition and influence from Fielding Yost of Michigan and Alonzo Stagg from Chicago vetoed Notre Dame's membership into the conference.

Allegations and rumors concerning Knute Rockne's ethics about playing ineligible student athletes kept the Irish from joining the conference. (Starting in the Fall of 1995, Notre Dame will be a member of the Big East Conference, and the irony is that the Big Ten Conference would love to have them on board, sad but true.)

The big in the Big Ten Conference not only stands for football, but for the big enrollments (nine institutions have over 40,0000 students), big stadiums (Michigan has the largest campus facility), third largest at Penn State and the fourth largest at

---

[42]Chicago Tribune, 31 July 1995, Section F, p. 8.

Ohio State), and finally big crowds (the conference has been either first or second in attendance for the last 32 years).[43]

But the gymnasiums and stadiums only comprised a part of intercollegiate athletics with its attending organizational benefits, challenges, and scandals. If football has been the big brother for intercollegiate athletics, then basketball has been its baby sister.

Basketball, "is the only team sport in America that can trace its origin in 1891 to an innovative inventor by the name of Dr. James Naismith in Springfield, Massachusetts."[44] Dr. Naismith, a thirty-year old physical education instruction, was given the assignment by his director to develop an indoor team game which could be played during the winter months. After nailing some peach baskets, at the height of ten feet to the balcony of the gymnasium with the bottoms still in tact, Naismith wrote some basic rules for the game of basketball, which were printed in the student newspaper, Triangle:

1. The ball may be thrown in any direction with one or both hands.
2. The ball may be batted in any direction with one or both hands.
3. A player cannot run with the ball, and he must throw it from the same spot where he caught it.
4. The ball must be held between the hands.

---

[43]Ibid.

[44]William S. Jarrett, Timetables of Sports History: Basketball (New York, 1990), Preface vii.

5. Fouls shall be called against players who shove, hold, push, trip or strike an opposing player.
6. Striking the ball with the fist constitutes a foul.
7. If any team makes 3 consecutive fouls, it counts as a goal for the other side.
8. A goal is made when the ball is thrown or batted into the basket and stays there. Each goal counts 1 point. Initially, the bottom of the peach basket remained in placed and removed a year later.
9. When the ball goes out of bounds, it must be thrown back into play by the person who first touches it within 5 seconds; otherwise, the other side gets possession of the ball.
10. An umpire makes note of each foul and has the power to disqualify any player.
11. The referee decides when the ball is in play, in bounds, to which side it belongs and how much time is left. He also decides whether a goal has been made.
12. The games consists of two 15-minute halves, with 5 minutes of rest in between.
13. The side making the most point in that time frame is the winner."[45]

Some interesting highlights of basketball during its infancy include: its site was Geneva College in Beaver Falls, Pennsylvania (hometown of NFL Hall of Famer, Joe Namath), which was the first college to start a basketball team in 1892.

In 1894 backboards are introduced and soccer balls are replaced by regulation basketballs. The first college game was played between Hemline of St. Paul, Minnesota and Minnesota State School of Agriculture in 1895. Field goals were changed from 1 to 2 points and foul shots were changed from 3 points to 1 point in 1896. In the early twentieth century Dr. Forest "Phog" Allen succeeded Naismith as coach of the University Kansas and coached for 39 years. To this day the student body during basketball games in Allen Fieldhous still chant as a symbolic gesture to the opposing teams to "beware of the Phog." Amos Alonzo Stagg was both the football and basketball coach at the University of Chicago in 1896. He organized the University of Chicago National Interscholastic Basketball Tournament in 1917. The first international competition, the USA defeated France, 93-8. The development of the National Invitational Tournament in New York City and the proliferation of the National Collegiate Athletic Tournament pushed intercollegiate basketball to new heights in terms of participation, exposure and revenue income.

The Historical Context: A focus on one organization: Loyola University of Chicago: Sports interest with all its organizational issues was not restricted to larger Ivy League and to independent state universities but spread to smaller sectarian sponsored institutes. Catholic colleges were no exception.

For example, Loyola University Chicago, was founded in 1870 as St. Ignatius College by the Reverend Arnold Damen, S.J. Molded after the European Jesuit schools, St. Ignatius College included "...three years of academic (secondary)

---

[45]Ibid., 1.

secondary schooling, plus four years of collegiate education,"[46] both of which admitted males only. The seven year curriculum focused on the study of "humanities, poetry, rhetoric, philosophy, with emphasis on Latin and Greek classics, science, mathematics and English literature."[47] From 1870 to 1922, St. Ignatius College and St. Ignatius College Preparatory School were actually located in the same building at 1076 West Roosevelt Road. In 1909, St. Ignatius College became the College of Arts and Sciences of Loyola University. Today, St. Ignatius is co-educational and still functioning in its original edifice.

In 1906, the Jesuits from this province which sponsored St. Ignatius purchased property at Hays Point in Rogers Park on the far north side of Chicago, adjacent to Lake Michigan, and announced plans to build a second institution. In order to increase enrollment and keep up with state and other Jesuit institutions throughout the country, St. Ignatius College later acquired Lincoln College of Law and four colleges of medicine affiliated with the Illinois Medical College. There, Jesuits started another preparatory school on the "North" or Lake Shore Campus at Hoy's Point in Rogers Park and named it Loyola Academy. Originally intended for the academy, Dumbach Hall was completed in 1908, and served as a classroom building. In 1910, Cudahy Science Hall was constructed on this campus to function as a classroom building for the academy and education courses were offered. In 1912, Loyola started a department of sociology and in 1914, the university initiated a

---

[46]William F. Kane, S.J., Loyola University Chicago Archives, Box 17, Folder E8, 56.

[47]Ibid.

course of extension lectures for the religious community. In the fall of 1922, Loyola University separated from St. Ignatius high school and moved from the west side of Chicago to its new home on the Lake Shore Campus.

Loyola University with a College of Arts and Sciences and departments of medicine, law, engineering, and sociology in place was anxious to provide a good education for its students. The Reverend James Mertz, a Jesuit teacher at the time, was one of the initial Jesuits to move up to the Lake Shore Campus from the St. Ignatius site on the city's west side.

The Jesuit Residence, completed in 1922, housed the Jesuits from both the Academy and the University, and the University's main offices. During this period all University classes on the North campus were conducted in Dumbach Hall, Cudahy Science Hall, and two additional classrooms located in the basement of the Jesuit Residence. Following the custom of the day all students, staff, and faculty were males. The Elizabeth M. Cudahy Memorial Library was erected in 1930 at a cost of $335,000.

These buildings comprised the bulk of the physical plant of the North campus until Campion Hall, an all-male dormitory, was built during the early fifties as a response to housing for World War II and Korean GI's. Chamberlein and Stelber Halls, apartment buildings adjacent to campus, were converted to dormitories and offices. Wilson Hall housed the military science department and student union. Mertz Hall, Flanner Hall, and Damen Hall were added in the seventies, in response to the arrival of the baby boomers and government support for the sciences.

During the initial construction phase of the "North Campus," all the buildings were erected with their front facades facing East towards Lake Michigan. This approach in campus architecture was done in anticipation of the extension of the city's Lake Shore Drive north from Hollywood Ave that would allow the Drive to pass right in front of the campus, thus creating a picturesque setting of Lake Michigan and Lake Shore Drive as the east boundary for the campus. Unfortunately, this extension of the drive did not take place.

These solid brick and stone structures symbolically represented the solid structure of values the Jesuit curriculum advanced. They were soon challenged, as part one of this chapter indicated, by other schools' athletics. In 1892, St. Ignatius College (Loyola) played its first intercollegiate football game against Marquette University and lost 10-0, but according to the records in the archives both teams claimed victory.

Thirty one years later in 1923, construction of Alumni Gym at a cost of $500,000., the athletic football field, and track were completed. The first football coach during that era for the Maroon and Gold or Ramblers, as the team was later called, was Vincent Shackelton hired in 1922 to coach the football team. Jack Tierney coached the basketball team for one year.

However, as at other educational organizations, the University's focus on sports changed and the administration directed its focus to developing a bona fide national football power as a goal of the administration. For example, with this shift came changes in the organization's focus. The focus moved from physical structures to personnel structures with accompanying shifts in emphasis on human resources

and prudent political use of them. With a new campus and name, competitive athletic programs were now a priority. Prominent individuals came with and from this focus. Personnel, human resources, became significant too. For example, in 1923 Roger Kiley, who later became a successful federal judge and a former All-American end at Notre Dame under Knute Rockne, was hired to take over the football team. He immediately recruited highly talented high school athletes from the Chicago area. After their playing days a few of them went on to establish themselves as cornerstones in the Chicago Catholic high school football league. For example, Whitey Cronin went to Leo, Dan Devine to St. George and Tony Lawless to Fenwick high school.

Also in 1923, the University hired Leonard Sachs to coach basketball. During his nineteen seasons as head coach (1923-1942), Sachs helped the Ramblers become one of the finest teams in the Midwest. He was very instrumental in nurturing the game of basketball from its infancy. By 1935, Sachs held dual positions as head basketball coach and director of athletics. Years later his hard work paid off. He was honored by being inducted into the Basketball Hall of Fame in December, 1961, at the Chicago Stadium. Sachs' overall win-loss record was 223 and 129 for a winning percentage of .629.

Football continued on and off with moderate success until the Jesuit administration made a financial and scholastic commitment to student athletics in the 1920's to produce a winning program. This shift in emphasis in the focus of athletics from recreation to entertainment reflected the dilemma faced in the larger social context. The following is an excerpt from a memo found in the University's archives

concerning the direction of intercollegiate athletics from 1922 to 1930. Much of the emphasis here foreshadowed emphasis seen decades later in the New Traditions proposals. Yet the foundation, organizationally, was grounded in the Jesuits' institutional culture long before.

1922–23: Father Meuhlmen becomes Athletic Director

1923–24: reorganization of competitive sports at L.U.
recruit boys outside of Chicago
establish a training table
provide living rooms at Alumni Gym, Cudahy Science Hall,

1924–25: training location was changed from Alumni gym, which was operated by the athletes, to academy lunch room; additional rooms at three fraternity houses on the North campus, rent paid by alumni

1925–26: Father Dennis Burns, S.J., Athletic Director; players continued to be fed in the lunch room of the academy

1929–30: Father Thomas Power, S.J., Athletic Director; further solicitation of the alumni for financial aid to help pay for the new stadium and living rooms.[48]

From 1922 to 1930, the glory years of Loyola football, the University expended a considerable amount of time and money to make this sport into a

---

[48]Loyola University Chicago Archives, Athletic Department, Football Files, Acc No. 84, Record Series 17, Box 5.

competitive program nonetheless. "We were not big-time,"[49] said Ted Connelly, quarterback from 1927–1929. Despite this disclaimer and the limited pre-depression resources available, the Rambler football squad was quite respectable throughout the country. Yet the student athletes recruited to play football during this period at Loyola did not possess the same athleticism as members of University of Chicago or Notre Dame football squads. The Loyola Ramblers played an impressive schedule and kicked off against some power house opponents at Soldier Field and Cubs Park. "Twenty-two men who coached or played football are members of Loyola's Athletic Hall of Frame."[50] The practice of giving a visiting team a guarantee (money) was used to augment the travel expenses incurred i.e., hotels, meals, and train fare. The Ramblers did receive a $3,000 guarantee from Loyola University in New Orleans in 1929 and a $5,000 guarantee from Boston College in 1930. (In contrast, the payout or guarantee in a major bowl game, like the Rose Bowl today, may exceed eight million dollars.)

The practice of paying for games and financing a football program at Loyola would come to an abrupt end with the stock market crash and the beginning of the Great Depression.

In September, 1929, the glory days ended with the stock market crash. Three months later, on December 5, 1930, a landmark press release from the University public relations office stated inter-collegiate football was to be abolished from University activities because "The sport is being overemphasized and that as far as

---

[49]Ron Pollack, "Autumn Winds," Loyola Magazine, 30.

[50]Ibid., 36.

Loyola University is concerned, the policy which has been in practice in the past has been unwise. It is our belief that the interest and appeal of these spectacular games", Loyola University President Father Kelley, S.J. wrote, 'are getting away from the colleges and universities and their students, and are being centered on the public; or, in other words, the colleges and universities are competing with entertainment agencies for the patronage of the public.' The only way to have a successful team is to subsidize the players, and you cannot do that without favoritism and making compromises."[51]

The administration at that time considered football as symbolic of an organization's shift in mission away from its educational goals (which for Catholics included other-worldly spiritual ones) to commercial goals out of line with the true philosophy of a Jesuit education. Loyola University was not alone then or later, as the following sampling of the colleges which dropped football shows:

1939 DePaul University

1940 University of Chicago and

St. Joseph's University

1942 LaSalle University

1943 Manhattan University

1951 Niagara University and

St. Mary's University

1953 New York University and

[51]Loyola Universtiy Chicago Archives, Athletic Department, Football Files, Acc no. 84, Record Series 17, Box 5.

	Santa Clara University
1954	Washington and Lee University
1955	Fordham University
1961	University of Denver
1965	University of Detroit
1967	George Washington University
1971	Bradley University
1973	Drexel University

Flex Springer's Appendix I to the Hanford report cryptically asks "What happened to colleges that gave up football from 1939–74 and how did it affect alumni support, legislative reaction, school spirit and diversion of attention to other sports?"[52]

Football was discontinued, according to Springer, for a number of reasons. First, paramount for all these schools was the issue of money needed to underwrite its existence. Loyola University Chicago was a prime example of this phenomenon during the 1930 season when the administration dropped their competitive program. It was a financial burden to maintain a respectable program with little or no income to offset the operating and scholarship costs. Lawrence P. Faul, D.D.S., a member of the 1930 team stated, "We always were told that was where the money for our program came from. When our patron became financially embarrassed after the

[52]Michener, Sports in America (New York: Random House), 215.

crash and lost a lot of his money, I am quite sure he wasn't able to help out any more, and I think that was the end of the program."[53]

Secondly, almost every institution had a losing record, well below .500. The students, alumni and fans were losing interest in marginal or poor teams. According to Fred Sextro, also a member of the 1930 team, "We weren't getting big crowds, even though Loyola had just built stands and lights."[54]

Third, the alumni questioned the administration in its efforts to continue to finance a losing program with a negative atmosphere throughout the campus. Fourth, the evolution of professional sports in large urban areas contributed to the demise of intercollegiate football.

Much to everyone's surprise, the dropping of football from the athletic programs did not eliminate all intercollegiate athletics. At many schools, "Alumni giving did not drop nor did the alumni sever connections with their schools." Like Loyola, quite the contrary happened, "The better or larger Catholic colleges were able to shift from expensive big-time football directly into proportionally cheaper big-time basketball, and to make considerable money while doing so."[55]

The transition to basketball was the combination of a student commitment to sports and the location of many urban Catholic universities where basketball was a very popular form of entertainment. According to Michener, "the United States is the only nation in the world which demands that its schools like Harvard, Ohio State and

---

[53]Loyola Magazine, Fall 1992, 32.

[54]Ibid., 35.

[55]Michener, 216.

Notre Dame assume responsibility for providing the public with sports entertainment. Our system is an American experience, a historical accident which developed from the exciting football games played by Yale and Harvard and to a lessor extent Princeton and certain other schools during the closing years of the nineteenth century."[56]

During this era professional football did not exist and the venue for public entertainment consequently was taken on by more well-endowed institutions of higher education. Today, Boston College is the only Jesuit institution of higher education that finances and supports a NCAA division IA membership for football; while, Notre Dame of the Holy Cross heritage is the only other Catholic institution which sponsors football at this level.

The Catholic universities were not the only sectarian educational organizations to capitalize on the proliferation of basketball. Decades later, Oral Roberts University, founded by the famous fundamentalist faith healer with his huge endowment and national congregation, had a vision to compete in intercollegiate athletics. According to Reverend Roberts, "I believe that athletics has a mission to bring people to God, and a great university like ours must have a team. Football is too expensive and it requires the university to find too many star players. Basketball is simpler. We'll specialize in basketball."[57] Ironically in 1979 Oral Roberts University and Loyola University were charter members of the Midwestern City Conference.

---

[56]Ibid., 188.

[57]Ibid.

During this pre-World War II, depression era, independent institutions which were not affiliated with conferences had difficulties in scheduling games and providing competition for their Olympic sports. Out of this dilemma the formation of conferences throughout the NCAA evolved.

At Loyola, basketball turned out to be one of the most successful team sports in terms of criteria like win/lose records, National Invitational Tournament appearances, National Athletic Association appearances and 1963 Champions, and All-Americans produced and the contributions athletes made in the years after graduation. For example, on Saturday, December 11, 1993, the 1963 basketball team, along with its head coach George Ireland, was honored for their accomplishments in winning the NCAA Basketball Tournament against the two-time defending champion, the University of Cincinnati. Not only were the Ramblers victorious on the court, but the starting five members of the team graduated on time, producing one attorney and one Ph.D. in education. Today, the entire championship team is doing quite well professionally in their chosen fields. They are alumni of whom the University can be very proud.

Following the hiatus caused during World War II, athletics, while under ultimate administrative control, became, like other departments within the booming University population, more autonomous. New personalities came on the scene with authority and influence achieved through competency of their own. In 1945, Thomas Haggerty was hired as coach to rejuvenate the basketball program. It had been discontinued for two years during the war. He is credited with bringing the program back to national prominence by winning 111 out of 152 games for a .730 winning

percentage. Haggerty was also instrumental in the development and promotion of college double-headers played at the old Chicago Stadium.

Six years later, George Ireland succeeded him. He coached from 1951-1975. Midway in his tenure, he catapulted the program into the national spotlight with its 1963 NCAA Championship overtime victory over two-time defending champs from the University of Cincinnati. Coach Ireland's success can be contributed to his fast-break offense and full court press that was not only entertaining for fans but produced a career record of 312-255. Today, Loyola is the only institution in the state of Illinois to claim the honor of winning the NCAA basketball championship. Loyola, Georgetown, Holy Cross, and San Francisco (two times) are the four Jesuit universities who have won this prestigious NCAA basketball championship. Coach Ireland's thoughts, perceptions, and memories will be discussed and analyzed in Chapter III.

Coach Ireland, during the 1974 season, due to ill health, handed over the reins of head basketball coach to Jerry Lyne. Lyne, a true Southsider from the Beverly area, was a former student athlete chosen captain during his senior year in 1956. In one capacity or another, Coach Lyne held almost every position in the athletic department during his 21 year tenure at the university. In 1980, Coach Lyne's team accepted a National Invitational Tournament bid and lost in the first round to the University of Illinois. Unfortunately Lyne lost what was his last game, but in the eyes of his staff and friends, Jerry or "Petey", as he was fondly called, would always be a winner.

In 1980, the then athletic director Gene Sullivan stepped down to accept the head coaching position when Jerry Lyne resigned. Prior to his appointment at Loyola, Coach Sullivan was a proven winner at both Loyola Academy and Notre Dame, his alma mater. Sullivan, often considered the master mind behind the development of the "double stack offense," used this offensive weapon to put Loyola basketball back on the competitive map. Sullivan recruited local student athletes from the city of Chicago and surrounding suburbs to build his program. His 1985 NCAA tournament team, labeled "Chicago's Team," lost to number one seeded Georgetown University in the Eastern Regional semi-final game at Providence, Rhode Island. Sullivan's philosophy of playing tough non-conference games would eventually pay big dividends during his coaching career. He was also very instrumental in the formation of Midwestern City Conference, Loyola's first conference affiliation. Prior to 1979, Loyola University competed as an independent in NCAA Division I. To borrow a phrase used by Coach Sullivan, "Win'em all" fits the enthusiasm and drive of this energetic individual.

Will Rey's tenure as head basketball lasted for only five years with a won/loss record of 45 and 96. Unfortunately, Coach Rey could not get the program off the ground and he left the university after the 1994 season.

In the 1990's, a new staff has been added with Ken Burmeister at the helm. With his coaching maxim of "Fast Break on the Lake," and a recruiting class of blue chippers, the athletic administration is anticipating a winning season with aspirations for the NCAA tournament.

Football and basketball were not the only sports featured at Loyola University. Track and water polo teams also produced a number of NCAA All-Americans with great winning teams throughout the early sixties. The most talented and famous track athlete to ever attend Loyola was Tom O'Hara. Tom held the indoor record for the mile (3:56), which was set at the Daily News Relays in front of 17,000 fans at the old Chicago Stadium. This world record stood for 10 years, a feat unheard of in modern day track. O'Hara was also selected for the 1964 Olympic Games in Tokyo, Japan and is Loyola's only Olympian.

Also, recognition should be given to "Mr. Loyola" or Tom Cooney, former student athlete and track coach for the Ramblers. In 1975, Cooney produced four All-Americans with his record setting two-mile relay team. After his coaching career, Cooney held various administrative positions in the athletic department during the eighty's, selling tickets and doing promotional work for the department. Cooney has been associated with the Jesuits in one way or another since 1962. Currently he is a tenured Assistant Professor in the Department of Physical Education.

Track success has continued under the reins of Gordon Thomson. His dedication and enthusiasm over the years produced a number of Midwestern Collegiate Conference championships in cross country and indoor track for both the men's and women's teams. Coach Thomson also produced his share of All-Americans, starting with Eddie Slowikowski, Jim Westphall, Andre Fromby and Mark Burns. Loyola's best kept secret, in terms of NCAA appearances, was water polo with twelve invitations for post-season play. Retired coach Ralph Erickson was very instrumental in the success of the program and produced a number of All-Americans

among whom is Russ Curry, selected four times as the most talented water polo athlete in Loyola's history. Coach Erickson also coached Rich Norman, Larry O'Connor and Danny O'Connor, who in their own right were repeat All-Americans. O'Connor also achieved the special honor of being selected to participate on the Olympic development team.

Sociological change in American team sports encouraged the development and acceptance of soccer. Ray O'Connell started the men's soccer program in 1978. O'Connell holds a United States Soccer Federation "A" coaching license and also serves as the soccer program director for both the men's and women's programs. He is currently a member of the Division I Ethics Committee and NCAA Men's Soccer Tournament Advisory Selection Committee. In 1991, Coach O'Connell was named coach-of-the-year in the Midwestern Collegiate Conference.

However, soccer alone was not the only sign of a larger world impacting on American higher education's sports programs. A significant impact was seen in the shift toward the 1960's infusion of athletic activities for women. This was propelled by the civil rights movement as well as ensuing legal and moral concerns like distributive justice, as seen in Title A and gender equity for example. Carolyn O'Connell, currently Associate Athletic Director, is responsible for the administration of women's intercollegiate programs, managing of the department's scholarships, and NCAA compliance issues. In 1977, the first female athletic teams were introduced by Athletic Director George Ireland with the encouragement of then President Raymond Baumhart. These teams included basketball, swimming, track, and volleyball. Two years later as a coach of women's volleyball from 1979–1983,

O'Connell compiled a win/loss record of 173–87 and was named North Star coach of the year in 1983. She pioneered the development and evolution of gender equity at Loyola University Chicago.

This completes the historical overview of intercollegiate athletics and its evolution and pertinent relationship to athletics in general and specifically its involvement and influence with Loyola University Chicago from 1922 to 1994.

Conclusion

This historical retrospect serves as a backdrop to enhance perceptions of intercollegiate athletics at Loyola University Chicago and in the broader social context of intercollegiate athletics within and across American higher education organizations. Important factors include: educational and economic changes, future goals of the University, issues raised by the National Collegiate Athletic Association and its bearing upon student athletes at Loyola University Chicago, and the relationships of student athletes in terms of education and their social, geographical, and previous academic backgrounds. These factors and issues impacted the events of that time and affect the data in this analysis.

The following chapter discusses the methodology which was used in analyzing these issues and events. Chapter II will also contain a review of pertinent literature and appropriate theoretical applications.

These emphases—structural, political, human resources, and symbolic—have gained the attention of organizational analysts. Their analyses builds upon the themes here, as shown in the empirical studies done using theories and conceptual

frameworks reflecting these emphases. The next chapter addresses the manner in which the data on these have been researched. Thus, Chapter II presents a review of the pertinent literature, as well as the research design incorporating them, for this study.

CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY AND REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Procedures and Methods of Research

Introduction

Formal research efforts analyzing the organizational evolution of intercollegiate athletics within higher American education are a relatively recent development. Thus this research conducted from an organizational-sociological perspective is exploratory in nature. This chapter reports the manner in which this study was done. It describes the ways in which the present data on this topic were obtained, the characteristics of the sample study, the interviews, and a statement of the research questions under investigation. In addition, it also interprets and analyzes the review of literature pertinent to this dissertation's topic.

The formal efforts towards the sociology of the organization of intercollegiate athletics are a relatively recent development. However, the literature over the years seems to concentrate on a variety of sub-topics concerning intercollegiate athletics in relation to educational organizations. Noteworthy in this research on educational organizations are the opinions of Jesuit administrators, faculty, and staff, as they look to the future goals of sponsored

efforts for student athletes in higher education at Loyola University Chicago.

Besides the pertinent literature, relative to the development and growth of sport and intercollegiate athletics within the framework of this research study, four historical essays are noteworthy.

In the area of history, with special emphasis on the proliferation of intercollegiate athletics and its specific reference to Jesuit education in, Sport in America: From Wicked Amusement to National Obsession, David K. Wiggins explores the development of sport as both informal play and as organized competition.[1] Topics such as the relationship between urbanization and sport, stratification and development of ethnic and racial groups in sport, the role of women in sport, and the influence of commercialization and marketing of sport are discussed and analyzed.

In American Sports, Benjamin G. Rader, examines how and why the informal games of colonial Americans evolved into today's sports activities.[2] In one perspective, it explores the changes in the organization, rules, management, finances, and ethos of athletics. From another perspective it examines the social, cultural, and economic circumstances that have shaped American sports history and its effect on intercollegiate athletics in education.

James A. Michener, one of America's most distinguished authors, in Sports in America, develops three perspectives to support his argument for the evolution of

---

[1]David K. Wiggins, ed., Sport in America from Wicked Amusement to National Obsession (Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics, 1995).

[2]B. Rader, American Sports (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1990).

sports. First, sports are fun for the participants.[3] They provide a release from everyday stress and provide a feeling of confidence and self-esteem as the game progresses. Reference to the ancient Greeks and Romans in which participation and watching were a important part of the culture and socialization process are noted. When winning is the primary focus, as many sports events are in America, the game is no longer fun. Secondly, sports promote both the physical and mental health of participants and general society. Michener places a great deal of value on this theory and argues that it should take precedence over everything else. Thirdly, sports have an obligation to provide entertainment. According to Michener, all societies in different periods of history have needed some kind of public entertainment. This venue has been sports.

The present study discusses the key role of cultural values as articulated by the Jesuit application of Roman Catholic educational and cultural values to student athletes in their American education higher institutions. This discussion is grounded, then, not only in contemporary organizational theory but also as seen, in Chapter I in a historical context.

Research Design

Sources of the Data, Theoretical Foundation

This section discusses the sources of data and the theoretical foundation for this exploratory study. In regard to the former, the study group and research instruments are described. In the latter, two key conceptual elements are introduced

---

[3]J. A. Michener, Sports in America (New York: Random House, 1976).

as the framework for this analysis. The elements are organizational frames and the themes—theory element. Each is introduced and discussed in turn.

The gathering of research data in the present study utilized both quantitative and qualitative approaches. Using a structured interview technique, a structured questionnaire, as well as participant observation, the researcher drew upon his extensive familiarity with athletics in higher education in gathering and analyzing the data.

The structured interview schedule provided, among other items, the following: background information as to why a specific intercollegiate program was discontinued (e.g. football); information about the proliferation of women student athletes in intercollegiate athletics, with accompanying gender equity issues in higher education; and questions about intercollegiate programs with proportional expenditures for both the men's and women's programs. Attitudes concerning the organization's sponsors were also polled. Additionally, questions were asked of members of the sectarian sponsors. concerning intercollegiate athletics and education, and their focus for implementing changes in the twenty-first century for intercollegiate athletics.

In addition, a six-page, structured instrument containing fifteen open ended questions was administered to a group of randomly selected students. These were subdivided into two groups: one composed exclusively of non-athletes; the other of student athletes. Both males and females were represented in each of these sub-groups. Furthermore, the participant-observation technique was utilized since the researcher, as an Associate Director of Athletics at the institution, had interacted for

over fifteen years with the departmental culture and had come to establish rapport generally across students, faculty, and administrators.

While the prior interaction offered the researcher familiarity with the study population, bias was avoided by random selection of a small study group. While random selection from the entire 18,000 member University population was not possible in this exploratory study, the advantage of identifying and interviewing such a purposive sample was the possibility of exploring central issues in more depth. Being exploratory in nature, the study is not concerned with such issues as external validity—i.e., generalizability.

Student respondents were selected in the following ways. In the first subgroup, five non-athlete students were randomly selected from students assembled in the University's student union. In the second subgroup, the student athletes were chosen from a group congregating in the University's athletic facility. Thus a group of ten students (five non-athlete students and five student athletes), together with four administrators and faculty members, made up the case study group. The students' combined subgroup totaled a sample of five men and five women, between the ages of nineteen and twenty-one, drawn primarily from upper division class standing within the population of University students. These responses were recorded anonymously so as to maintain confidentiality.

This second part of sample, drawn from faculty and administrators, was administered on a semi-structured interview schedule. This sample was drawn from those faculty and administrators who had, in the course of their employment with the university, been exposed to significant contact with either the design and

implementation of student athletic programs and curriculum and/or engagement with student athletic personnel within the organization. Certain common factors distinguished the value of the responses for these subjects. For example, the administrators and faculty members had spent an extensive number of years at the university—averaging at least twenty-five.

These were individuals committed to intercollegiate athletics, following its progress from 1922 to 1994. Their interviews substantiated a very comprehensive background of experiences and involvement with intercollegiate athletics at Loyola University Chicago. Their ideas, statements, and concerns were recorded in writing during the interview process. An audio tape recording was also used to insure that the answers to the various questions would be available verbatim for complete analysis.

Additionally, a careful explanation was given to each respondent interviewed that the interview would be strictly confidential. Each respondent in the study groups was assured that he/she would not be mentioned by name in the final report of the research.

In regard to the administrators and faculty, the researcher employed qualitative inquiry techniques, most notably participant observation. This line of inquiry was conducted to establish rapport with the participants before the actual interviews began. For example, an appointment by telephone was made for each subject to be interviewed in person. Each interview was completed in one two-hour session and conducted as informally as possible. At the close of the interview the researcher thanked the subjects for their cooperation.

Research Purposes

This research attempted to examine key empirical questions and gather data relevant to intercollegiate athletics in terms of Jesuit higher education, philosophy, fiscal concerns, and social changes for the twenty-first century. From these purposes, the research issues in this dissertation were developed. They are as follows:

1. What are some of the perceptions of selected individuals concerning intercollegiate athletics and education at Loyola University Chicago from 1922 to 1994?
2. How important have these perceptions been in regard to the economic and educational changes to the present and future goals of Loyola University Chicago?
3. What are some of the issues raised by the governing body of intercollegiate athletics, by the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA)? To what degree do these issues bear upon the training, development and education of student/athletes at Loyola University Chicago?
4. What relationships can be found at Loyola University Chicago between training, development and education of student athletes and their social, geographical and previous academic backgrounds?

These issues will be addressed from the perspective of organizational theory drawn from the social sciences and applied as appropriate to the context of American higher education. Specific attention focuses on their application to Jesuit

higher education in the United States with special attention to Loyola University Chicago.

From the data an attempt will be made to investigate possible changes in attitudes for intercollegiate athletics as expressed by students (both athletes and non-athletes), administrators and faculty members.

The next section presents the elements of the study's conceptual framework: organizational frames and critical themes and theories. Each is discussed in turn.

Theoretical Foundation: Frames, and Themes–Theories

This research design is reflective of a theoretical focus developed from organizational study. This section discusses its two key foci: organizational frames and critical themes and theories. The first focus will be drawn to the concept of organizational frames as discussed by Bolman and Deal. Then, what this study categorizes as themes and critical theories on organizational behavior are introduced and discussed for their relevance to the frames and themes as well as to the problem under analysis.

In Modern Approaches to Understanding and Managing Organizations Bolman and Deal introduce the organizational frames approach to organizational analysis.[4] These four approaches are structural, political, human resources, and symbolic. The authors identify, describe, and explain the following for each approach: strengths, weaknesses, and applicability, how each approach would be

[4]Lee G. Bolman and Terrence E. Deal, Modern Approaches to Understanding and Managing Organization (San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1966), 32.

applied by individuals in different roles, and what outcomes could be developed as situations change.

The Organizational Frames approach is used to analyze the data obtained from the structured interview schedule and questionnaire instruments administered to the student and faculty/administrator samples. These frames are grouped both independently and collectively. In turn, they are used to form a matrix. In this study, these four approaches to organizations will be integrated with the previous identified focus on Jesuit education. The applicability of each approach is highlighted in this study.

The four frames highlight key ideas in organization analysis. Each frame is presented in turn. An analysis of the similarities and differences in each particular frame as it relates to education and intercollegiate athletics at Loyola University Chicago is made.

The frames approach builds upon ideas first discussed in Corporate Cultures, The Rites and Rituals of Corporate Life.[5] The authors, faculty members of the Harvard Graduate School of Education, include in their research assumptions and analysis of the myths and legends surrounding contemporary corporate America among which are some of the most salient. Organizations, such as universities are human institutions, not simply animated buildings. As human institutions, they express the strategic innovations and long term plans of the managers. Any organization or institution, they argue, has a unique and distinct

---

[5]T. Deal and A. Kennedy, Corporate Cultures (Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1982).

culture. The authors emphasize the need to relearn old lessons from anthropology on how culture ties people together and gives meaning to their lives within organizational contexts and their accompanying myths. This anthropological emphasis is reflected in what has come to be called the Organizational Frames approach.

After the data from each specific frame are collected, grouped, and categorized, a discussion is introduced in terms of what have come to be known in the literature as organizational themes and theories. Among these themes and their cognate organizational theories are leadership, motivation, and basic communication. But before the application of these frames to the data is attempted, a basic discussion of each frame and theme will be made.

The Structural Frame, which adapts metaphors from applied sciences such as engineering to human behavior, emphasizes the value of formal roles and relationships. Structures (organizational charts, flow charts, or chain of command) are developed to control the organization's environment or surroundings. Organizations distribute responsibilities or tasks to their individual members ("division of labor") and establish rules and policies for the management teams to control and delegate assignments. The structure operates smoothly until a problem occurs which does not fit the situation or follows the protocol. Then reorganization is necessary.

The concept of goals, levels, and roles are critical variables in this frame. According to Bolman and Deal, the Structure Frame is formulated on a group of seven assumptions:[6]

1. Organizations exist primarily to accomplish goals.
2. For any organization, there is a structure appropriate to the goals, the environment, the technology, and the participants.
3. Organizations work most effectively when environmental turbulence and the personal preferences of participants are constrained by norms of rationality (e.g. bureaucratic sports structure).
4. Specialization permits higher levels of individual expertise and performance (e.g. training in contrast to coaching).
5. Coordination and control are accomplished best through the exercise of authority and impersonal rules (e.g. coaches over athletes).
6. Structures can be systematically designed and implemented (e.g., athletic department student handbook with policies).
7. Organizational problems usually reflect an inappropriate structure. Such problems can be resolved through structural redesign and reorganization.

Structuralists view organizations as a closed systems pursuing defined goals. If organizations are dependent on the environment, then they are vulnerable to outside influences. Therefore, the organization creates devices to buffer controversy and reduce surprises, such as coding, stockpiling, leveling, forecasting and growth.

---

[6]Ibid.

Organizations, each with their own functions and constraints, normally consist of three structural levels: the institutional, the managerial, and the technical. Each has its peculiar characteristics and tasks.

The institutional level, or top management, focuses on the external environment and controlling communications and information across the masses. The managerial level, or middle management, basically controls and coordinates the workload, makes daily decisions, and addresses disputes that occur throughout the work area. The technical level, or members of the rank and file, actually perform the labor that converts the raw materials into finished products. In educational organizations, while each of these levels is often relatively disconnected with loosely bonded ties, they are nonetheless present. In addition to levels and assumptions, organizations have goals. Educational organizational goals are widely diffused and are more complex than in business organizations.

According to Westerlund and Sjostran,[7] organizational goals, whatever setting, vary and exist in many forms for different reasons. Among them, six are highlighted. They are:

Honorific 'boy scout' goals—fictitious goals that credit the organization with desirable qualities. (e.g. side income for staff through equipment endorsements).

Taboo goals—goals that are real but are not talked about.

Stereotype goals—goals that any reputable organization should have.

---

[7]G. Westerland and S. Sjostrand, Organizational Myths (New York: Harper and Row, 1979), cited in Bolman, Lee G., et al. op. cit. p. 35.

Existing goals—a composite of the mixture of goals that are held by organizational participants.

Stated goals—the goals the organization announces for itself (e.g. "winning season" and NCAA post season bid).

Repressed goals—goals that are pursued but would not stand up if confronted with the organization's values or self-image.

Besides levels, assumptions and goals, roles are critical. The term role is defined as the distribution of assigned tasks or work to individuals or groups. In small organizations, roles are relatively simple and straightforward when compared to large organizations in which the work is highly specialized and differentiated. Linkages or connections within the organization maintain internal coordination and control. They can be either vertical via authority and rules or horizontal via meetings and task forces. Uniformity and consistency can be maintained through rules, policies, and standard operating procedures.

Returning to the Structural Frame, some common problems are: overlap and gaps, under use and overload, excessive interdependence or excessive autonomy, too many meetings, too many rules, authority that is too loose or too tight, mismatch between structure and technology, and mismatch between structure and environment. The next frame, while distinct, builds on this one. It is labeled the Human Resource Frame.

In the Human Resource Frame of organizational design, individuals have needs, feelings, prejudices, skills and limitations, and the capacity to learn as well as the ability to defend old attitudes and beliefs. The key element in the Human

Resource Frame is to tailor the organization to its participants and find a structure that allows them two goals: to get its job done and feel good about doing the job. Problems exist when human needs are not addressed or are not met. For example, when jobs are one dimensional, one way to redesign the work is through job enrichment. Frederick Herzberg developed a two part theory on motivation and grounded his research on relations between managers and workers. Herzberg concluded that "There was a difference between the things that produced job satisfaction, or motivation and the things that produce job dissatisfaction, or hygiene factors."[8] His motivation theory included variables such as self-esteem and self-actualization. In contrast, the hygiene theory involved physiological, safety, and belongingness needs. According to theorist Chris Argyris, organizations "particularly at the lower end of the hierarchy tend to infantilize employees, over specialize task, use directive leadership techniques, and make the formal structure too rigid."[9] As a result, conflict emerges between the employee and the organization which leads to frustration. Consequently, employee options include withdrawal from the organization via absenteeism, stay in the organization but withdraw psychologically, resist the organization via restricted output or deception, climb the hierarchy to better job, or create groups and organizations to help redress power imbalance between the individual and the organization. This frame, like its predecessor, is

---

[8]F. Herzberg, Work and the Nature of Man (Cleveland, Ohio: World, 1966). cited in Bolman, Lee G., 84.

[9]C. Argyris, Interpersonal Competence and Organizational Effectiveness (Homewood, IL: Irwin, 1962), 74. cited in Bolman, p. 75.

neutral in its direction. The next frame contrasts dramatically in this regard. It is the political frame.

The Political Frame considers organizations as a mixture of diverse philosophies integrated by many individuals and interest groups. Assumptions about the Political Frame include the following:

1. Organizations have scarce resources. Power and influence constantly affect the distribution of resources (e.g., money, space, good students, time, and help).
2. Conflict should be expected over allocation of resources and peoples differing needs, perspectives and life styles.
3. Bargaining, coercion and compromise are part of everyday life.
4. Coalitions form around issues and change as issues come and go.
5. Problems arise as power is unevenly distributed and/or so broadly dispersed that it is difficult to get things done.
6. Solutions come through political skills.

According to, J.V. Baldridge, universities can be viewed through this frame as models of "social groups with basically different life-styles and political interests."[10] Different groups (e.g. teams) in the organization have different goals and resource. They bargain with each other to set the agenda for the organization. This political perspective then demands that participants never presume the goals; rather, they must look for real personal and organizational goals. Many goals may exist

---

[10]J. V. Baldridge, Power and Conflict in the University (New York: Wiely, 1971), 23.

simultaneously. While explicit organizational goals may be formally advanced, the most important, in fact, may be personal goals instead of organizational ones for political reasons.

While in the Structural Frame, because power is equated with authority, it yields the right to make decisions. In the Human Resources frame decision making is emphasized and power is of little importance. Here in the Political Frame, the focus is on limits and difficulties in exercising authority and the forms of influence that help in decision making.

The political frame focuses on all groups or coalitions, incompatible preferences, and scarce resources from a power perspective.

According to Raven and French, among the most important forms of power are:[11]

1. Legitimate power—granted through the organizational hierarchy which comes with the job.
2. Reward power—power to give or withhold rewards.
3. Coercive power—power to force compliance by psychological, emotional, or physical pressure.
4. Referent power—more abstract, based on identification, imitation or charisma.
5. Expert power—derived from information or expertise.

---

[11] J. R. P. French and B. H. Raven, "The Bases of Social Power," in D. Cartwright, ed., Studies in Social Power (Ann Arbor, MI: Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan).

In the Political Frame, the application of these power forms results in conflict. However, it is not seen as a problem to be endured. Rather, the focus here is on the strategies and tactics appropriate to develop expertise in the skillful management of conflict rather than its resolution.

When understanding or managing conflict in organizations, the game theory of ideas is helpful. It highlights the pending condition in which one group's decisions affect another's gains or losses. It is valuable when used in the political frame or context. For example, the administration's decision to drop a male sport and add a female sport to meet NCAA and gender equity guidelines would benefit one group in a positive manner and adversely affect the other, as was evident when, at Loyola University Chicago, the male swimming team was dropped and budget expenses were allocated to start women's golf and men's volleyball.

In contrast, the Symbolic Frame deviates from other organizational theories. For example, the meaning of an event and the interpretation of that event are more important than the actual event itself. In this process the masses create symbols for goals: clarity, stability, guidance, and direction. The symbolic frame can be applied to organizations which lack clear-cut or well-defined goals, where ambiguity is prevalent, and the organizational environment is more fluid than linear. From a conceptual perspective, the Symbolic Frame integrates a variety of disciplines such as organizational theory, sociology, political science, and anthropology.

Organizations, from a symbolic perspective, are judged not so much by what they do as by how they appear. Organizations have heroes, storytellers, as well as priests guardians of its culture and warriors to protect its existence. Key personnel

mediate the organization's narrative's faith, belief, values and meaning between activity and outcomes. This is evident, for example, in a coach's pep talk to the team in the locker rooms before a game and at half-time: a perspective by which individuals interpret the organization, its activities, its environment, resulting in the movement of the organization toward or away from its goals. These elements are evident at sports, especially on the higher education level. For example:

Sporting events through the use of identity symbols such as team names, colors, and drills solidify their individual members into a concrete personification as a unit of the collective school community they represent within the mythic, epochal time period and activity called the event or game.

Like the Greek games from the Classical period, prayers are invoked, the chorus (i.e., cheerleaders) chants its orations to the assembly's believers (e.g., the fans) who respond with their own cheers. The priestly caste (i.e., the referees) are displayed in uniform vestiges of power and mediate between the warring armies (i.e., teams) and the gods (i.e., the rules) to gain the laurel wreath of glory as did the Greek champions who were raised to quasi-divine status by their victories on and off the fields of battle whether in war or in sport (the Iliad and the Aeneid.)[12]

In sum, these frames (structure, human resources, political, and symbolic) provide prisms through which organizational variables can be discussed and interpreted. Against these frames the concepts of themes and theories can be identified such as motivation, leadership, and communication. Focus, now, is drawn to these themes.

Themes and Theories: Motivation, Leadership, and Communication

Motivation, leadership, and communication themes will be integrated into the conceptual framework is formal analysis, together with selected theories from each respective theme. After the data are collected, both independently and collectively, from each frame, a group of three professional educators will consensually assign and label the appropriate theme or themes to each respective frame. The themes and theories under discussion are: motivation, communication, and leadership. Each in turn will be defined and discussed. Then its relevance to the data will be analyzed.

In this chapter the first theme to be discussed is motivation. It is followed by communication and then leadership.

Motivation

For the research discussed in this chapter, following its definition, motivation is discussed from the perspectives of Maslow, Alderfer, Vroom, as well as Porter and Lawler.

The term motivation is derived from the Latin word movere, which means to "to move." John Miner describes motivation as "Those processes within an individual that stimulate behavior and channel it in ways that should benefit the organization as a whole."[13] Mike Ditka's thoughts on motivation, former coach of the Chicago Bears and 1985 SuperBowl Champions, is expressed in the following

---

[12]Homer The Illiad and Virgil The Aeneid.

[13]John B. Miner, Organizational Behavior: Performance and Productivity (New York: Random House, 1988), 158.

excerpt from Game Plans for Success: "A lot was written and said about me being a great motivator. I don't really believe I am. I think motivation is the most overused, overrated, overplayed word in our society. I don't believe there is such a thing as motivation, at least not in the sense that most people use the word to describe pep talks and back-slapping and all that stuff. Motivation comes from within each individual. It is a personal thing. It is pride, guts, desire, whatever you want to call it. Some people have it in their bellies, and some don't. If you want to win, you find people who have the quality and put them on your team".[14]

According to Gary Johns, "Motivation means three things: The person works hard; the person keeps at his or her work; and the person directs his or her behavior toward appropriate goals." Gary Johns summarizes the definition by defining three common area of motivation: (1) effort, (2) persistence, and (3) direction.[15] Effort involves the amount of intensity the employee develops on the job. Persistence is the continuous or second effort in work related tasks. Finally direction refers to the quality of work done by the employee.

Today, Abraham Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory is one of the most popularly used theories to analyzes motivation in organizational settings. According to Maslow, people have five basic groups of human needs that develop in a regimented pattern and are ranked in a hierarchy schedule. When one need is fulfilled, the individual seeks the next level of attainment and so on, all the way to the

---

[14]R. Didinger, ed., Game Plans for Success (Boston, MA: Little, Brown, 1995), 54.

[15]Gary Johns, Organizational Behavior: Understanding Life at Work (Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1983), 173.

top. The five levels of needs are: (1) physiological, (2) safety, (3) social, (4)esteem, and (5) self-actualization.[16]

Alderfer's perspective extends Maslow's. Alderfer feels that people have needs, which can be organized in a hierarchy, and there is a difference between lower-level needs and higher-level needs.[17] Alderfer's ERG theory is composed of three areas which include: existence (E), relatedness (R), and growth (G).

In contrast, Victor Vroom developed the first complete theory relating motivation to organizational settings.[18] His Expectancy Theory is based on four assumptions: (1) people join organizations with expectations about their needs and motivations, (2) an individual's behavior is a result of choice, (3) people want different things from an organization, (4) people will choose alternatives for personal gain.[19]

The basic expectancy model demonstrates that motivation is both a function of perceived expectancy and instrumentality which is influenced by valences assigned to the outcome by the employees. High positive valence, high expectancy, and high instrumentality will produce the greatest motivation influence. On the other hand, if all three elements are low, weak motivation will be the final end product.

---

[16]Abraham H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality, rev. ed., (New York: Harper and Row, 1970), 44.

[17]Alderfer, Existence, Relatedness, and Growth (New York: Free Press, 1972).

[18]Victor Vroom, Work and Motivation (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1964), 86.

[19]Ibid., 46.

A development of this is seen in Porter and Lawler's Model. Lyman W. Porter and Edward E. Lawler III have expanded the concepts of the Expectancy Theory of motivation to analyze the aspects that determine employee's performance.[20] For Porter and Lawler, performance leads to satisfaction. They contend that the intervening variable between performance and satisfaction is rewards.

To summarize, motivation as discussed by these three theories reflects the important role it plays in moving people to act. Its relevance to this study is shown in the efforts reported by the respondents to incorporate intercollegiate athletics within the underlying organizational purpose expressive of Jesuit values over several decades. The next theme to be discussed is communication.

Communication

In addition to motivation, Communication is the process that links together the individual, the group, and the organization.[21] Furthermore, communication mediates inputs to the organization from the environment and outputs from the organization to the environment. According to Barnard, "the structure, extensiveness, and scope of organization are almost entirely determined by communication techniques."[22]

---

[20]Lyman W. Porter and Edward E. Lawler III, and J. Richard Hackman, Behavior in Organizations (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1975), 43.

[21]Rudi Klauss and Bernard M. Bass, Interpersonal Communication in Organizations (New York: Academic Press, 1982), 1.

[22]Chester I. Barnard, The Funtions of the Executive (Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1938), 91.

The communication process, even in today's high tech society, involves the exchange between a sender and a receiver and involves the following steps: idea, encoding, transmission, receiving, decoding, and action. In simple terms, the sender encodes an idea into a message and transmits the message to a receiver who decodes the message and acts.[23] Within a university, senders can be administrators, faculty members, and staff personnel that utilize communications to coordinate the daily operations to carry out the assigned tasks. An idea or message comes from respective senders that is transmitted to a single person or group.

The ideas, in order to be understood by the receiver, must be transmitted by either words, symbols, charts, or pictures. Unfortunately, only messages can be transmitted, not meaning. The importance or significance of meaning is determined by what the encoder values in the symbols. If both the sender and receiver are in harmony or agreement as to the meaning of the symbols, the chances are higher that there will be a positive understanding between the two parties.

To summarize, communication as a social process and theme, within organization studies especially of American higher education, stresses the content, direction, as well as substance of verbal and nonverbal interaction among and between participants. In this study its relevance to the development of policies to be discussed from organizational frames presented above will become obvious as the evolution of intercollegiate athletics is presented.

The next theme key to this study's conceptual framework is leadership.

---

[23]James McCroskey, et. al., One on One: Foundations of Interpersonal Communication (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1986), 13–17.

Leadership

In contrast to motivation and communication, is the theme of leadership. Correlative to leadership are subthemes of influence and power. These three, while distinct, will be discussed together. The perspectives on leadership to be discussed in this section are drawn from Bass, French and Raven, Blake and Mouton, and Reddin, as well as Hersey and Blanchard.

According to Bernard M. Bass, leadership is the "process of influencing group activities toward the achievement of goals."[24] Therefore, the origin of a leader's influence or power over subordinates, identified by J.R. French and B. Raven, has been categorized as belonging to five distinct sources: legitimate power, reward power, coercive power, expert power, and referent power.[25] Legitimate power is grounded in the leader's position in the hierarchy or chain-of-command. Reward power is developed by leaders that give material items to subordinates. Coercive power, the exact opposite of reward power, occurs when the leader uses negative or questionable techniques for controlling jobs. Expert power is formulated on the unique ability of the leader, whether it is academic or technical, to direct the group. Referent power, quite simply, is the ability of the leader to direct his subordinates by the positive degree of charisma and personality that commands respect and attraction.

---

[24] Bernard M. Bass, Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership, (New York: The Free Press, 1981), 73.

[25] J. R. French and B. Raven, "The Bases of Social Power," in D. Cartwright and A. F. Zander (eds.), Group Dynamics, 2nd ed. (Evanston, IL: Pow, Petersen and Co., 1960), 607–623.

The two dimensional managerial grid for identifying leadership styles, developed by Blake and Mouton, stresses leader behavior as concern for production and concern for people.[26] The gird is made-up of a vertical axis with a concern for people and horizontal axis with concern for production rated on a scale from 1 to 9. The grid identifies, with 81 possible combinations, the manner in which leader behaviors interact with task-oriented and people-oriented styles. The five styles are as follows: authority-obedience, country club management, impoverished management, organization management, and team management.

Reddin, in his three-dimensional theory of leadership, goes one step beyond Blake's and Mouton's leadership grid theory by incorporating a relationship between the situation and appropriate leadership style.[27] By utilizing an effectiveness dimension, Reddin has been able to integrate the leadership style with needs of a specific environment. Basically, when the leadership style is appropriate to the time and place, it is labeled effective, conversely, when the leadership style is inappropriate to the time and place, it is labeled ineffective. Out of four basic leadership styles: related, integrated, separated, and dedicated, they produce eight operational leadership styles. The following effective leadership styles are: developer, executive, bureaucrat, and benevolent autocrat. The ineffective leadership styles include: missionary, compromiser, deserter, and autocrat.

---

[26]R. R. Blake and J. S. Mouton, The Managerial Grid III (Houston, TX: Grief Publishing Co, 1985), 12.

[27]W. J. Reddin, Managerial Effectiveness (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970).

Hersey and Blanchard, in their Situational Leadership Theory, identify two important leadership behaviors: task behavior or one-way downward communications pertaining to when, where, or how task are to be performed, and relationship behavior or two-way communications with socio-emotional support.[28] Also incorporated in the situational leadership theory is the maturity of the subordinates as a plausible variable. Maturity is either related to the job or is psychological. The four basic leadership styles in Hersey and Blanchard's model are: telling, selling, participating, and delegating.

In conclusion, leadership with its correlative concepts of power and influence provides the vehicle through which the other themes of motivation and leadership are exercised as they correlate with the four frames.

Conclusion

Chapter II has presented the statement of the problem and design of the research. These two tasks were accomplished by review of the pertinent literature. The review of the pertinent literature highlighted concepts critical to the development of the framework to be used in Chapters III and IV for analysis of the data. The conceptual framework drew upon the insights from critical writers as to what this study has come to call frames, themes, and theories.

The next two chapters present the results of the design outlined above. It is to this presentation that attention is now drawn.

---

[28]P. Hershey and K. H. Blanchard, Management of Organization Behavior 5th ed. (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1988).

CHAPTER III

REPORT ON FINDINGS:

PERCEPTIONS OF KEY INDIVIDUALS CONCERNING INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS AT LOYOLA UNIVERSITY CHICAGO: 1922–1994

Introduction

This chapter reports the results of the research conducted as described in Chapter II's description of the dissertation's research and design. The following format is followed. First, a brief synopsis of the methodology described in Chapter II is presented. Following this, the initial qualitative research findings are reported in short, selective biographies of key respondents. Among the several organizational respondents, five were noteworthy. While their responses are confidential, a short biography indicating their critical involvement from various positions within the University, as these positions related to various institutional policies on intercollegiate athletics at Loyola University Chicago, are explored. Again, confidentially was maintained throughout the entire evaluation process. Following these, salient findings from the collected data are presented. In turn, the findings are discussed and analyzed using the conceptual framework outlined in Chapter II.

After this discussion and analysis, an interpretation of the data is offered. Content analysis for the theoretical perspectives of Chapter II notes the four

frames for organizational management and their relationship to themes and theories in leadership, motivation, and communication as they are applied to this data. During the analysis process the following research design methods will be explored and implemented on the acquired data. In conjunction with the four organizational development frames which were in consensus with the respondents' responses in the questionnaire, selected themes from the literature relating to leadership, motivation, and communication are incorporated and grounded with their respective theories. This movement or model from frames to themes to theories, or "F (T)2", will be initiated and applied in this research. Hereafter, this reference will be noted in this notation. Finally, Chapter III concludes with a short summary and conclusions.

Methodology: Synopsis

The Organizational Frames approach, developed by Bolman and Deal, as discussed in Chapter II, is used to analyze the data obtained from the structured interview schedule and questionnaire instruments administered to the student and faculty/administrator samples. The four Frames in this approach are: structural, political, human resource and the symbolic. The four frames appropriate pertinent insights drawn from the major schools of contemporary organizational research and theory. Each frame is presented in turn. The next step analyzes the similarities and differences in each particular frame as it is related to education and intercollegiate athletics at Loyola University Chicago. A group of three professionals in the field of higher education, by consensus agreement, selected the appropriate frame for each response to the respective question. Using these frames, the survey instruments'

questions were coded to match the appropriate frame and its conceptual elements; then, they were grouped both independently and collectively. In turn, these were used to form a matrix.

After the data from each specific frame are collected, coded, grouped, and categorized, the discussion is drawn to introducing what have come to be known in the literature as organizational themes and theories.

Qualitative Data: Biographical Sketches

A short biographical sketch of each interview candidate follows. Each sketch, drawn from interviews and archival research, reflects the qualitative approach significant to organizational research. However, no quantitatively measured linkage between this sketch and the respondent's answers to the questionnaire is made. These sketches are presented in the order in which the respective respondent was interviewed. The interview schedule ran from the Spring of 1993 to the Fall of 1995. Because the interviews were scheduled at the respondent's convenience, there is no correlation between responses and organizational position. As a result, this affirms the issue of confidentially.

John “Hicks” Connelly

The first sketch is of John "Hicks" Connelly. A 1922 graduate of St. Ignatius Prep, Connelly was also a member of the first freshmen class to enroll on the University's "Lakeshore campus" in September, 1922 and was a contemporary of the classics professor the Reverend James Mertz, S.J, who also moved to the University at this time.

Connelly came from a strict Chicago, Irish Catholic family which worshipped at the city's southside St. Thomas the Apostle Parish near their Hyde Park-Kenwood home which was on Ellis Avenue at 56th Street near the University of Chicago. Along with his boyhood friend Lonnie Stagg, son of Amos Alonza Stag, a pioneer in the development on the national level of intercollegiate football at the nearby University of Chicago, Connelly would often play "ball" at the football stadium. At that time the University of Chicago was an original member of the Western Athletic Conference (Big Ten) and a power house in collegiate football. For their football dominance in this era, they were nicknamed the "Monsters of the Midway." (Little did these young players realized that history would be made at this site with the development of the first sustained nuclear reaction that would have a permanent effect on civilization and mankind.)

At St. Ignatius Prep., Connelly's studies included the traditional secondary Jesuit curriculum based on the classical approach to the liberal arts. For the Jesuits, academics and discipline went hand in hand in the development of young men and stressed a "sound mind in a sound body," (i.e. "mens sana in corpore sano"). Basketball was the key vehicle the Jesuits used to attain this model and was the primary sport offered at St. Ignatius Prep. As an adolescent, Connelly played there as a varsity member for three years.

A dedicated and consummate student athlete, Connelly, as a freshman at Loyola University, concentrated on his studies. At that time, there were no athletic scholarships at this new University; only academic scholarships were provided for young men with good secondary school academic records who had achieved high

scores on the University's entrance examination. He played on the 1922 Loyola University varsity basketball and football teams.

Every student was required to take Latin, Greek, philosophy, history, and mathematics. Because there were no majors per se, all students took the identical curriculum which led to a Bachelor of Arts degree.

In 1922 the physical plant included only three buildings: a residence for the Jesuits and two study/classroom buildings shared with Loyola Academy: Dumbach and Cudahy science halls. There were also two additional classrooms in the basement of the Jesuit Residence. Primarily Dumbach Hall housed the secondary school program which hopefully would serve as a foundation for later Jesuit college formation, as well as a feeder school for the new Loyola University Chicago.

In 1922, Connelly studied and played on campus. Most students commuted from home. Other students lived in a variety of sites: the basement of the Jesuit residence, four rooms on the third floor of Alumni Gym. Still others roomed as boarders in private apartments and houses near the campus or in fraternity houses. Until the construction of Alumni Gym was completed in 1923, at a cost of $500,000, the basketball team commuted fifteen miles to practice at St. Ignatius Prep gym. That same year also marked the completion of the football stadium. It had concrete grandstands on the westside of the field for 6000 fans and a set of lights for night games. Athletic facilities like these were state of the art in design and construction.

Upon completion in 1923, the Alumni Gym housed the University's Athletic Department. Besides providing locker room facilities and offices for the athletic teams, bowling alleys and several pool tables were used by the students for

recreational purposes. According to Connelly, former coach Lenny Sachs was one of the best pool players on campus. While swimming and handball were taught in Alumni gym, no formal physical education program or major existed in the liberal arts curriculum. A state of affairs which remained until the early fifties.

After the academic class schedule was completed for the day, team practices for Connelly and other athletes would start about 3:00 p.m. and last approximately two hours. For example, football games would normally be played on Saturday afternoons. Travel to games away from the city was done mostly by train or car.

Since, the football team played a demanding schedule, it involved many games and much travel. In contrast, the basketball team's big game was against the University of Notre Dame which was relatively close in South Bend, Indiana.

Loyola's budget for team sports was, according to Connelly, "very modest." Football equipment then was nothing compared to the hi-tech gear developed for today's sports teams. For example, the football pants were made out of canvas, trimmed and reinforced with leather at the seams. Knee, thigh, and hip pads were also sewn into the pants. Leather helmets without face masks were issued, but not everyone chose to wear them during practices and games. Game jerseys normally had the school colors with numerals indicating a player's position sewn on the front and back. Leather shoulder pads and hi-top, black spikes completed the uniform.

In terms of change, Connelly recalls athletes playing with relatively few sets of both the offensive and defensive plays whereas, today there is a specialist player for each position and a volume of plays for the coaching staff to select from. He also

remembers that one man was designated to shoot all the free throws, as well as that a center jump after every basket was part of the playing rules for basketball.

Another Connelly memory from his biographical sketch is more personal in its focus and involves the late Lawrence "Bud" Gorman, a friend and an All-American fullback on the 1925 team, one of Loyola's best football squads. Legendary for his football career at Loyola, he became a legend forever. He died in the summer of 1925 at the pinnacle of his athletic career while attempting to rescue a young girl from Lake Michigan. While he was able to save her, he lost his own life. As a student athlete, Gorman exemplified the spirit which later the University used to describe its mission: a man for others. At the time of his death, his fellow students at Loyola dedicated a memorial plaque for his heroic actions, and today, it is still affixed in the Alumni gym. Perhaps it symbolizes in an organizational sense the core values of Jesuit education as they impact on persons far more eloquently than the absence of physical education in 1923 curriculum program.

Connelly graduated from Loyola University in the spring of 1926 at the age of twenty when total enrollment at the University was approximately 300 males. In 1927 Connelly taught mathematics and coached both football and basketball at St. Rita's High School on Chicago's southside. In 1940, Connelly moved back north joining the faculty and athletic staff at Loyola Academy. There, during the day he taught mathematics, coached football, basketball, and track, and also assumed the administrative duties as athletic director. At night he taught classes in the University. As the only coach, Connelly remembers the young Jesuit scholastics who assisted

him with the various teams. He especially praised Robert Harvanek, S.J., for the time he devoted to the young men in the classroom and on the playing fields.

Connelly also praised August "Gus" Durso, former basketball player and then team physician of the Athletic Department for over thirty-five years.

Connelly took over all coaching responsibilities for the university when in November, 1942, Leonard Sachs passed away. Due to World War II, all intercollegiate teams were dropped from 1943 to 1945 when many of the students either joined or were drafted into the armed services. Intercollegiate competition resumed in 1946 with the return of World War II GI's.

Since then, Connelly has held many positions in the Academy and University—from Athletic Director to Chairperson of the Math Department.

Now, he does not miss coaching but he does miss the camaraderie resulting from the interaction of coach and athlete. Connelly's most memorable experience during his tenure as both a student and professional educator was establishing and maintaining close and life-long friendships. For example, a telephone call from Johnny Dee, former head basketball coach at Notre Dame, still can bring tears and big smile to Coach "Hicks" Connelly that makes his accomplishments in life that much more meaningful.

Connelly's interview was significant for several organizational reasons. First, he represented the role of a person who would have been moved from rank and file status to that of a staff status. As a result, his perspective reflects a history which spans not only decades, but the development of roles and values which in Bolman's Structural Frame reveals the continuity of organizational policies. Also, like other lay,

non-Jesuit personnel, his narrative reflects the approach of the Jesuit sponsors in socializing laymen into their role within the philosophy of Jesuit education. (A matter to be discussed in greater detail in Chapter V.) For example, while the lay respondent noted the development of, by today's standards, rather simple buildings and programs, he also described the rather moving story (i.e., symbolic myth) of a student athlete, Lawrence Gorman, who died saving a stranger (i.e., heroic theme—leadership) and whose efforts are "immortalized" (i.e., plaque) on a wall in the Alumni Gym (i.e., mythical temple). The recollection of the myth, its themes and pertinence, reflects critical aspects to what in Bolman and Deal's symbolic frames reflects an appropriation of the symbolic motivational dimensions to leadership communicated as an element to service valued in the Jesuit philosophy of education.

Joseph Loftus

My second interview, with a most unique individual, the Reverend Joseph Loftus, S.J., a retired university philosophy professor was conducted in the Jesuit Residence,.

Born and raised on the southside of Chicago, he entered the Jesuit seminary shortly after his eighteenth birthday. After being ordained priest in 1940, he entered the Navy during World War II and served as a chaplain on board a destroyer escort stationed in the South Atlantic.

Following the completion of his tour of duty, Father Loftus was assigned to Xavier University in Cincinnati where he taught both philosophy and theology

classes to the undergraduates, and where, as a young professor and war veteran, he took a special interest in student athletes. Integrating the Jesuit ideals of academic life with pastoral development, he realized the importance of guidance and direction in the classroom as well as on and off the playing field. At Xavier University, he became aware of the tradition associated with intercollegiate athletics. He saw the benefits and values it generates not only for the institution, but also for the student athletes who he saw as an integral part in the lifeline of the University and a focus for its core ministry.

Years before minority rights and specifically gender equity were highlighted, this priest-professor was very cognizant of the plight of the African American athlete and devoted much of his free time and energy to tutoring these young men in their studies. Then as now, athletics has been one of the most accommodating upwardly mobile venues for African American students to enter higher education on the American university level. For them, it gave the chance to move from poverty to the possibility of middle class life. The athletes of Father Loftus's time were treated like any other members of the student body in Jesuit schools. After a three-hour practice from a very demanding coach, they were often physically and mentally exhausted. Philosophy and theology classes offered in the core curriculum were demanding classes for all, but especially for the largely Protestant African American student athlete. Because they were generally not from Catholic families, they normally had little or no background in these subjects prior to enrolling at a Jesuit university.

Whereas state universities had the luxury of creating different majors in "Mickey Mouse" classes, to keep their athletes eligible for the duration of their

college career, new Loyola courses could not be manufactured to keep athletes eligible. As a part of the student body they were required to take the necessary core and respective degree curriculum. Thus there were no special classes for them and no maneuvering of grades at Loyola. Pastorally sensitive to this dilemma, Father Loftus took an interest in these students, and they, in turn, responded. The student athletes enjoyed his philosophy lectures in areas such as metaphysics, epistemology, and logic. They enjoyed them because he attempted to relate the course material to everyday life experiences, whether it was growing up in the suburbs or ghetto.

The African American athlete, according to Father Loftus, looked up to the priest as a role model or father image. Sadly, this modeling was usually missing from a significant percentage of the African American families and others born and raised in the poverty and culture of housing projects. A Caucasian male in a black suit with a white collar with the rituals and influence of an international organization like the Catholic church at his disposal actually added to the mystique of the "Fathers." These bachelors, celibate men, the students soon learned, were here to help them in their college experiences, both in the classroom and on the basketball court. (From this researcher's personal experience over the past nineteen years, former athletes returning to Alumni Gym for visits always asked how Father Lofts was doing. Often they would say "I never missed one of his classes.")

Father Loftus enjoyed his tenure at Loyola University because of its location in a large urban setting and the great array of resources Chicago offered. Now in his eighties, he considers himself to be a "Loyola Man," and enjoys his golden years

reminiscing in the Jesuit Residence about his teaching and chaplain experiences with the various teams.

Father Loftus represents key elements seen in the Human Resource Frame. His many years of organizational involvement reflect the synthesis by a key actor from the organization's sponsors of their overriding mission with its personnel's needs (e.g., student athletes). Also, it reflects his ability to cross lines between "management" (i.e., the Jesuit administrative sponsors) and staff (i.e., Jesuit and non-Jesuit faculty) to advance with, for and through students, the organization's mission. His ability to communicate commitment to individuals marginal to the community's cultural and racial majority gained him many important qualities. Among these were not only leadership status in the eyes of the students by virtue of his role as a sponsor, i.e., "Father" but also respect in that leadership role which effectively communicated to the students motivation due to his compassionate, yet intellectually insightful classroom pedagogy.

His influence contrasts with that presented in the next sketch.

George M. Ireland

George M. Ireland, the third respondent, was interviewed in the game room of his home in Skokie, Illinois. Coach Ireland retired in November, 1977, due to ill health.

From the time Ireland was in grade school, he had the special quality of being in the right place at the right time. However, in a twisted bit of fortune, it was this amazing timing that involved him with basketball in the first place when as a boy

he and his friends were throwing rotten tomatoes. One day, a tomato accidentally slipped and hit a Dominican Catholic nun squarely on her neatly starched white habit. "It was a perfect bull's eye," recalls Ireland. For that mischievous act, Ireland was kicked out of the Catholic grammar school, a scandal for a strict Irish Catholic family. The incident turned in his favor, however, as he enrolled in a school run by German nuns on the west side of Madison, Wisconsin. In that German grammar school, he played on a team with two winning city championships in basketball.

In the 1920's, Ireland attended the Campion Jesuit High School Academy in Prairie du Chien, Wisconsin where he became an All-State high school athlete in both football and basketball. He was recruited by Frank Leahy, Knute Rockne's former assistant and All-American, to play football at Notre Dame University. Again, a twist of fate presented Ireland with an exciting opportunity to become a member of its basketball team, a decision which proved to be right.

Because of his enthusiasm for athletics and academics, during his varsity years at Notre Dame, Ireland never missed a practice, game, or class! This record led him to be selected twice for Helm's All-American teams and for several Dean's list at Notre Dame. One season, he lead the nation in scoring with an average of six points per game.

When he was a sophomore at Notre Dame, he was granted the peanut concession at all home basketball games and one of his student supervisors happened to be Ray Meyer, who became a basketball coaching legend at DePaul University. Ireland and Meyer were not only teammates and roommates, but business partners and best men at each other's wedding. During the games, Ireland

would often call extra time-outs to give his student vendors more time to sell peanuts. He also landed a graduation photo concession that also proved to be a financial success.

His drive and motivation landed him the first of his only two academic coaching jobs during his thirty-nine-year career. In his first, he took on the job of teaching six secondary school classes a day, coaching three sports, and responsible for mustering the cadets each dawn at Marmion Military Academy in Aurora, Illinois. While there, his first battle was with the Illinois High School Association who at that time was against allowing Catholic schools to participate in public school competition. With help from the late Senator Everett Dirksen, Ireland won the right to play against public schools. That now benefits every parochial high school in the state of Illinois.

Ireland was well liked in Aurora. In fact there were rumors about funds that were raised to match the salary Loyola offered him in 1951. But Coach Ireland was destined for the college ranks and accepted the position of athletic director and head basketball coach where he would guide the Ramblers for the next 24 years.

The Loyola University basketball teams of the 50's under Ireland were good, sometimes spectacular, yet unnoticed by the syndicated reporters busily writing about the play of Bill Russell of the University of San Francisco, Wilt Chamberlain of Kansas University, and Jerry West of West Virginia University.

In 1959, Ireland started to build his championship team. At that time there was a unwritten rule that it was permissible to play one or two African-Americans on

a team if they were extremely talented. Ireland did not pay any attention to the rule, broke tradition and started four African-Americans on Loyola's championship team.

In the early sixties, Coach Ireland recruited nationally and focused his energies on New York City and on the Memphis area in the south. With the help of Walter November, a New York city coach, Ireland would visit the high schools and playgrounds. He remembers going to games where no spectators were permitted in the gym. The teams would play and the scores were announced but fans were not allowed in for fear a fight might break out between the student body of the two participating schools.

From these scouting trips, the following notable players were recruited. Jerry Harkness, who would be captain of the 1963 NCAA championship team, was a graduate of DeWitt Clinton high school in Harlem and was All-American his senior year at Loyola University. Vic Rouse and Ron Miller were recruited from Memphis and John Egan and Les Hunter from Chicago rounded out the 1963 starting five.

Because of its success in the 1963 season, the team was in the national spotlight as the Ramblers were invited to the National Invitational Tournament held in Madison Square Gardens, New York city. At that time the NIT was actually more prestigious than the NCAA tournament and featured the Ramblers "run and gun offense." The NIT gave the Ramblers the national exposure that had been lacking. Without a professional basketball franchise in Chicago to compete with, the Ramblers were now "Chicago's Team." Again during the 1985 NCAA basketball tournament, Coach Gene Sullivan's Ramblers would be labeled "Chicago's Team" by the media for their Eastern regional match-up against Georgetown University.

Thus in the 1950's and early 1960's, Alumni Gym was filled to capacity. Those fans who could not get tickets to the games listened on radio to the voice of broadcaster Red Rush and his Gonella bread ads.

In the second round of the 1963 NCAA tournament Mississippi State University, Loyola's opponent, had to sneak away from its own state police in order to play the game at Northwestern's McGaw Hall. Why the secrecy? The Southeastern Conference champs were all white students and Mississippi State law barred racially mixed sporting events. Players and fans from both teams were oblivious to the racial overtones the game was causing back in Mississippi. Loyola beat the NCAA two-time defending champion Cincinnati University in the finals of the NCAA tournament 63-62, in overtime. Ironically the team voted to return to the NIT but Ireland overruled them and elected to participate in the NCAA tournament.

The Loyola-Cincinnati championship game was not televised live but was shown on tape delay. However, many fans opted to listen to the live radio broadcast with the then notable sports commentator Red Rush. In one of the most exciting NCAA championship games, Loyola defeated Cincinnati in overtime 60-58. Ironically, Loyola's championship share was a mere $25,000. By contrast, participants divided $31.5 million from the 1993 NCAA tournament with the winner receiving $1.4 million!

Since the championship year, the excellence of Loyola basketball has continued on and off. In the long run, the contribution which Ireland made to basketball was greater than a single NCAA title. When Ireland recruited in the inner cities of Chicago, New York, Memphis, and New Orleans, he opened the doors to

racial equality and equal opportunity in the world of intercollegiate athletics for minorities. Ireland offered especially the African-American student athlete the opportunity to leave the hardships found in the inner city, provided the athletes made a commitment to academics as well as basketball. As a result, a recent Alumni News item noted thirty-three years later the NCAA championship team is still winning. The players earned their degrees and lead productive lives in today's society. They are truly champions on and off the court and exemplify the Jesuit value of "magis," (i.e., performing with greater and better effort).

Coach Ireland represents a transition in the place athletics and, more pointedly, intercollegiate sports played for several years in the life of this educational organization. Spanning several decades, with a wide variety of activities under his perusal, this respondent's sketch reflects a demographic shift. This shift is seen organizationally from a small city college oriented largely to a context of white, working class families with Catholic sons sent for education largely to enhance career advancement in the post-War World II marketplace to one in which multicultural families beyond the Chicago area would send their often non-Catholic daughters and sons. This new generation would encounter an institution whose curriculum, while historically based in Post-Reformation Catholic values, had to increasingly accommodate itself and its curriculum to diverse faculty, staff, and students within and across academic lines.

This shift, in Bolman's sense, was political. It was dramatically evidenced symbolically in the success of the 1963 NCAA basketball championship which resulted in no small way from the vigorous recruiting of athletes form non-Catholic

sources: the African-American community. Significantly, the championship also marked the shift in sports at Loyola from the recreational focus of John Connelly's generation to the income generating concerns which have attracted much attention inside and out at Loyola University Chicago. (This will be discussed in detail in Chapter IV.) The next two sketches reflect the lives of two men who, like their predecessors Fathers Kelley and Loftus, were familiar with the earlier organization's culture, but how monitored and guided it through the expansion phase of the 1960's–80's.

Raymond C. Baumhart

The Reverend Raymond C. Baumhart, S.J., the fourth respondent, was born in 1923 in Chicago. Upon graduating from DePaul Academy he served in the U.S. Navy from 1943 to 1946, where he achieved the rank of lieutenant (j.g.) in the Supply Corps. After leaving the Navy, Baumhart joined the Society of Jesus. As a young Jesuit Scholastic, he spent his training period or "regency" in Cincinnati at the Jesuit sponsored St. Xavier high school.

After receiving a Bachelor of Science degree from Northwestern University, he earned five other degrees: three were from Loyola University Chicago (an additional bachelor of arts degree and two licentiates—one in theology and the other, with honors, in philosophy). Later, at Harvard University's School of Business Administration he earned master's and doctoral degrees.

Upon finishing graduate school at Harvard, he was a Visiting Lecturer in Business Ethics at the Jesuit sponsored Boston College while serving at Harvard University as a John W. Hill Fellow. Following his return to the Midwest, he joined

the faculty of the School of Business Administration at Loyola University Chicago as an Assistant Professor. In 1966 he returned to Cambridge, Massachusetts, as a two-year Research Associate at the Center for Social Studies.

In 1970, upon the retirement of the Reverend James F. Maguire, S.J., the Board of Trustees appointed Father Baumhart President of Loyola University Chicago and he served in that capacity until the summer of 1993 when he retired. Since then, he has served in the position of Director of Parish Services for the Archdiocese of Chicago.

John T. Dillon

My fifth and final respondent was the Rev. John T. Dillon, S.J. Father Dillon was born on April 20, 1930 in Ludlow, Kentucky. He was a good athlete and a solid baseball player whose career was cut short by injuries. In 1959 he received a Master of Arts in Philosophy from Loyola University and was ordained a priest at the Jesuit Seminary in West Baden, Indiana in 1963. He pursued a Master's degree in Education in Guidance and Counseling from Loyola and graduated in 1966.

For ten years, Father Dillon served as a Loyola University chaplain for faculty and students; after which, he was the Director (Chief Administrator) of Loyola University's Rome Center in Rome, Italy from 1973-75. He then became the Director of Campus Ministry at Loyola University's Water Tower Campus. He has conducted workshops for Catholic high school faculties to help them improve their dealings with one another and with friends. He also conducted workshops for administrators and caregivers at health care institutions for the elderly and infirm. Following this ministry, Father Dillon for three years was an assistant to the President and internal

consultant during Father Raymond Baumhart's presidency at Loyola University Chicago. As internal consultant, he designed and helped produce workshops for Loyola's senior executives relating to a servant-leadership style of management appropriate in a post-Vatican II Catholic institution. In 1987, Father Dillon was assigned the position of Jesuit Province Resource Person, where, he provided on-going spiritual direction to administrative officials and congregations of women religious.

He has preached retreats, missions, and conducted workshops throughout the United States. He has given retreats to prisoners in a maximum security federal penitentiary and to monks in a Benedictine Abbey. After serving as an elected representative to the Chicago Province Jesuit Assembly and Consultor to the Rector of the Jesuit Community at Loyola University Chicago, he now is superior of Jesuit Residence.

These sketches, brief as they are, reflect the structural values and in turn, the positions held. The sponsors, as well as administration, both played key roles in guiding a complex organization through the turbulent times of the 1970's and 1980's with all the challenges these presented; and yet maintained continuity with core organizational values to which their participation in the ministry of the Society of Jesus involves.

Summary

Part I of this chapter has presented brief sketches of five respondents—sketches which reviewed salient features of individual biographies interwoven with

important dimensions in the development of the University's curriculum and student life after the establishment of the Lake Shore Campus in the second decade of this century. The salient features in those sketches also indicated from an organizational perspective themes and priorities which reflected the conceptual frames of analysis discussed in Chapter II's section.

The next part of this chapter presents the results of data drawn from these and other responses made to the questions surveyed in the instruments described in Chapter II's discussion on the design of this research. The results of each presentation of Part II are reported in the following way. First, the responses to individual questions from the same instrument are collated and identified. These are then coded from the criteria specific to each frame, as well as in greater detail below. Next, the clustering of specific responses to various organizational roles (e.g., administration, sponsoring member, lay faculty/staff) is presented and discussed, where implications of these clusterings for organizational processes as identified in Bolman and Deal are also discussed.[1] Specifically, these implications as related to the organization's mission and philosophy as evident in intercollegiate athletics and education for the past seventy years are highlighted.

Chapter III ends with a brief summary and set of conclusions.

---

[1]Lee G. Bolman and Terrence E. Deal, Modern Approaches to Understanding and Managing Organization (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1986).

Reporting of Data

The data were coded in the form of a question tally and consistency chart across respondents' tables. After careful analysis of the data, the following conceptual format was followed: selected assumptions, themes, and theories relating to the four frames of organizational development are presented. The impact and role of this conceptual format in the proliferation of intercollegiate athletics in higher education at Loyola University Chicago is then discussed.

Additionally, coded responses to the three questions found to be in consensus are identified, highlighted, analyzed, and discussed. The first such consensus was found re: Question 4a: How were athletes recruited between 1930 and 1970 at Loyola University?

The responses to Question 4a, after collecting and coding, showed the following consensus relating to the Structural Frame discussed above. Bolman and Deal's Structural Frame indicators applied to this question showed that organizational goals concerning the direction of intercollegiate athletics were clear cut and well defined. For example, from 1922 until 1930 the University emphasized intercollegiate football. In those years, though, the classic meaning of a Jesuit education diminished because (for one reason) the lay administrators at that time unfortunately had not adequately appreciated the values involved in Jesuit education.[2] This administrative aversion was seen, for example, in the press release of then President Reverend James Kelley, S.J. announcing the dropping of

---

[2]Father Kelley, Loyola University Chicago Archives, Athletic Department, Football Files, Box 5.

intercollegiate football on December 5, 1930—an act which indicated, from the four respondents' answers, a shift in athletic recruitment and development as a means to an overall goal within Jesuit education, rather than Jesuit education being the means to an athletic program. For example, the Loyola policy shift from the 1930's to the current situation reflects the position that an individual Loyolan's identity is primarily academic, e.g., student or faculty enhancement. This supports the criteria of the Structural Frame which asserts the following elements: the importance of formal roles and relationships (e.g., athletes and students), organizational structures (e.g., the dominance of academic offices over the athletic department), the division of labor and responsibilities to coordinate diverse activities (e.g., the establishment of the athletic department), and corporate flexibility to address novel situations for which the organization is not prepared to meet (e.g., Kelley's memo). The consensus surrounding this question accurately represents the Structural Frame in the organizational design of the university.

In addition to the four criteria above, the Structural Frame considers the following key variables: boundaries, goals, levels of authority, communication systems, coordinating mechanism, and distinctive culture. These variables were highlighted in Kelley's position. For example, his memo and its influence on his successors indicated that the organizational problems of football in the twenties competed with the well established goals distinctive to Jesuit culture; authority, boundaries, instrumental programs (such as intercollegiate football), as well as the highly visible mechanism for coordinating Jesuit sponsored academic activities and communicating them throughout the academic organization.

These variables reflected the application of seven assumptions critical to this frame which are as follows. First, while organizations exist primarily to accomplish goals (assumption 1), problems reflect a structure inappropriate to reach these goals (assumption 2). However, redesign and reorganization can resolve these problems (assumption 2a). Redesign and reorganization, when guided by norms of rationality, allow organizations to systematically order and implement structures (assumption 3). This is best accomplished through coordinated exercise and control in authority and impersonal roles (assumption 4), which when exercised in highly specialized tasks requiring individual expertise and performance (assumption 5), allow the development of structures appropriate to its goals, environment, technology, and participants (assumption 6). Such a development works most effectively when environmental turbulence and personal preface are constrained (assumption 7).

In the case of intercollegiate athletics at Loyola, these assumptions were manifested by the following factors in the consensus of responses to Question 4. The University had a clearly defined goal with the means to reach it: the Jesuit appropriation of classical education through a historically tested curriculum design. When, in Kelley's view, football threatened that goal, he restructured its place in the university so that it would not threaten these goals. His restructuring and design offset the inappropriate structures which had brought about this turbulence. Through stress on specialized expertise and performance in academic, but non-athletic areas, the core Jesuit goals were affirmed and intercollegiate sports were de-emphasized. This de-emphasis is seen in the multiple roles which athletic personnel exercised during that time. Furthermore, the 1930's historic memo stressed not

athletic goals but rather designing and implementing an environment with select personnel highlighting the academic rather than the athletic aspect of university life. This was effected by the coordinated exercise and control of authority and control by the Jesuits and their lay colleagues.

In turn, as a closed system pursuing explicit goals, structures were developed (e.g., curriculum design), in a highly formal way so that Loyola could reach its academic goals without unnecessary difficulty.

This was evident not only in the consensus on the technical but also on the managerial and institutional structural levels. While these levels are often relatively disconnected and their linkages are loose, connections can be seen. Relatively little funding for personnel, programs, and structures were allocated following the 1930's memo. Also, roles confronting contacts with other institutions as well as problems involving university policies on athletic matters were largely restricted to athletic departmental personnel as long as they did not challenge the spirit of the Kelley's 1930 memo. While the vertical and horizontal linkages within the organization coordinated and controlled resources in a loose manner, so as to reach the proximate goals of education, the linkage between the Jesuit administration and the athletic department in a formal sense was concrete and clear.

While the University's stated goals of Jesuit education were in the mainstream of Catholic educational thought, they competed with existing individual goals (e.g., upward mobility through higher education), and the repressed goals of the Athletic Department (e.g., a winning season).

Kelley's position was ratified by succeeding administrations in subsequent decades and was revealed in responses to Question 4, noting the relevance of the frame's assumptions and its applicability to pertinent facts. For example, Bolman and Deal note that organizations exists primarily to accomplish goals. According to Kelley, the goal of Loyola University as an educational organization was education in the classical Jesuit tradition. Prophetically, his press release noted that football was big business in America, so that instead of enhancing educational goals, this sport was introducing a new goal into Jesuit education, although foreign to its classical curriculum. As seen now in other contexts, it is less a means to an end, (e.g., mens sano in corpore sano) than entertainment. Instead of integrating athletics within the University's community, they became separate, as seen in the following measures taken from 1922 to 1930. Starting in 1922 and ending on December 5, 1930, the University emphasized the recruitment of athletes from a larger geographical region, established a training schedule, athletic housing, and special financial support from alumni.

Such goals were taboo and repressed (in Bolman and Deal's sense) at Loyola University Chicago due to its unique and distinctive Jesuit culture, but they were not taboo and repressed elsewhere. Currently, big-time intercollegiate football and basketball are considered a business. Moreover, the specialization of labor within the mega-universities, such as the large state schools, has resulted in education becoming the excuse to build intercollegiate teams rather than the other way around. For example, student athletes are seen as "producers" inasmuch as they provide income for the "entertainment business" of revenue generating

activities in higher education. Additionally, they are "consumers", as noted by Clarence Walton, because they consume not only the academic "products" of a degree producing curriculum[3] but also, in this author's opinion, because they consume the training, career development, and symbolic resources University sports have to offer.[4]

While Kelley's comments were prophetic then, they are now reinforced by other academic institutions. Other universities, as noted in Chapter I, dropped intercollegiate football and established basketball as their flagship sport. Additionally, some "big time" universities which emphasize athletics have difficulty in establishing the "means" (e.g., intercollegiate sports) to the "ends/goals" of American higher education (e.g., "liberally educated students.") While Kelley may have been extreme in his "treatment plan", he was on target with his diagnosis decades ago.[5] History, and the data in this exploratory study, support Kelley's decision to drop intercollegiate football, maintain basketball, and emphasize the classical curriculum of a Jesuit education with its this and other-worldly goals.

From this discussion of the Structural Frame, attention now is given to the interrelated themes of leadership, motivation, and communication as seen in the data. Interwoven with these themes, the research focuses on the relevant theory applicable to this data.

---

[3]Clarence C. Walton and Frederick deW. Bolman, Disorders in Higher Education (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1979), 150.

[4]Ibid., 151.

[5]Father Kelley.

First, attention focuses on key theories arising from the theme of leadership. For French and Raven, leadership is a thematic dimension in structuring and exercising power and influence, formally and informally, within an organization. They identify five theories of leadership as power expressing an emphasis of either an organizational or personal type. The three organizational types are legitimate, reward, and coercive. The personal types are the expert and referent.[6]

Along these lines, Father Kelley's memo and resulting organizational redesign and restrictions depended upon the legitimacy of his power position as President and Rector. His access to reward, coercion, as well as expert dimensions of power as a leader also reinforced the organization's wake-up as a hierarchical, quasi-military structure in which referent power was secondary.

The subjects' responses demonstrated a strong degree of commitment to exercising legitimate power in various roles within the University so as to affirm the value of organizational policy to recruit individuals as students first and athletes second.

In contrast is Blake and Mouton's leadership theory of managerial grid which incorporates two dimensions of leadership behavior, people and production.[7] Father Kelley in his memo and all the respondents as well showed concern for production and for people. Loyola University's product from a Structural Frame of organizational

---

[6]J. R. French and B. H. Raven, "The Bases of Social Power," in D. Cartwright, ed., Group Dynamics, 2nd ed., (Evanston, IL: Row, Peterson, and Co., 1960), 607–623.

[7]Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton, The Managerial Grid III: The Key to Leadership Excellent (Houston: Gulf Publishing Company, 1985), 12.

development is students educated in the classical curriculum of Jesuit philosophy and at the same time providing for the needs and concerns of its students. The two concerns of production and people go hand-in-hand, complement each other, and reflect the Christian values of the Jesuits. By dropping intercollegiate football, the primary academic focus of the curriculum was once again affirmed, reinforced and highlighted with a bona fide concern for the student athletes in line with those values.

Next, the importance of the theme of motivation, specifically Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy Theory, is explored. Maslow suggests that needs emerge in a logical sequence, starting from basic physiological needs of water and food developing to top the scale with self-actualization needs of reaching one's full potential.[8] Once one need is satisfied, another evolves and works towards satisfaction. The five levels of need in order of importance to an individual or to a coach at the organizational level are: physiological (e.g., heat, air conditioning and salary); safety (i.e. safe working conditions and fringe benefits—e.g., gym shoe contract, free car, country club membership, and summer camps); social (i.e., quality of supervision and compatible work group—e.g., coaching staff and university support); esteem (i.e. titles and status symbols—e.g., head coach, NCAA tournament, and winning record); self-actualization (i.e., challenging job and advancement in the organization—e.g., NCAA Division I coach).

---

[8]Abraham H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality, rev. ed., (New York: Harper and Row, 1970), 46.

In terms of Maslow's Need Hierarchy, as a coach progresses from the lowest need to the highest in his career, each step to the next level is considered an advancement in the coaching fraternity of intercollegiate athletics and in some institutions of higher education status in a "big-time athletic program."

Maslow's interpretation of motivation was evidenced decades later in Father Kelley's memo for dropping intercollegiate football. It enabled the organization to rethink its focus and once again to establish the academic priorities necessary to fulfill the human potential in Catholic Jesuit philosophy for the higher education of individuals in society. Once again the importance of formal roles and of management in hierarchies necessary to coordinate diverse activities was re-established by both Father Kelley and in the data of the respondents.

The final theme involves communication which is an important educational skill. For example, University administrators spend over 70 percent of their time in some form of interaction. The art of communication is an evolving process initiated by subjects who internalize ideas and develop them into an externalized action conveyed, intentionally or not to another subject, directly or through a medium. Communication may also be nonverbal, through body language and most often used expressions.

Organizational communications within a university flow in four structural directions: downward, upward, horizontally, and diagonally.[9] This flow sets up a pattern of formal or informal relationships. Formal communications may be through

---

[9]Bruce Harriman, "Up and Down the Communications Ladder," Harvard Business Review, September–October 1974, 145.

an organizational memorandum, whereas informal communications may be a verbal command or instruction. Whether formal or informal, the pattern of communication connecting members within the university organization is called a network.

The December 5, 1930 memo from Father Kelley was a formal document directed downward to the organization to re-establish the educational goals of the Jesuit administration and yet still provide a sports program within the structural framework of the Jesuit philosophy.

In communications, excerpts or minutes from the Athletic Board emphasized the inappropriate proliferation of intercollegiate football. This reflected a shift in the Structure Frame of the organizational development of the University in general as to the place football was to play within curriculum and, specifically the place of sports within the Catholic theology of education.

In contrast to dropping football, some institutions of higher education have delicately balanced excellence both in the classroom and on the gridiron. For example, the graduation rates, GPA, SAT and ACT test scores of Stanford, Northwestern, Duke, and Notre Dame, which are all private institutions, have been able to provide a bona fide education in conjunction with a big-time, winning athletic program—a combination rarely found in intercollegiate athletics.

This completes the analysis of the consensus found in responses to Question 4, an analysis which utilized the Structural Frame with pertinent themes of leadership, motivation, and communication. The next part of this analysis focuses on the consensus found in responses to Question 4c, which states elements critical to Bolman and Deal's Political Frame.

The second question from the questionnaire concerning a general consensus was 4c: How were athletes recruited between 1930 and 1970 at state universities? This question expressed the Political Frame in the organizational design. The recruitment of student athletes at state universities differed from Catholic and other private institutions because the tax base it generated provided an opportunity for all perspective students who graduated from high school the chance for higher education. An open admission policy, or state mandate for incoming freshmen coupled with sports and education as entertainment, allowed the coaching staff the flexibility to recruit athletes first and students second. Curriculums or "Mickey Mouse" classes were implemented to keep a percentage of the athletes eligible for their four-year college career, who accumulated credit hours in all areas except towards a major for graduation. Many private universities did not have this luxury or option due to their rigid structure of organizational design and mandatory core curriculum. As a result many student athletes never received a college diploma.

Application of six assumptions is critical to the Political Frame.[10] Organizational design and its relevance for this study are now to be discussed. First, organizations have limited resources; therefore, power and influence are constantly affecting the distribution of these resources (Assumption 1). At the time of distribution, conflict should be expected due to different desires, perspectives and life styles of various groups (Assumption 2). Collective bargaining and compromise are normal (Assumption 3), and various coalitions develop as issues change and evolve (Assumption 4). Problems within the organization start when power is not

balanced or is so thin that it is very difficult to complete tasks (Assumption 5). Finally, solutions within the organization come through political maneuvering (Assumption 6).

The dropping of intercollegiate football and recruitment of student athletes as noted in the Structural Frame of organizational design had, as an evident clear-cut goal, the return to the traditional values of a Jesuit education. In contrast, the Political Frame with reference to question 4c's responses focuses on groups or coalitions, incompatible preferences, and scarce resources.

From a Political Framework perspective, the coalition of Jesuits during President Kelley's administration dropped football and emphasized the recruitment of student athletes. This policy was exercised because of the incompatible preferences of intercollegiate football advocates and the then current popularity of football sweeping across the 1920 campuses of American higher education. Furthermore, intercollegiate football at Loyola University Chicago became a huge financial burden to its coffers and to politically different coalitions, such as the faculty. The latter endorsed a redirection of University funds into research or academic endeavors.

In the Political Framework of organizations three critical issues concerning power are explored and developed. Power in the true sense of the word is the ability to affect the behavior of others through values or control of scarce resources. Influence, whether conscious or unconscious, comes by or through the authority figure given or created by the organization. In this Political Framework or scenario,

---

[10]Bolman, 109.

state institutions of higher education under the direction of the administration are able to recruit and accept a number of student athletes who would be suspect at a private institution. Based on French and Raven's power theory, legitimate power granted through the hierarchy of University president to Athletic Director to Head Coach does represent in the political context different ways to recruit student athletes and administer an athletic program.[11]

Question 4c moves, like Question 4 above, from Frame to Theme to Theories. As noted before, the respondents' frame switched from the Structural to the Political regarding the difference between Loyola University and state universities in recruiting student athletes.

From a Leadership theme for the Political Frame, amplification of leadership elements distinct from those for the Structural Frame are key.

For political purposes, organizations cannot get consensus among their members as to whether a legitimate leader is effective or ineffective. Any college football or basketball coach can be judged on his winning percentage, but regardless of the objective records of each coach, individuals vary in their assessments of the coaches. Consequently, a number of studies have yielded some evidence concerning the prediction of effective leadership. For example, in 1974, Stogdill reported the results of a review of 163 trait studies conducted between 1949 and 1974.[12] Ghiselli found that the traits of intelligence, self-confidence, and

---

[11]French and Raven, 607–623.

[12]Ralph M. Stogdill, Handbook of Leadership: A Survey of Theory and Research (New York: The Free Press, 1974).

initiation separated leaders from non-leaders, who were also effective in a leadership role.[13] Campell and colleagues reported that the most consistent correlation with effectiveness in a leadership role is verbal communication.[14]

In Vroom and Yetton's model of leadership, a definite pattern for leadership goals that individuals should meet are: quality decisions, decision acceptance, and timeliness.[15] In the Political Frame of organizational design for athletic directors or coaches concerning the recruitment of student athletes at state universities, Question 4c, demands that quality decisions be made when evaluating talent so that the perspective athlete has the skills and talent necessary to compete at the university level. Unfortunately, a recruitment decision at many colleges based on academics is not the number one priority, but a secondary focus directed to student development.

Part of good leadership management is knowing how to size up a potential recruit, the available resources and then figure out the best way to make it fit into the organization. What may work in one situation may fail in another, but the administrator or coach must be flexible enough to recognize the difference and be open to change if necessary. In other words, "Plan your work, work your plan."

---

[13]E. E. Ghiselli, Explorations in Managerial Talent (Santa Monica: Goodyear Publishing, 1971), 227.

[14]J. P. Campbell and M. D. Dunnette, Éffectiveness of T-Group Experiences in Managerial Training and Development," Psychological Bulletin, 1968, 70 and 73–104.

[15]Victor Vroom and P. W. Yetton, Leadership and Decision-Making (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1973).

As evidenced in Vroom's interpretation of leadership decades later, Kelley's remarks show his concern for reestablishing the Jesuit values in education by recruiting the "whole man." From a Political Framework, the consensus at Loyola University was concerned with getting back into the mainstream of academia by recruiting legitimate student athletes, whereas state universities, because state legislation had different standards, were not on the same "playing fields" as Catholic or other private universities.

For example, the day has passed when a University administrator or athletic director could carelessly command and expect subordinates to fall in line. The leader now must be responsive to how the individual feels and to what he or she needs to do the job. The leader has to listen as well as command. The importance of effective communication within the organization cannot be over stressed in developing a viable working institution.

Organization analysis underscores the need for a coach as a leader to treat his athletes as individuals, not objects. As organizational managers, coaches must develop, from the perspective of the Political Frame, interpersonal skills and then refine them. They must take a positive approach to teaching. The Political Frame affirms this rather than a negative critical approach, keeping in mind that most people thrive on positive reinforcement.

Continuing with the analysis, let us explore the theme of motivation through Frederick Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory in relationship to the recruitment at

state universities.[16] Like most motivation-theories, Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory tries to discover factors or conditions that instill motivation. Whereas Maslow focused on needs of the individual, Herzberg directs his focus on the work environment and the conditions that affect peoples' attitudes to their surroundings.

According to Mike Ditka, "Motivation comes from within each individual. It is a personal thing. It is pride, guts, desire—whatever you want to call it; some people have it in their bellies, and some don't."[17] Herzberg two-level system of motivation is comparable to Maslow's where hygiene needs are the same as Maslow's lower-level needs and motivation needs, equivalent to Maslow's higher-level needs.

In terms of recruiting student athletes for state schools, the motivation or drive is not as intense because of the putative lower admission standards and diverse curricula offered. Every potential high school graduate is a viable candidate for admission to local state universities. In contrast, at Loyola University Chicago, students with higher academic standards must be sought. At state supported institutions many basic needs of the student athlete are not met, but many see this as a legitimate or trade-off means for the institution to produce and highlight its athletic program. Often this occurs at the expense of the young men and women recruited into the system.

Once again, emphasis must be placed on the basic communications between coach and student-recruit, coach and athletic director, and athletic director and

---

[16]Frederick Herzberg, Work and the Nature of Man (Cleveland, OH: World, 1966).

[17]Ray Didinger, Game Plans for Success (Boston: Little, Brown, and Company, 1995), 54.

president. Basic communications are the main ingredient when bonding leadership and motivational themes to theories. From the Political Framework of organizations, student recruiting can be viewed and analyzed to develop insight into the inner workings of why an organization reacts to different stimuli.

As with the Structural Frame, in the Political Frame, during downward communication flows, "filtering" quite often occurs and thus partial transmittal of information from the upper administration to athletic director to coaches, with the results that distortion of the original meaning of the message may occur. This happens generally in a political framework of organizations where different interpretations and opinions are expressed by the staff. Sorting out correct information is then necessary to keep the organization functioning. For example, the respondents reported that financial or academic issues were the most important political problems facing any institution of American higher education. The highlighting of these two substantive issues is significant because, historically, they can be seen as crucial for understanding the significance of the 1930's Kelley memo. While organizationally this communication in both upward and downward levels has political frame significance, it continues to be an issue for respondents and has had, presumably, for the populations which the case study represents across the respective decades. One may hypothesize that while these two issues have very concrete referents, they may hold larger symbolic weight than their concrete practicality allows.

This concludes the analysis of the consensus found on the responses to Question 4c. The analysis highlighted the application of Bolman and Deal's Political

Frame with relevant insights from themes surrounding concepts of leadership, motivation, and communication.

The next area of evaluation and coding was from Questions 9a, 9b, and 9c: 9: What are some of your thoughts concerning: a) intercollegiate athletic team sports, b) recreation, and c) an interrelationship between the two? Four out the five respondents' answers were coded and meet the Human Resources frame of organizational design in both the academic and physical development areas for student athletes.

In this Human Resource Frame, the individual respondents have needs, feelings, prejudices, skills, limitations, as well as the ability to defend old attitudes and beliefs. Three key elements in this Frame are: tailoring the organization to its people, finding a structure that allows the individuals to get the job done and feeling good about their self esteem and accomplishments. The respondents enjoyed working with young men, teaching a skill, developing character on and off the court, and providing a positive role model. In the words of one respondent, "It made me feel young, coaching and educating the youth of today." Problems exist, however, when human needs are not addressed or are not delivered. Student athletes who take the academic curriculum for granted are unable to establish their priorities in the classroom and end up failing. A happy medium between the classroom and the playing field must be maintained to address the title of student athlete.

In the Human Resource Frame of organizational design, four assumptions are present.[18] Initially, organizations exist to serve human needs (Assumption 1). The basic Jesuit philosophy of educating the whole man meets the criteria for this assumption: organizations and people need each other. Organizations need ideas, energy, salaries and work opportunities (Assumption 2). When the bond between the organization and the individual is weak, one or both will struggle in the relationship. At this point the individual or organization may exploit the current situation (Assumption 3). If the bond is strong, both the individual and the organization will benefit: individuals will have a positive attitude and take pride in their work, thereby providing the organization with resources to complete its mission statement (Assumption 4).

Chris Argyris' theory of human resources "saw a basic conflict between the human personality and the ways that organizations were traditionally structured and managed."[19] Like Maslow, Argyris agrees that all individuals are predisposed to move from infancy to adulthood in a hierarchy based on need. According to Argyris, organizations, particularly at the lower end of the hierarchy, often manifest four tendencies—infantilizing employees, over-specializing tasks, using directive leadership techniques, and making the formal structure too rigid. As a direct result of these tendencies, conflict erupts between the individual and organization, which in turn leads to a distraught employee. As an example of directive leadership

---

[18]Bolman, 65.

[19]C. Argyris, Integrating the Individual and the Organization (New York: Wiley, 1964), 75.

techniques consider the following hypothetical situation. An athletic director may direct a coach to schedule top ranked teams for competition, since this will help the university receive a large financial guarantee or provide a marketable home game schedule. The strategy differs in the case of the coach who is not looking for revenue income, but a "W" in his won/loss record, since a coach's contract usually depends on the number of wins and a post-season tournament bid, not the GPA of his student athletes or the number who graduate. In such a conflict, an employee in the Human Resource Frame may respond in a number of ways. For example, the employee may withdraw from the organizational activities (e.g., coming late and endorsing chronic absenteeism). A coach who struggles with team leadership and identity and who does not have total control of the program may adopt a plan of absenteeism and revert to social isolation within the department. Or the same employee could resist the organizational administration through a restricted work-output when dealing with his team. In any event, if athletes are aware of the personality shifts and actions of their coach and if they become a detriment to a "winning season," they may demand a change in personnel.

Continuing with the model, F (T)2, let us note that the Human Resource Frame of organizational design for questions 9a, 9b, and 9c moves from themes to theories.

In regards to the leadership theme, Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard's situational theory will now be discussed and analyzed.[20] According to this theory,

---

[20]P. Hershey and K. H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior, 5th ed., (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1988).

one can identify two key behaviors as task and relationship. In a task behavior situation, the coach in one-way communication would instruct his players as to what is expected of them, as well as when, where, and how they should behave on and off the playing arena. In terms of relationship behavior, the coach or administrator provides two-way conversations for social and psychological support.

All the respondents reported the following three relationship values: a good rapport with student athletes, enjoyment as a major factor in developing intercollegiate athletics throughout their tenure, and support for the emphasis of recreation for the entire student body.

Hersey and Blanchard also included as a key situational variable in their model the maturity of its individuals—job maturity (time on the job) and psychological maturity (e.g., achievement needs and willingness to accept responsibility). To a coach or administrator, job or psychological maturity develops as an individual grows within the framework of the philosophy of the institution.

To understand and fully appreciate Hersey and Blanchard's model requires matching the situation with one or more of their appropriate leadership styles which are: telling, selling, participating, and delegating. Depending on the situation, the respondents employed either the participating or the delegating style of leadership for administration or coaching duties. For example, the coaching style over the years at Loyola University has been one of total participation among the entire staff and of relationship with their student athletes.

In terms of the motivation theme for Question 9a, 9b, and 9c, Porter and Lawler's basic expectancy theory of motivation is incorporated because it examines

the indicators which influence an individual's performance.[21] For them, performance leads to satisfaction. The intervening variable between these two is reward and hope for the future rewards team members can earn through hard work and dedication. In intercollegiate athletics, winning on the field or in the classroom is the biggest reward and means to achieve future rewards which team members can earn through hard work and dedication.

For example, many faculty respondents, considered themselves bona fide teachers. They believed it to be important to instruct and demonstrate to the student athletes the importance of education, whether in a game or classroom. This reward was a well rounded, educated student athlete and an opportunity to be a member of a winning team (e.g., 1963 NCAA basketball championship team or Tom O'Hara's indoor mile record).

Motivating athletes by shouting will not make athletes better unless somewhere in the shouting, there is direction: as a coach or administrator, one does not accomplish much by yelling. It's more effective and productive to tell the athletes, "Here's how to..." than screaming without direction or explanation.

The Jesuit philosophy within the importance of the individual has preconsciously internalized the values which Porter and Lawler's theme highlights. As a result, this researcher's study of various coaches at Loyola University indicates many of them have internalized this Jesuit philosophy in their athletic pedagogy. The result? They have, along with their athletes, been winners in the classroom and in

---

[21]Lyman W. Porter and Edward E. Lawler III, and J. Richard Hackman, Behavior in Organizations (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1975), 43.

playing arenas. Porter and Lawler's expectancy theory of motivation is definitely affirmed in the curriculum of Loyola University Chicago.

The final part of the analysis addresses a technique within communications. This technique which is called "empathy" and involves the making of predictions by a sender about how the receiver will respond to a message will now be discussed. To achieve a communications rapport between coach and athlete, empathy must be included as a vital ingredient in player and human development. As noted above, the "how to philosophy" is more effective than yelling. To send a positive message, an athletic director or coach should place himself in the shoes of the athlete and try to anticipate situational factors that might influence the athlete's interpretation of the message. Empathy can reduce or breakdown the obstacles resulting from stratification external to a university (e.g., race, class), and thus be a barrier to effective communication. The greater the gap in education and culture between the coach and athlete, the greater the need to find a common ground for understanding. The Jesuit philosophy for educating the whole man provides this common basis as shown by the data.

Noteworthy in the data analysis of Questions 3, 5b, 7a, 7b,10, 11a, 12, 17, and 16b is the lack of consistency in selecting a consensus frame or even a majority frame for review and evaluation. It appears the respondents in this case study operated in different frames from primary and secondary perceptions. For example, from the focus of intercollegiate athletics, to financial enhancement in support of intercollegiate athletes to gender equity issues responses for organizational design

within Loyola University Chicago varied the from structured, political, and human resources frame.

In reference to the symbolic frame, only two responses were coded as "symbolism". See for example, Question 19: "Is there anything you would like to add concerning education and intercollegiate athletics at Loyola University Chicago?"

In the Symbolic Frame, one creates an organizational culture in a manner similar to the development of a personality within an environment. To explore this assumption, one must parallel the organization with a developing human being. The following concepts are means of achieving symbolism. Myths or "war stories," much like the Iliad and Aeniad of old, can be used within a university to give knowledge, comfort, and reassurance. Such stories provide descriptive explanations for right and wrong, for internal tensions, and they provide praise for outstanding achievements and assign blame when necessary. Rituals and ceremonies identify what is important and provide points of passage. The traditional pre-game meal for athletes reflects not only nutritional nourishment for strength in competition, but the historical last meal before engaging in battle. Humor integrates and provides flexibility within the organization. Such ritualized play as sport relaxes the organizational rules and allows individuals to express their freedoms within the structured engagement. Organizations have heroes, storytellers, and priests who correspond to warriors of the organization and guardians of the culture. Faith, belief, and values mediate between activity and outcomes. Individuals then interpret the organization, resulting in the movement of the organization toward or away from its goal.

It is important to assert that the data on the students' responses to the four Frames and related themes and theories were corroborated by the findings reported above for the other frames and their respective themes and theories.

Conclusion

This section briefly summarizes key conclusions drawn from the research data reported in this Chapter.

Salient features of this Chapter involved short sketches of significant respondents, among whom were students, student athletes, sponsors, as well as clerical and lay faculty, staff, and administrative personnel. Reporting such sketches involved the collation, analysis, and implications of the responses as interpreted through the theoretical framework discussed in Chapter II's research and design section as well as in the course of the report.

The following summarizes the report. First, the data were interpreted in light of the conceptual frameworks. These frameworks, based on concepts drawn from the literature identified in Chapter II, highlighted the integrated model based on Bolman and Deal's four Frames for organizational analysis. These Frames were integrated with key themes and pertinent organizational theories to form a model. In turn this model was applied to key responses drawn from the research instruments of the design discussed in Chapter II. Appropriate conclusions were identified and presented.

Preeminent amongst these conclusions are the following. The frames can be seen as a conceptual continuum in the growth of Loyola University Chicago, as

opposed to Bolman and Deal, who see the frames as four equal ways of viewing an organization. During its growth and development, Loyola University, as it expanded in the 70's and 80's, moved from a dominant Human Resources Frame into one of a Structure Frame. During that era, other universities were closing and elsewhere faculty lay-offs were common, but at Loyola University Chicago, new professional schools were either expanded or initiated. Subsequent to this Structural Frame emphasis, Loyola's administrative decisions concerning the future of the university moved into the arena of a Political Frame. As the University's demography became more diverse because of its expansion, political decisions and forces were challenged by different and new self interest camps. In terms of growth both the Medical complex and Law School are products of this environment. "Politics" here is not to be taken in a mean spirited sense, but in terms of positive growth for the entire university.

In the design concept, the continuum of frames has helped in the development and maturity of the University. The movement from a Human Resources Frame to a Structured Frame to a Political Frame and finally to a combination Structural and Symbolic Frame with President John J. Piderit's S.J., New Traditions which points to the future.

Attention is now directed to the next chapter which also discusses key issues. Some of these reflect concerns raised in the survey instrument and pertain to the NCAA and its relationship to member institutions. Issues concerning Title Nine, and gender equity are especially critical and will be studied in the next chapter.

CHAPTER IV

THE SOCIO-CULTURAL CONTEXT FOR AN ORGANIZATIONAL STUDY OF INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS: TITLE IX, NCCA, KNIGHT COMMISSION, AND BUILDING NEW TRADITIONS

This dissertation has addressed, from the perspective of organizational studies, the interplay between an institution of higher education and one expression of its mission i.e. intercollegiate sports. It utilized an analytical tool based upon an integration of Bolman and Deal's four organizational frames with salient insights from theories and themes deriving from current research. To accomplish this, the theoretical foundation was laid in Chapter I. Chapter II presented the statement of the problem and the research design. Chapter III reported a summary of data drawn from the study group's responses to the instruments utilized in the interviews and survey. From this summary the initial interpretation using the conceptual framework presented in Chapter II was made.

Building upon these efforts, this Chapter addresses, utilizing the same analytical tools, the socio-cultural context which today frames intercollegiate American athletics. Specifically, this context focuses on one concern as it impacts on Loyola University Chicago.

This concern is: What is the interaction between what has come to be known as gender equity issues and intercollegiate athletics as an expression of the University's mission.

This issue is discussed in the following way. First, a brief history of the development of an overarching authorizing organization i.e. NCAA and Title IX issues are presented with its relations to the University. Within this presentation, the role and impact of the Knight Commission and its impact on Loyola University Chicago are incorporated. Next, the direction for Loyola University Chicago which the Building New Traditions program might take in light of the NCAA, The Knight Commission, and Title IX criteria is introduced.

Following this discussion, the Chapter then analyzes the above issue utilizing the analytical tools presented in Chapters 2 and 3. The Chapter then closes with a short summary and conclusion.

The Social-Cultural Context: the NCAA and Title IX

Organizational studies far too often focus only on the "individual level" of analysis i.e. the organization/institution itself. They fail to discuss, describe, and analyze organizations within the social-cultural context in which the organization operates.

This study corrects that inadequacy. This Chapter brings to the forefront of analysis one dimension to the social-cultural context. This dimension is legitimating organizations which authorize intercollegiate teams to function: the NCAA and the Federal government. The prior authorizes teams to interact with others, while the

latter, through the funding powers of federal government which uses the educational organization to help the nation reach broader social goals, as evidenced through programs like Title IX.

This section of Chapter IV highlights the importance this dimension to social-cultural context in the following way. First, a brief overview of the NCAA is presented. Its history, structure, and purposes are discussed. Within this discussion, next Title IX is described and analyzed. Its expression as a national policy designed to correct structural and political injustice in the area of gender equity is treated. Next, the impact of the Knight Commission Report is presented. In turn, the interplay among the values these three elements to the social cultural context is tied to the recent Building New Traditions proposal at Loyola University Chicago is presented. Building upon this foundation, the analysis presented in earlier chapters is applied to this context. In this presentation, because the application is restricted to one issue, the analysis is modified. The modification will be discussed in the course of the application. The Chapter closes with a short summary and critical conclusions.

The National Athletic Collegiate Association (NCAA) speaks for the colleges on athletic matters on the national level.1 made up of over 1,150 voluntary institutions, it is dedicated to an administration of athletics at the intercollegiate level.[1] It helps maintain intercollegiate athletics as a vital activity of the educational mission of American higher education. It advances the student athlete as a key participant in the student body population. While external to its sponsoring

---

[1]Jack Falla, NCAA: the Voice of College Sports (Mission, Kansas: National Collegiate Athletic Association, 1981), p. ix.

organizations, the NCAA's two goals of advocacy for students and promoting administrative integrity have important internal implications. These include monitoring and compliance.

To reach these, the five purposes of the NCAA are:

1. Maintain institutional control and responsibility for all intercollegiate sports in compliance with the constitution of the Association.
2. Develop and enforce eligibility rules for scholarship and sportsmanship.
3. To initiate and publish rules governing intercollegiate athletics.
4. To maintain and preserve intercollegiate athletics records.
5. To establish and enforce eligibility standards for regional and national athletic events.

Antecedent to the NCAA was the Intercollegiate Athletic Association of the United States (IAAUS). Founded in 1906 in response to then President Theodore Roosevelt's concerns for the often violent "play" and serious injuries football provided, as cited in Chapter I, the NCAA was set up to reform the game, or football would be abolished from institutions of higher education. The organization changed its name to the National Collegiate Athletic Association in 1910. The first NCAA championship tournament was held in 1920.

In the next twenty-five years, the NCAA continued to expand its influence. After World War II, the Association was at a critical point in its growth and development. In the 1950's boom, financial aid to student athletes had increased. As a result, external monitoring was required for the NCAA to continue. The "Sanity Code" was one such attempt and was fruitful. At the same time member institutions

were also puzzled by what they should do in light of the postwar increase in football attendance as well as the impact of national exposure on the unrestricted expansion of the new media: television.

Due to the seriousness of these problems, a full-time director for professional leadership was developed. Consequently, Walter Byers, in 1951, was appointed the first executive director of the NCAA. Also in 1952, a national office was established in Kansas City, Missouri. Direction, leadership and guidance was now in place. The structured organization now tackled the problems presented by live, commercial television broadcasts. The NCAA response was to draft legislation for governing post-season bowl games and bylaws for member institutions.

During the next twenty years with the expansion of higher education, particularly due to the baby boom population coupled with increased federal and staff funding, the NCAA continued to increase its influence and structure. In 1973, the membership was divided into three competitive divisions: Division I, Division 2, and Division 3. Prior to this realignment, the NCAA was composed of the University division and the College division. Basically, an institution's division was classified by the number of scholarships it offered and the number of intercollegiate teams it sponsored. Then and still now, Division 3 institutions did not provide any scholarships. In Division 3 schools, the student athlete's funding from the university was based entirely on their governmental funded financial aid package. Five years later in 1978, member institutions voted to establish subdivisions I-A and I-AA for football only. Classification was determined by the number of scholarships given and a minimum seating requirement of 25,0000 fans per stadium.

However, structural concerns were not restricted to divisional and other internal matters. Larger social, cultural concerns arising from the civil, economic, and social justice issues of this century here and abroad made their impact felt on the NCAA.

Attention to this concern was first evidenced in what has come to be known within discussions of structural dimensions to social and distributive justice within the athletic sector of the body politic as, "gender equity." This found legal expression within what has come to be identified as Title IX. Women joined the NCAA's championships in 1980 when it established 10 championships to be conducted in 1981. A year later the women's championships program was increased to 19 events.

The President's Commission, established in 1984, encouraged the membership to strengthen the Association's compliance and enforcement guidelines. Three years later, in 1987, the Commission conducted an 18-month National Forum on critical issues on intercollegiate athletes. One such critical issue involves gender equity. It is discussed on Light of the Federal Title IX and the Building New Traditions.

The Office of Civil Rights (OCR) enforces Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, 20 U.S.C. 1681 et seq. (Title IX). It prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex in education programs and activities. The regulation implementing Title IX, at 34 C.F.R. Part 106, effective July 21, 1975, contains specific provisions governing athletic programs, at 34 C.F.R. 106.41, and the awarding of athletic scholarships, at 34 C.F.R. 106.37(c).

The Title IX regulation provides that if an institution sponsors an athletic program it must provide equal athletic opportunities for members of both sexes. Among other factors, the regulation requires that an institution must effectively accommodate the athletic interests and abilities of students of both sexes to the extent necessary to provide equal athletic opportunity.

The determination of this requirement is made by the Executive branch of the Federal government acting through the Office of Civil Rights (OCR).

The OCR, in its regulatory responsibility, further clarifies Title IX regulatory requirements. One example is provided by the Intercollegiate Athletics Policy Interpretation, issued December 11, 1979.[2]

The 1979 Policy Interpretation provides that as part of this determination, OCR will apply the following three-part test, (hereafter test) to assess whether an institution is providing nondiscriminatory participation opportunities for individuals of both sexes:

1. Whether intercollegiate level participation opportunities for male and female students are provided in numbers substantially proportionate to their respective enrollments; or
2. Where the members of one sex have been and are underrepresented among intercollegiate athletes, whether the institution can show a history and continuing practice of program expansion which is demonstrably responsive to the developing interests and abilities of that sex; or

---

[2]Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, 20 U.S.C. 1681 et seq.

3. Where the members of one sex are underrepresented among intercollegiate athletes, and institution cannot show a continuing practice of program expansion such as that cited above, whether it can be demonstrated that the interests and abilities of the members of that sex have been fully and effectively accommodated by the present program.[3]

This three-part test furnishes three specific avenues to measure compliance with the requirement to provide individuals of each gender with nondiscriminatory opportunities to participate in intercollegiate athletics. If an institution meets any part of the three-part test, OCR determines that the institution is in compliance.

At the same time it is important to note that under the Policy Interpretation the requirement to provide nondiscriminatory participation opportunities is only one of the major factors that OCR examines to determine if an institution is in compliance with the Athletics provision of Title IX. The OCR also considers the quality of competition offered to members of both sexes. This is to determine if an institution effectively accommodates the interests and abilities of its students.

Additionally, an "overall determination of compliance" is made by OCR, in accord with 44 Fed. Reg. 71417, 71417.[4] The OCR looks at the institution's athletic program in its entirety. For example the OCR considers the effective accommodation of student interests and abilities along with equal i.e. identical or proportionate in the

---

[3]Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, 20 U.S.C. 1681 et seq. (Title IX) and enforcement at 84C.F.R. part 106.41 and 106.87(c). And intercollegiate Athletics Policy Interpretation, issued December 11, 1979. (44 Fed. Reg. 71413 et seq. (1979).

[4]Title IX 44 Fed. Reg. at 71418.

availability, quality and types of other athletic benefits and opportunities provided to male and female athletes. This helps to determine if the organization presents equal athletic opportunities through benefits as required by Title IX. Other benefits include for example coaching, equipment, practice and competitive facilities, recruitment, scheduling of games, and publicity, among others.

At this juncture, to assist in seeing the connection between the concerns of Title IX and the future mission of Jesuit education and specifically the Building New Traditions program's goal to develop Loyolans as "... persons for other," amplification of this three part tests' criteria is appropriate. Each part is described and discussed in turn.

The first is part one: Are participation opportunities substantially proportionate to gender enrollment?

Under Part One of the three-part test where an institution provides intercollegiate level athletic participation opportunities for male and female students in numbers substantially proportionate to their respective full-time undergraduate enrollments, OCR will find that the institution is providing nondiscriminatory participation opportunities for individuals of both sexes.

To do this, OCR's analysis begins with a determination of the number of "participation" opportunities afforded to male and female athletes in the intercollegiate athletic program. In determining "participation" opportunities, OCR counts the number of actual athletes participating in the athletic program. The policy interpretation defines participants as those athletes by these four criteria:

a. Who are receiving the institutionally-sponsored support normally provided to athletes competing at the institution involved , e.g., coaching, equipment, medical and training room services, on a regular basis during a sport's season; i.e., How many women students? How many men students?

b. Who are participating in organized practice sessions and other team meetings and activities on a regular basis during a sport's season; and

c. Who are listed on the eligibility or squad lists maintained for each sport, or

d. Who, because of injury, cannot meet a, b, or c above but continue to receive financial aid on the basis of athletic ability.[5]

For calendar purposes of this determination, the OCR considers a sport's season to start on the date of a team's first intercollegiate competitive event and to conclude on the date of the team's final, scheduled intercollegiate competitive event. Two responses are made. As a general rule, all athletes listed on a team's squad or eligibility list and are who on the team as of the its first competitive event are denoted as participants by the OCR.

Under Part d. of the above criteria, any athlete who receives financial aid on the basis of athletic ability is considered by the OCR to be "participating." In determining the number of participation opportunities for the purposes of the interests and abilities analysis, an athlete participating in more than one sport is counted as a participant in each sport in which he or she participates. This allows for organizations to be disproportionate in actual numbers, but proportionate in law.

---

[5]44 Fed. Reg. at 71417.

Title IX regulation allows institutions to operate separate athletic programs for men and women. As a result, this regulation allows an institution to control the respective number of participation opportunities offered to men and women.

Thus, it could be argued that to satisfy Part One there should be no difference between the participation rate in an institution's intercollegiate athletic program and its full-time undergraduate student enrollment. However, in some circumstances it may be unreasonable to expect an institution to achieve exact proportionality—for instance, because of demographics or market fluctuations in enrollment and participation rates or because it would be unreasonable to expect an institution to add athletic opportunities in light of the small number of students that would have to be accommodated to achieve exact proportionality—the policy interpretation examines whether participation opportunities are "substantially" proportionate to enrollment rates. The OCR makes this determination on a case-by-case basis.

A hypothetical case might clarify this. If an institution's enrollment is 52 percent male and 48 percent female and 52 percent of the participants in the athletic program are male and 48 percent female, then the institution would clearly satisfy Part One. However, the OCR recognizes that demographic or market fluctuations in an institution's enrollment and/or participation rates may affect the percentages in a subsequent year. Hypothetically, if the institution's admissions in the following year resulted in an enrollment rate of 51 percent males and 49 percent females, while the participation rates of males and females in the athletic program remained constant, the institution would continue to satisfy Part One's criteria. The OCR would consider

it to be unreasonable to expect the institution to fine tune its program in response to this unpredictable shift in enrollment.

Another example might also illustrate the OCR's approach. Over the past five years an historically based "women's" institution has had a consistent enrollment rate for men of 50 percent. During this time period, it has been expanding its program for women in order to reach proportionality. In the year that the institution reaches its goal, i.e., 50 percent of the participants in its athletic program are male, its enrollment rate for male increases to 52 percent. Under these circumstances, the institution would satisfy Part One.

OCR would also consider opportunities to be substantially proportionate when the number of opportunities that would be required to achieve proportionality would not be sufficient to sustain a viable team, i.e., a team for which there is a sufficient number of interested and able students and enough available competition to sustain an intercollegiate team. As a frame of reference in assessing this situation, OCR may consider the average size of teams offered for the underrepresented sex, a number which would vary by institution.

Attention is now drawn to the test's second part: Is there a history and continuing practice of program expansion for the underrepresented sex? Under Part Two of the Test an institution can show that it has a history and continuing practice of program expansion which is demonstrably responsive to the developing interests and abilities of the underrepresented sex. In effect, Part Two looks at, when appropriate, an institution's past and continuing remedial efforts to provide nondiscriminatory participation opportunities through program expansion.

Part two focuses on whether an institution has expanded the number of intercollegiate participation opportunities provided to the underrepresented sex. Improvements in the quality of competition , and of other athletic benefits, provided to women athletes, while not considered under the three-part test, can be considered by OCR in making overall determination of compliance with the athletics provision of Title IX. To do this history and current practice are examined.

OCR reviews the entire history of the athletic program. It focuses on the participation opportunities provided for the underrepresented sex. First, OCR will assess whether past actions of the institution have expanded participation opportunities for the underrepresented sex in a manner that was demonstrably responsive to their developing interests and abilities. There are no fixed intervals of time within which an institution must have added participation opportunities. Instead OCR focuses is on if the program expansion was responsive to developing interests and abilities of the underrepresented sex. Additionally, the institution must demonstrate a continuing (i.e., present) practice of program expansion as warranted by developing interests, abilities. Currently concern is raised over inadequate attention paid by the OCR to available funding.

OCR considers the following three factors, among others, to evidence an organization's history to expend programs that are demonstrably responsive to the developing interests and abilities of the underrepresented sex:

1. An institution's record of adding intercollegiate teams, or upgrading teams to intercollegiate status, for the underrepresented sex;

2. An institution's record of increasing the numbers of participants in intercollegiate athletics who are members of the underrepresented sex; and
3. An institution's affirmative responses to requests by students or others for addition or elevation of sports.

Additionally, OCR will consider the following two factors, among others, as evidence that may indicate a continuing practice of program expansion that is demonstrably responsive to the developing interests and abilities of the underrepresented sex:

1. An institution's current implementation of a nondiscriminatory policy or procedure for requesting the addition of sports (including the elevation of club or intramural teams) and the effective communication of the policy or procedure to students; and
2. An institution's current implementation of a plan of program expansion that is responsive to developing interests and abilities.

OCR would also find persuasive an institution's efforts to monitor developing interests and abilities of the underrepresented sex. This is done for example, by conducting periodic nondiscriminatory assessments of developing interests and abilities and taking timely actions in response to the results.

In the event that an institution eliminated any team for the underrepresented sex, OCR would evaluate the circumstances surrounding this action in assessing whether the institution could satisfy part two of the test. However, OCR will not find a history and continuing practice of program expansion where an institution increases the proportional participation opportunities for the underrepresented sex by reducing

opportunities for the over represented sex alone, or by reducing participation opportunities for the over represented sex to a proportionately greater degree than for the underrepresented sex. This is because Part Two considers an institution's good faith remedial efforts through actual program expansion. It is only necessary to examine Part Two if one sex is overrepresented in the athletic programs indicated by the criteria discussed in the Test's Part One.

Cuts in programs for the underrepresented sex, even when coupled with cuts in the program for the overrepresented sex, cannot be considered remedial because they burden members of the sex already disadvantaged by the present program. However, an institution that has eliminated some participation opportunities for the underrepresented sex can still meet Part Two's expectations. If, overall, the institution can show a history and continuing practice for program expansion.

In addition, OCR will not find that an institution satisfies Part Two where it established teams for the underrepresented sex only at the initiation of its program for the underrepresented sex or where it merely promises to expand its program for the underrepresented sex at some time in the future.

The following four hypotheticals illustrate the principles discussed above.

Hypothetical #1

At the inception of its women's program in the mid-1970s, Institution A established seven club teams for women. In 1984, it added a women's varsity team at the request of students and coaches. In 1990, it upgraded a women's club sport to

varsity team status based on the request by the club members and an NCAA survey that showed a significant increase in girls high school participation in that sport.

Institution A is currently implementing a plan to add a varsity women's team in the Spring of 1997 that has been identified by a regional study as an emerging women's sport.

Based on the addition of these teams, the percentage of women participating in varsity athletics as the institution has increased.

The OCR would find Institution A in compliance with Part Two because it has a history of program expansion and is continuing to expand its program for women to meet their developing interests and abilities.

Hypothetical #2

By 1980, Institution B established seven club teams for women. Institution B added a women's varsity team in 1983 based on the requests of students and coaches. In 1991 it added a women's varsity team after an NCAA survey showed a significant increase in girls' high school participation in that sport. In 1993 Institution B eliminated a viable women's team and a viable men's team in effort to reduce its athletic budget. It has taken no action relating to the underrepresented sex since 1993. The OCR would not find Institution B in compliance with Part Two. Its reasoning would be as follows: Institution B cannot show a continuing practice of program expansion that responds to the developing interests and abilities of the underrepresented sex because its only action since 1991 with regard to the

underrepresented sex was to eliminate a team for which there was interest, ability and available competition.

Hypothetical #3

In the mid-1970s, Institution C, a formerly all female, institution established five club teams for men. In 1979 it added a men's varsity team. Later, in 1984, it upgraded a men's club sport with twenty-five participants to varsity team status. At that time it eliminated a men's varsity team which had eight members. In 1987 and 1989 Institution C added men's varsity teams to sports for which interest was identified by a significant number of its enrolled and incoming male students when surveyed regarding their athletic interests and abilities. During this time, it also increased the size of an existing women's team to provide opportunities for women who expressed interest in playing that sport. Within the past year, it added a women's varsity team based on a nationwide survey of the most popular boys high school teams. Based on the addition of these teams, the percentage of women participating in varsity athletics at the institution has increased. OCR would find Institution C in compliance with Part Two because it has a history of program expansion and the elimination of the team in 1984 took place within the context of continuing program expansion for the underrepresented sex that is responsive to their developing interests.

Hypothetical #4

Institution D started its women's program in the early 1970s with four teams. It did not add to its women's program until 1987 when, based on requests of students

and coaches, it upgraded a women's club sport to varsity team status and expanded the size of several existing women's teams to accommodate significant expressed interest by women students. In 1990 it surveyed its enrolled and incoming female students. Based on that survey and a survey of the most popular sports played by club/varsity women in the region, Institution D agreed to add three new women's teams by 1997. It added a women's club/varsity team in 1991 and 1994.

Institution D is implementing a plan to add a women's team by the spring of 1997. The OCR would find Institution D in compliance with Part Two. Institution D's program history since 1987 shows that it is committed to program expansion for the underrepresented sex and it is continuing to expand its women's program in light of women's developing interests and abilities.

The third part of the test procures the last alternative. It asks; Is the Institution Fully and Effectively Accommodating the Interests and Abilities of the Underrepresented Sex? Under Part Three of the test, the OCR determines if an institution fully and effectively accommodates the interests and abilities of the underrepresented sex.

A disproportionately high athletic participation rate by an institution's students of the overrepresented sex (as compared to their enrollment rates) may indicate that an institution is not providing equal athletic opportunities to its students of the underrepresented sex, an institution can satisfy Part Three. Evidence that the imbalance does not reflect discrimination, i.e., where it can be demonstrated that, notwithstanding disproportionately low participation rates by the institution's students

of the underrepresented sex, the interests and abilities of these students are, in fact, being fully and effectively accommodated.

In making this determination, the OCR considered three factors. They are: if there is—

1. Unmet interest in a particular sport;
2. Sufficient ability to sustain a team in the sport; and
3. A reasonable expectation of competition for the team.

If all three factors are present, the OCR may find that an institution has not fully and effectively accommodated the interests and abilities of the underrepresented sex. On the other hand, if an institution recently eliminated a viable varsity team from its intercollegiate program, the OCR will probably find sufficient interest, ability, and available competition to sustain an intercollegiate team in that sport unless an institution can provide strong evidence that interest, ability, or available competition no longer exists. Each factor is examined in turn.

1. Is there sufficient unmet interest to support an intercollegiate team?

OCR will determine whether there is sufficient unmet interest among the institution's students—including students who are admitted to the institution though not yet enrolled—who are members of the underrepresented sex to sustain an intercollegiate team. The OCR will look for interest by the underrepresented sex. This interest is expressed in the by indicators. Among others, these six are critical:

1. Requests by students and admitted students that a particular sport be added;
2. Requests that an existing club sport be elevated to intercollegiate team status;

3. Participation levels in club or intramural sports;
4. Interviews with students, admitted students, coaches, administrators and others regarding interest in particular sports;
5. Results of questionnaires of students and admitted students regarding interests in particular sports; and
6. Participation levels in interscholastic sports by admitted students.

In addition, OCR will look at particular rates in sports in high schools, amateur athletic associations, and community sports leagues that operate in areas from which the institution draws its students in order to ascertain likely interest and ability of its students and admitted students in particular sport(s).

For example, where the OCR's investigation finds that a substantial number of high schools from the relevant region offer a particular sport which the institution does not offer for the underrepresented sex, OCR will ask the institution to provide a basis for any assertion that its students and admitted students are not interested in playing that sport. The OCR may also interview students, admitted students, coaches, and others regarding that sport. While these indications of interest may be helpful to OCR in ascertaining likely interest on campus, particularly in the absence of more direct indications, an institution is expected to meet the actual interests and abilities of its students and admitted students.

An institution may review its athletic program to assess the athletic interest of students from the underrepresented sex using nondiscriminatory methods, those may be of its choosing. Thus, institutions have flexibility to choose a

nondiscriminatory method to determine athletic interests and abilities if they meet specific criteria.[6]

These assessments may use straightforward and inexpensive techniques, such as a student questionnaire or an open forum, to identify students' interests and abilities. The OCR frequently encourages instruments. Often these instruments are usually the most simple techniques to assess interest. As a result, even though the OCR expects that an institution's assessment tool reach a big sample of students and be open-ended in regards to the sports students can express interest, the OCR does not require sophisticated scientific validation of assessments.

An institution's evaluation of interest should be done periodically so it can identify in a timely and responsive manner any developing interests and abilities of the underrepresented sex. Also, it should consider sports played in the high schools and communities from which the institution draws its students. This indicates possible interest on campus. Also, it permits the institution to plan to meet the interests of admitted students of the underrepresented sex.

Building upon #1, then, the OCR asks: Is there sufficient ability to sustain an intercollegiate team? The OCR will determine if sufficient ability among interested students of the underrepresented sex to sustain an intercollegiate team is present. The OCR will examine indications of ability such as these three:

1. The athletic experience and accomplishments in interscholastic, club or intramural competition of students and admitted students interested in playing the sport;

---

[6]44 Fed. Reg. at 71415.

2. Opinions of coaches, administrators, and athletes at the institution regarding whether interested students and admitted students have the potential to sustain a varsity team; and
3. If the team has previously competed at the club or intramural, whether the competitive experience of the team indicates that it has the potential to sustain an intercollegiate team.

Neither a poor competitive record nor the inability of interested students or admitted students to play at the same level of competition engaged in by the institution's other athletes is conclusive evidence of lack of ability. It is sufficient that interested students and admitted students have the potential to sustain an intercollegiate team.

Finally, OCR determines whether there is a reasonable expectation of intercollegiate competition for a particular sport in the institution's normal competitive region. In evaluating available competition, OCR will look at available competitive opportunities in the geographic area in which the institution's athletes primarily compete. These include two concerns:

1. Competitive opportunities offered by other school against which the institution competes; and
2. Competitive opportunities offered by other schools in the institution's geographic area, including those offered by schools against which the institution does not at the present time compete.

Under the Policy Interpretation, the institution may also be required to actively encourage the development of intercollegiate competition for a sport for

members of the underrepresented sex when overall athletic opportunities within its competitive region have been historically limited for members of that sex.

Building New Traditions

This discussion, up to this point, has attempted to clarify the fact that institutions have three distinct ways to provide individuals of each sex with nondiscriminatory participation opportunities. The three-part test gives institutions flexibility and control over their athletics programs. For instance, the test allows institutions to respond to different levels of interest by its male and female students. Moreover, nothing in the three-part test requires an institution to eliminate participation opportunities for men.

At the same time, this flexibility must be used by institutions consistent with Title IX's requirement that they do not discriminate on the basis of sex. OCR recognizes that institutions face challenges in providing nondiscriminatory participation opportunities for their students, and, as such, will continue to assist institutions in finding ways to meet these challenges.

In many ways, this Chapter describes a response to the federal government's justice concerns as appropriated by the NCAA and its member institutions. It articulates in a detailed manner concerns expressed in the Building New Traditions values for Loyola University Chicago.

Such concerns for justice are also present in what has come to be known as the Knights Commission Report (hereinafter Report).[7] The Report highlighted the justice concerns of leading administrators in American higher education, not only for individual student athletes but also for the institutions within the sports "business". The Report identified concerns and presented important proposals for reform.

Inasmuch as the Report, along with Title IX, impacts on the NCAA's influence at Loyola University Chicago, it is briefly discussed here before the Building New Traditions proposal is described later in this Chapter. Along with earlier material, this will provide the data for the application of the conceptual framework to the issue presented above.

The Knight Report, issued in 1993, highlighted concerns of key American educational administrators over the influence organized intercollegiate athletics had attained on the college level. The commission issuing the report noted that athletic programs had, "...become self justifying enterprises in which winning-at-all-costs had pushed aside the educational context of athletic competition."[8] (Ironically the prophetic insight of Father Kelly's 1930 memo on this topic is startling!) To correct this injustice which had occurred primarily for male athletes, the developing influence of Title IX concerns also encompassed programs for female students.

Seven problems were identified by the Report. These are identified and initially categorized in terms of the four frames integral to the conceptual framework.

---

[7] John S. and James L. Knight. "Knight Foundation Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics," 1991.

[8] Ibid., 9.

Later in the discussion, the underlying rationale for this categorization will be presented. Each categorization is presented in turn.

Four of these problems addressed structural issues:

1. abuses in recruiting;
2. meddling by team boosters in athletic decision making;
3. the search for income sources outside academic structures—specifically the influence of the television media and the shifting place of athletics as a recreational activity to one of entertainment, and
4. the interplay among athletes from the secondary through collegiate and post-collegiate i.e. professional levels.

Two problems address human resource, symbolic, and political concerns:

1. the need to respect the dignity of the young women and men athletes who represented the university in competition, and
2. the imperative to meet the needs of minority student athletes, especially from rural or urban poverty backgrounds.

Finally, the last problem identified, reflected political, human resource, and structure concerns. It was: the obligation to further strengthen academic standards so that the scholastic profile of student athletes matched that of other full-time undergraduates in admissions, academic progress, and graduation rates.[9]

These seven issues were explicitly discussed within the context facing other institutions at the time: namely gender equity and cost containment.

---

[9]Ibid., 10.

To respond to these problems, the Report challenged their counterparts to cross the Rubicon in regard to the injustices facing American higher education. The challenge consisted in the introduction of what has come to be known as the, "three plus one." proposal. This proposal has four elements (thus, three plus one). These elements are used in a certification program conducted by outside surveyors and required of each NCAA institution every five years to qualify for intercollegiate participation. The elements are identification of institutional mission, academic integrity, fiscal integrity, and commitment to equity.

This report, with its accompanying certification program, provides the NCAA with a disciplinary instrument to impact the academic organization is record social policies in developing which address concerns of justice.

More recently, such concerns have shown themselves as well in the Building New Traditions values and proposals generated in recent years at Loyola University Chicago. A short presentation of the values indicated in it completes this part of Chapter IV's analysis of the issue under consideration. Attention is now directed to the Building New Traditions policy.

The Building New Traditions proposals[10] can be considered as a specific organization's expression, at one point in time, of enduring concerns related to the key values expressing its mission. This is evidenced in the ongoing discussions held by the American provinces of Jesuits on their continuing influence in American higher education through their own institutions e.g. Loyola University Chicago. For

---

[10]John J. Piderit, S.J. Ph.D., "Building New Traditions" (Chicago: Loyola University Chicago, 1995).

example in 1974, the Jesuits sponsored an ongoing national seminar on their role at their various colleges and universities in the United States.[11]

Among the key values articulated were those expressed in the reforms originally initiated at what has come to known as the Second Vatican Council. These values reflect the concerns Jesuits hold and institutionalize in their educational organizations, especially concerns for others in the pursuit of justice within the framework of charity. [12] These values, within the structural context of education and healthcare, find expression within the Building New Traditions proposals.

Like the Knight Report discussed above, these proposals reflect elements present in the four frames of this study's conceptual framework. While the proposals for the university are cross disciplinary in scope and interrelated in impact, attention here is restricted to their concerns for intercollegiate athletics in light of this Chapter's focus.

Within the Athletic Department's program as a sub-division of Student Affairs, the following proposals underscore one institutional goal identified in the Building New Traditions. Underscoring the goal of building strong local and national recognition, the University advanced two proposals: 1) involving structural realignment through a building program and 2) developing team strength to compete beyond the immediate five hundred mile radius of the university. As with the Knight Report's reform measures, these two proposals articulate the centrality of priorities

---

[11]Conversations #6, Fall 94, (Baltimore MD: Dept. English Loyola College).

[12]Robert F. Harvanek, S.J., The Jesuit Vision of a University (Chicago, IL: Loyola Press), 24.

discussed in the next part of this Chapter, which focuses on an issue external to the University's organization: gender equity. It is chosen for analysis, utilizing the same conceptual model introduced in Chapter II, because it represents the impact from a contextual perspective on the ways in which, organizationally, the various frames interplay with one another with regard to one topic: distributive justice as manifested in the allocation of resources, financial, personnel, physical facilities, and symbolic significance.

In the discussion which follows, the previous conceptual model analyzes this issue of gender equity as indicative of distributive justice concerns, in terms of its relationship with Title IX at Loyola University Chicago. This issue will be discussed using the previous perspective of Frames to Themes to Theories.

The analysis employs the following elements from the conceptual model discussed in Chapter II's presentation of the research design. These elements are the Structural frame for organizational design developed by Bolman and Deal, Blake and Mouton's managerial grid on leadership theories, as well as Maslow's Hierarchy theory on motivation. Finally, approaches utilizing communication techniques provide the last element for the theory dimension of this model.

The issue of gender equity in intercollegiate athletics is a focal point or critical element facing every institution of higher education today. Loyola University Chicago is no exception. If an institution sponsors an athletic program, it must provide equal athletic opportunities for members of both sexes and accommodate the athletic interests of students of both sexes.

Currently, Loyola University Chicago sponsors seven sports for men with 123 student athletes and eight for women with 98 student athletes. In terms of financial operating budgets, all sports mirror one another, except for men's basketball which is considerably larger than its counterpart, women's basketball. Men's basketball, however, does have the venue to become a productive revenue producing sport, a key ingredient for its existence and proliferation. Staff offices and locker rooms are equal to their counterpart in both size, furniture, and location. Practice clothes and game uniforms, are again comparable to each other. In terms of the three part test mandated by Title IX to meet statutory compliance for gender equity, Loyola University Chicago meets the standard.

From the perspective generated by Bolman and Deal's four frames, gender equity represents an organizational concern involving dimensions from each of the frames. These dimensions and their respective frame will be used to analyze this issue before turning to the insights the theme and theory parts of the model provide. Each of these parts, frame, theme, and theory will be applied and discussed in turn. Analysis will start with the frame part to the model.

The dimensions to the Structural frame discussed in detail in Chapter's II and III are significant in the analysis of the combined impact of Title IX's concern implemented by the NCAA, as the external channel through which the larger social policy of distributive justice is focused on gender issues within and across intercollegiate athletics. Also, these dimensions are important in understanding the parallel interest by the University's Jesuit sponsors seen in pertinent Building New Traditions proposals for these justice concerns.

Because these dimensions were discussed above in detail, they will be summarized for purposes of this discussion.

Within the Structural frame, assumptions, variables, and elements comprise critical dimensions to the frame. Among the elements are formal roles and relationships. Title IX's three parts test concerns analyzing the distribution of resources, as an aspect of justice, along with the Building New Traditions stress on developing male and female student athletes as, "...persons for others," highlights the organization's distribution of roles and relationships between and among faculty, staff, administrators, students, and community. Among the assumptions salient to the Structural frame is that asserting the function bureaucratic frameworks play in bringing about initially, or by later reform, goals for the organization. This assumption is played out on this issue by the Knight Report's introduction of its three plus one test's areas. The four areas of this test, institutional mission, commitment to equity, fiscal, and academic integrity, result in a bureaucratic framework with specific roles and relationships ,such as, "compliance officer," to reach the organization's justice goals.

Moreover the key variables discussed above, boundaries, goals, authority levels, coordinating mechanisms, and distinctive culture find expression in the Building New Traditions proposals for the integration of intercollegiate athletics within the Jesuit mission of Loyola University Chicago. The Building New Traditions positions within the sectarian perspective of the Jesuit curriculum goals give a prominent place to justice within intercollegiate athletics as a concrete expression of its religious mission.

The Structural Frame's contribution does not exhaust this analysis. As noted above it more so than the other frames is well suited for this issue. While it may be conceded that the other frames make contribute to a richer organizational analysis, such an analysis is beyond the scope of this Chapter. At the same time it may be argued that the Structural Frame merely provides the foundation necessary but not sufficient for the other frames to operate, nonetheless the Structural frame's dimensions lay the most significant parts for organizational review. Among these are those indicated by the dimensions of themes and theories in the model. Attention now is directed to those dimensions.

Among the themes drawn from the theories discussed in Chapters II and III, are those of Maslow on motivation, of Blake and Mouton on leadership, and critical aspects of communications. Each of these will be discussed in turn insofar as each applies to the issue of gender equity as seen within the context of combined expectations of Title IX, the Knight Report, and Building New Traditions.

Among the needs advanced by Maslow in regard to motivation is that socio-psychological need for self-actualization. Self-actualization requires a context in which unnecessary barriers to personal fulfillment are diminished as much as possible. This is reinforced not only by the Knight Commission's stress on leveling the fiscal and academic playing fields, but also by the Jesuit influence within the Building New Traditions on the advancement of human dignity as critical to developing women and men as persons for others.

Additionally, Blake and Mouton's two concerns arising from their theory on the theme of leadership—people and production are clearly advanced in this issue.

The Knight Report, for example, highlights the leadership which structurally carries out and produces integrity—fiscal and academic—as expression of an individual organization's academic mission's commitment to equity i.e., justice. The Building New Traditions shadows this concern in its stress on developing its sectarian goals for people as the next millennia approaches.

The infrastructure along communication lines theoretically enhances the goals of motivation and facilitates the concerns of leadership by advancing a multi-directional network. For example, the external role played by the Knight Report mandated the use of survey teams as a way of broadening and enhancing communication between the NCAA and sectarian institutions such as Loyola University Chicago. The Building New Traditions, in turn, highlights the varied highways of information exchange afforded by open communication networks.

The above model's analysis of gender equity highlights the significant insights resulting from utilization of frames, themes, and theories as they are applied to this issue. While other insights from additional frames, themes, and respective theories might be gained, the value of this limited analysis serves to encourage additional analysis along these lines.

The next Chapter concludes this dissertation. It provides a brief summary of key conclusions to be drawn from this analysis as well as the significant role this model's application serves to understand the place intercollegiate athletics hold in not only the athletic sector of university life but also as a concrete, yet symbolic, expression of this University's Jesuit and more generally Catholic educational philosophy.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is twofold: 1) to summarize briefly this research and its findings, and 2) to submit suggestions for further studies.

Summary and Findings

The research in this dissertation was an investigation of some key empirical questions relevant to the evolution of intercollegiate athletics and education at Loyola University Chicago in terms of philosophy, fiscal concerns, and social changes from 1922–1994. The empirical questions at issue in this research were:

1. What are some of the perceptions of selected individuals concerning intercollegiate athletics and education at Loyola University Chicago from 1922 to 1994?
2. How important have these perceptions been in regard to the economic and educational changes to the present and future goals of Loyola University Chicago?
3. What are some of the issues raised by the governing body of intercollegiate athletics by the National Athletic Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA)?

4. What relationships can be found at Loyola University Chicago between training, development and education of student athletes and their social, geographical and previous academic backgrounds?

Additionally an attempt is made to investigate select aspects of the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) in relation to Building New Traditions presented by the current President of Loyola University Chicago, the Reverend John J. Piderit, S.J., Ph.D.

The gathering of research data in the present study used quantitative and qualitative approaches. Using a structured interview technique, as well as participant observation, the researcher drew upon his familiarity with athletics in higher education in gathering and analyzing the data.

The structured interview schedule provided, among other items, the following views: background information as to why intercollegiate football was discontinued as well as information about the proliferation of women student athletes in intercollegiate athletics with accompanying gender equity issues. Additionally, questions were asked concerning intercollegiate athletics and education, and their focus for implementing changes in Jesuit higher education.

In addition, a six-page, structured instrument containing fifteen open ended questions was administered to a group of randomly selected students. Both males and females were represented in each of these groups. Furthermore, the participant-observation technique was utilized.

While the prior interaction offered the research familiarity with the study population, bias was avoided by random selection of a small study group.

The second part of the sample, drawn from faculty and administrators, was administered in a semi-structured interview schedule. This sample was drawn from those faculty and administrators who had, in the course of their employment with the university, been exposed to significant contact with either the design of student athletic programs or interaction with student athletic personnel within the organization. The administrators and faculty members had spent an extensive number of years at the university.

These were individuals committed to intercollegiate athletics following its progress from 1922 to 1994. Their interviews substantiated a very comprehensive background of experiences in higher education. Their ideas, statements, and concerns were recorded in writing during the interview process. An audio tape recording was also used to insure that the answers to the questions would not be over looked.

Additionally, a careful explanation was given to each respondent that the interview would be strictly confidential. The researcher employed qualitative inquiry skills and most notably participant observation techniques. This procedure was implemented to establish rapport with the participants before the actual interviews began. Each interview was completed in one two-hour session and conducted as informally as possible. At the close of the interview the researcher thanked the respondents for their cooperation.

This research design is reflective of a theoretical foundation of organizational design or frames developed by Bolman and Deal. The four approaches or frames are: structural, political, human resources, and symbolic. The organizational frames

approach is used to analyze the data obtained from the structured interview schedule and questionnaire instruments administered to the study sample. These frames were grouped, both independently and collectively. In turn, they are used to form a matrix.

The four frames are an appropriation of pertinent insights drawn from the major schools of organizational theory. Each frame is presented in turn. The next step is to analyze the similarities and differences in each particular frame as they relate to education and intercollegiate athletics at Loyola University Chicago.

Motivation, leadership, and communication themes were integrated into formal analysis, together with selected theories from each respective theme. After the data were collected, both independently and collectively from each frame, a group of three selected professional educators consensually assigned and labeled the appropriate theme or themes to each respective frame. Subsequently, the transition from Frames to Themes to Theories was designed and implemented in this research study.

Chapter I of this study was a historical overview of intercollegiate athletics in higher education. The research design and review of the literature was presented in Chapter II. Chapter III focused on the interpretation of the data from the respondents and the implementation of the model. Gender equity and Title IX and their relationship to intercollegiate athletics at Loyola University is discussed in Chapter IV. Finally, this Chapter completes the dissertation with a summary and conclusion of all reported data and recommendations for further research.

Given the above summary, it is important at this point to note the inter-relationship from an educational/historical perspective of these findings to Jesuit higher education in the United States.

To achieve these purposes, the following approach is taken. First, the organizational structure of Catholic higher education is seen from an historical perspective underlining the social context discussed in Chapter III. To accomplish this, a brief survey of significant developments in Catholic higher education as seen primarily through the focus of Jesuit sponsors is presented. This focus is a refinement of broader, international concerns advanced by the Roman Catholic community. In turn, these concerns are analogous, in the sense of social change processes. Issues in the general American context of higher education in its challenges to its integrity, as seen in the Knight Commission Report, are additionally discussed. Specifically, attention is given to shifting concerns, among these are the place and role of curriculum revisions, the inclusion of lay, often non-religious personnel within the organization's key staffing positions, as well as the distilling of the integrated vision of the organization as it deals with the wide diversity of academic interests, demography, and relationship to the larger socio-political agenda noted in Chapter III's discussion of Title IX.

The Historical Dimension to a Social Context of an Organization

Social institutions are structured to meet personal and social needs. They represent, from the perspective of William Graham Sumner, one of the founding fathers of American sociology, a continuity of thought and experience. Educational

organizations are no exception to Sumner's perspective. This means institutions build over time and they are all interrelated. This is seen most clearly in the continuity of thought and experience of not only individual educational organizations sponsored over time by sectarian groups such as Jesuit Catholic priests and brothers, but also in a broad sense by other organizations with which they interact, such as non-sectarian agencies like the National Collegiate Athletic Association.

The Roman Catholic Church over the centuries, but more recently in this century, has at various levels of organization addressed the place of higher education within its overriding goals. Among these levels are those of the papacy, individual religious congregations such as the Jesuits, and individual church sponsored educational institutions such as Loyola University Chicago. The scope of this study does not afford the opportunity to examine the influence of other sectors within the Catholic community's or other sectarian contributions to the formation of higher educational organizations. Their contribution should not be underestimated. Catholic higher education in the United States, and more specifically Jesuit sponsored higher education, started at Georgetown University Washington, D.C. Later, Jesuits from Belgium, Italy, Germany, and France established or assumed responsibilities for other institutions in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Belgian Jesuits assumed responsibility in 1828 for St. Louis University; Italian and German Jesuits were responsible for colleges in the far West in the 1850's. In the Great Lakes region, the German Jesuits expanded their efforts into a network of schools, one of which was Loyola University Chicago. Kentucky also was a staging area for Jesuit education until the French Jesuits moved North to Canada and the

American northeast. However, "... although these diverse ethnic teaching communities were separated by cultural custom and provincial organization, they shared the same central authority, Constitutions, and continental system of education."[1] What they shared was the spirit and structure of the Society of Jesus.

The Society of Jesus, founded in Europe during the sixteenth century, had come to be known by American Catholic leaders and emulated by other Catholic teaching orders for the development of their educational pedagogy expressed directly in their Ratio Studiorum (hereafter Ratio) of 1599, with its subsequent revised editions and documents and programs seen in their Constitution and the Spiritual Exercises. These documents imparted an educational tradition grounded in the vitality of the European Renaissance Reformation and Counter-Reformation. This tradition was articulated and structured in the Ratio[2] It formed Part IV of the original Constitutions for the newly founded Society of Jesus. Completed fundamentally in 1550, it nonetheless underwent changes up to and after the death of the Society's founder and first Superior General, Ignatius Loyola in 1556.

Amounting to almost half of the document comprising the entire Constitutions, the Ratio consisted of seventeen chapters. Each chapter is composed of text with several long supplemental declarations or explanations. Ten chapters relate to what

---

[1]Christa Ressneger Klein, The Jesuits and Catholics Boyhood: Ninteenth Century New York City: A Study of St. John's College and the College of St. Francis Xavier, 1846–1912 (Ann Arbor, MI: University Microfilms International, 1976).

[2]Edward A. Fitzpatrick, St. Ignatius and the Ratio Studiorum (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1933), 49.

today would be described as secondary schools. The remaining seven chapters relate to universities.

While wide latitude has been given over time to local Jesuit superiors to implement the direction of the Ratio, it remains narrow in its focus and ultimately transcendent in its purpose for education: the greater glory of God. "The one and sole aim in this and in all matters, says St. Ignatius in Part IV, is the greater glory and honor of God and greater universal good. This guides the Rector of the college (X, 10) and Rector of the university (XIV, 3). The Scholastics are reminded that is the purpose of their studies and of their devotions (VI, 1,2,3). The studies included in the curriculum (VII, 1), and professors in the university (XIII, C), are to be guided by this purpose."[3]

For the Jesuits, educational organizations were not established as ends in themselves, or to provide just for the enrichment of the society. The fundamental purpose was to serve God and Jesus Christ.[4] This perspective, so diverse from this time-worldly orientation of American education today, and specifically intercollegiate athletics, is worthy of note. Its implications will be discussed later.

The Ratio is included in the Constitutions as part of the fundamental law of the Jesuits. Detailed regulations were left for later development. When the first Ratio was formally issued in 1599 by Ignatius' successor, General Aquaviva, it was done forty-seven years after the Constitutions. While started by Ignatius, the Ratio was developed over time from the experiences of Jesuits. Influences, in Fitzpatrick's

---

[3]Ibid.

[4]Ibid.

opinion, can be seen from contemporary religious groups like the Brethren of the Common Life, and while various local revisions of the Ratio were seen, the 1599 edition was significant for the 373 Jesuit institutions existing by 1615.

While these revisions were being undertaken over the course of four decades, the significant influence of the Spiritual Exercises should not be ignored. In this core document underlying and shaping every aspect of Jesuit individual and collective experience, the special stress for the role of the teacher or retreat master is background material for the Ratio's fundamental means to attain the goal of glorifying God: the identification, adoption, and mastery of appropriate individual and social attitudes and behaviors to carry out the primary resolution to glorify God. The shaping of the human will through education to reach this resolution includes setting off and highlighting specific motivations. Some motivations would, hopefully, encourage the building up of values through education, primarily to train character.[5]

This emphasis on the development of the will found its reference in moral education. Moral education was stressed not only in the Jesuit organizations nor even limited to Catholic schools but was of concern to sectarian education in general. However, unlike Catholic institutions, schools sponsored by other religious bodies did not have the enduring centralized supervisory structures e.g., the Papacy, as the Catholics did.

The Jesuits were often noted and praised by higher church officials, like the popes, for their commitment to carrying out moral education under the aegis of

---

[5]Fitzpatrick, 40–43.

programs like the Ratio.[6] Such programs, however, did not always meet without resistance or at best indifference from local religious communities, as seen in the work of St. Elizabeth Seton who established the first "Catholic school." The stress in the United States on Catholic education concentrated on the elementary and later the secondary school levels. Despite this there was reference in the councilor documents, resulting from the American bishops' meetings in Baltimore, Maryland in 1829-1884, to the place college education would hold for the American immigrant church.[7] Despite the indifference by the local episcopacy to fund church sponsored higher education, by 1968 their were over 450 Catholic institutions of higher education.[8] Many of these were simply extensions of the educational programs advanced by congregations of women religious from the elementary level. Unlike the orientation of the Ratio, these would generally combine religious indoctrination with some course of studies decided upon by the local religious superior.

The Jesuits in contrast continued to develop and amplify the implications of Ratio. By the twentieth century, this development gave rise to the Jesuit Educational Association. It was approved by the then General, the Reverend John B. Janssens, S.J.. In his letter to the American branch, or more properly the Assistancy of Jesuits, he directed that the new Constitution of this agency represent all the Jesuit

---

[6]Pius the XII "Nosti Profecto", in Papal Teachings: Education, ed., A. Rebeschini, (Boston, MA: St. Paul Editions, 1960).

[7]Bernard J. Meiring, Education Aspect of the Legislation of the Councils of Baltimore 1829–1884 (New York: Arnold Press, 1978), 313.

[8]Charles E. Ford and Edgar L. Roy, The Renewal of Catholic Education (Washington D.C.: National Catholic Educational Association, 1968).

institutions in the United States. These included not only their secondary and seminary faculties but also their undergraduate and graduate programs along with their professional schools.

The Constitution, as well as the Instructio, was authorized several years earlier by the prior General, the Reverend Wlodimir Ledochowski, S.J., but due to War World II was not released. It affirmed the important role which the Society was to advance in the coordinating of the Ratio to particular circumstances.[9]

There were departures from the vision of the order expressed by Pope Paul II at its founding in the Papal Bull in 1540, Regimini Militantis Ecclesiae[10] but the place of the Ratio endured. The continuous stress on its animating principles maintained its influence. Among these was the integration of mind and spirit. Development and formation in philosophy, especially that of antiquity with scholastic commentary with the accompanying language tools of the classics, would lay the foundation for the total person to understand, interpret and analyze fundamental topics e.g., truth seeking, reality, ethics and aesthetics. While no special mention is made of athletic development, nonetheless it would eventually be seen as language study was, as a means necessary to achieve other core goals—e.g., mens sana in corpore sano—but not as entertainment or a revenue generator.

---

[9]W. Ledochowski, S.J., Letter to the Fathers and Scholastics of the American Assistancy Announcing the New Instructions on Study and Teaching Art 8 (New York: Jesuit Education Association, 1948), 14

[10]A.P. Farrell, S.J., P.h.D, The Jesuit Code of Liberal Education (Milwaukee, Wisconsin: Bruce Publishing Co., 1938), 15.

Other principles compatible with the sketches provided of Jesuits, like Father Loftus (cf Chapter III), stress personal interest (i.e. leadership) in and effective communication with the students to motivate and encourage them to achieve with distinction in both learning and virtue (i.e. ethics). Like the insights noted above in the stress on themes such as motivation, leadership, and communication, the emphasis here on those themes evidences the Jesuits desire to integrate these key organizational elements throughout their institutions and programs.[11]

Until the late 1960's, the primary personnel expected to carry these principles out were Jesuits. Apart from individual programs, for example athletics, more readily staffed by lay people like John "Hicks" Connelly, George Ireland, and Jerry Lyne (Cf Chapter III), the general programs were staffed by the many available Jesuits priests and brothers. Even when there were available openings, if a non-Jesuit was to be hired, it would have been a male Roman Catholic. Thus only 21% of professors in the liberal arts divisions of six Jesuit colleges and universities in the Midwest, among them Loyola University Chicago/St. Ignatius College, in 1914, were lay Catholics. Among all Jesuit universities, this peaked at 31.1% in 1948, then in the period which followed until 1972, it fell to 13.3%. The number of non-Catholic lay faculty was much lower. For example in 1940, among 1156 liberal faculty members in 22 Jesuit institutions, only 7% (i.e. 80) were non-Catholics. By 1953 this had increased to 15%[12]

---

[11]Farrell, 404.

[12]William P. Leahy, S.J., Adapting to America (Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Press. 1991), 96–102.

Over the next thirty years major shifts in American society, illustrated by the issues discussed in Chapter IV, brought about radical changes in the human resource make-up on Jesuit campuses. For example, the influence of the reforms within the Society of Jesus, coupled with those of the Second Vatican Council of the Catholic Church, quickly made memories of past policies such as the rejection of the role of lay teachers, and brought to fore other such as academic freedom, and faculty rights.

As broader social forces impacted on issues, such as justice in gender equity, the broadening diversification of academic life, the governmental requirements tagged to tax monies for higher education, the diminishing number of available Catholic priests, let alone Jesuit clergy, paralleled the movement to assert the value of the secularized diversity in academic institutions while revising other values such as the advancement of religion through education.[13]

As a result of the impact of these social forces, the statistics on clerical/lay ratios have dramatically changed. For example, Loyola personnel are not tied to involvement with the Roman Catholic Church, let alone the Society of Jesus, with the exception of the President, some Trustees, and those priests needed to celebrate the sacraments of the Catholic church. Thus the implication of the maintenance of the organization's mission in continuity with the historical policies like the Ratio present distinct institutional challenges to the likelihood of Jesuits maintaining a continuous and dominant influence in all aspects of academic

---

[13]Leahy, 98–114.

governance.[14] This situation is dramatically highlighted when one considers the relatively few Jesuits under fifty years of age available for service on campus, in some capacity, to serve Loyola University Chicago in the next decade.

From the perspective of the analysis, a shift of emphasis will take place. It is hypothesized that the emphasis will shift from a structural arrangement advancing Jesuit personnel to non-Jesuit personnel to carry out its policies, through key institutional positions, within the Human Resource Frame advancing the dimensions of the Symbolic Frame with its themes-theories of leadership, motivation, and communication. While it may be argued that this is more properly seen as a Political Frame, especially as denoted in documents such as the Building New Traditions proposals, it is best expressed in the administrative imagination of current Jesuit executive personnel. The active development, enhancement, and expression of such an imagination, consistent with the ideas expressed in the Ratio, affirms a specific vision of the future. Such expressions can range from the organizational level with colorful inauguration ceremonies highlighting key roles or collective activities such as service programs, to the construction of new athletic facilities or encouragement of intercollegiate competition on a national level.

An imaginative use of the frames described here may facilitate present and future organizational analysis and management, especially in sectarian institutions. Moreover, Frame Analysis recognizes the unique challenges faced within the sectarian context. Such as attaining an organization's—like Loyola University

---

[14]John Paul II, Apostolic Constitution Ex Corde Ecclesiae of the Supreme Pontiff on Catholic Universities (Washington, D.C.: United States Catholic

Chicago-most fundamental goals, glorifying God through knowledge in service to others.

Furthermore, the utilization of such frames can continue to assist sectarian sponsored educational institutions that meet the on-going challenges of the last twenty years of this century, the assimilation, acculturation, identity, and the impact of technology, as well as prepare for those of the millennium a few years away.[15]

If this task is achieved, the legacy of the Ratio and Constitutions of the Jesuits will continue to stress the ethical and religious principles which give full meaning to human life, as expressed in programs which promote social justice like Title IX and Building New Traditions reinforcing the best values which the broader culture affirms.[16]

Summary

This study has presented an organizational analysis of the role of intercollegiate athletics in American higher education as experienced at a large urban, sectarian sponsored university, utilizing a conceptual framework, developed from an integration and synthesis of leading research in the field of organizational development. Utilizing qualitative and quantitative research techniques, coupled with archival data, structured survey instruments, and structured interviews, this study's conclusions are as follows:

Conference, 1990), #22 and #23.

[15]John J. Piderit, S.J., Ph.D, "Building New Traditions" (Chicago: Loyola University Chicago, 1995).

[16]John Paul II #33,34.

1. An organization's activities do not take place in a social vacuum. The archival data indicated this. The interview responses supported it. Organizational policies and positions as seen in the archival data reflect a continuous commitment to the importance of a popular yet academically peripheral enterprise, like intercollegiate athletics by way of the articulated mission of the organization.
2. The organization's response to external social movements, as seen in the gender equity dimension to larger national public policy debates on civil rights, utilizes the processes of appropriation, modification, and adoption on the local organizational level. These processes initiated by the Jesuits themselves are involved in formulating policy positions in accord with larger societal changes but grounded in a distinctive, religious and philosophical perspective.
3. The organizational reality reflected in the responses of the various members in the sample group indicates the interplay across, among, and within the different elements. Thus, the structural or political frame may be dominant in a particular policy or phase of an organization, but it does not exhaust the interpretative frameworks used by the organization's participants.
4. Some activities in an organization, such as intercollegiate athletics, may vary in their symbolic significance over time but yet may remain constant in their contribution to the mission of the institution. Sports such as football or for that matter basketball have had varied histories of significance at Loyola University Chicago. However, the presence of some sport activities has remained constant, as seen in the stable yet evolving roles of staff-program complexity of the Athletic department.

5. The constancy of the organization has not, however, remained immune to forces external to the organization, such as gender equity issues.

Implications for Further Research

There are a number of empirical inquiries that would help clarify issues resulting from this exploratory study. These inquiries would throw light on the various aspects of the questions advanced at different points in the dissertation. Moreover, such inquiries would allow for more decisive interpretation of the relationships among the different themes. Suggestions for further research would include the following.

1. A project utilizing the conceptual model developed in this study, but with a broader sampling base reflecting the possibility of increased generalization.
2. Further analysis of archival and statistical data should be undertaken. This could amplify the contributions made by the qualitative data techniques.
3. A systematic study which would analyze the interactive dimensions of non-academic student activities, such as intercollegiate sports, with more conventional academic indicators.

Closing Remarks

This exploratory and descriptive case study, though limited, represents a somewhat crucial encounter because students, faculty, and staff are involved together as a community within a single organization. The respondents in the study group have contributed essential data towards an understanding of the evolution of American intercollegiate athletics.

Additionally, from an operational point of view, this study of intercollegiate athletics highlights the types of skills and sensitivity needed to address the elaborate and complicated changes stipulated by the National Collegiate Athletic Association.

As shown in the team roster of the 1963 NCAA Basketball championship team of Loyola University Chicago, many of the present and future athletes will probably occupy important positions as future administrators and teachers within the United States, as well as contribute to other social roles and organizations in other countries. Whatever their tasks may be in the future, whether in terms of their work as educators, researchers, or other professionals or even in their roles as ordinary citizens, this research reflects the hope that the present and future athletes will utilize their opportunities now to eventually care for others.

On the larger canvas of the development of American higher education, the struggles, successes and set-backs of the area of physical education and the birth and growth of intercollegiate athletics have been noted. The unique evolution of these parts of the curricula and extracurricular in Jesuit contexts continues, in such areas as gender equity and minority involvement.

Intercollegiate athletics, therefore, becomes not just an episodic moment carrying a student athlete through the college years, it becomes a more meaningful enterprise because it is part of the best traditions of the liberal arts and humanities. Intercollegiate athletics practiced under the conditions described within this study permits the student to view and appropriate education as a dimension to his own personal philosophy as developed within the Jesuit tradition, to make a living and make a life: the education of the whole person. Here the Jesuit context can never be

lost sight of, namely, the "magis," going the extra mile, the inestimable worth and dignity of the human person, in his and her physical, intellectual, moral, social and spiritual growth, with the whole enterprise having as its perennial goal—Ad Majorem Dei Gloriam.

APPENDIX A

BUILDING NEW TRADITIONS:

THE STRATEGIC PLAN FOR THE LAKESIDE CAMPUSES—

LOYOLA UNIVERSITY CHICAGO

1995–2000

TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

THE STRATEGIC PLANNING PROCESS

Why Plan?
The Process
The Financial Dimension
A Context for the Plan
The Challenge

STRATEGIES

PRIORITIES

Defining Timing and Units
Making Priorities More Precise
1. Emphasize Undergraduate Education
2. Develop Loyola's Jesuit and Catholic Heritage
3. Strengthen Graduate Education and Research
4. Attend to the Human, Financial, and Physical Infrastructure
5. Experiment with New Forms of Learning

EVOLUTION AND ASSESSMENT

The Next Steps

APPENDIX

1. Mission Statement of Loyola University Chicago
2. Strategic Planning Process Timetable

INTRODUCTION

> "Loyola University Chicago is a Jesuit Catholic university dedicated to knowledge in the service of humanity. It is a comprehensive, independent, urban institution of higher education and health care. The University endeavors to develop in the lives of its students, faculty and staff the spirit of searching for truth and living for others, which characterized Ignatius of Loyola."

These are the words which begin the mission statement of Loyola University Chicago. They are the context under which many past administrators, faculty, staff and students have been guided in their decision-making and strategy for Loyola University Chicago. And, while the Loyola of today is considerably larger and more complex than it was in 1870, the Jesuit ideals of commitment and respect for others live on in our work today *ad majorem Dei gloriam*. This singular tradition embraces the uniqueness of Jesuit education and Loyola University Chicago. So, it is especially appropriate that our planning for the next five years be anchored in this commitment to the tradition of our founders.

A tradition has been defined as "cultural continuity in social attitudes and institutions." As we approach our 125th anniversary year, Loyola University Chicago has enjoyed many fine traditions. Some have been with us since the day St. Ignatius College, under the direction of Father Arnold Damen, S.J., opened its doors on September 5, 1870. Others have been started by countless Loyolans and friends who have brought us to where we are today. However old they are, these traditions become part of our institutional culture because they are in harmony with our mission--they embrace our Jesuit and Catholic heritage in new and appropriate ways for an institution to participate in a changing world.

This need for continuity of culture at Loyola University, coupled with the ever-changing world in which we live, makes planning for our future an important part of our work. Adjusting to competitive market forces in higher education and health care can only be achieved after careful thought, productive collaboration and diligent planning.

I am confident that this planning document will ensure that Loyola University Chicago continues to build on its past strengths while identifying new and innovative ways to do some things better. And, while we look to our traditions for the continuity of culture that is so integral to our beloved university,

this document will help us look forward toward even greater achievements, as we begin "Building New Traditions."

THE STRATEGIC PLANNING PROCESS

Why Plan?

This Strategic Plan responds to a request from our Board of Trustees. Shortly after my arrival, the Trustees requested a plan of new initiatives for the next five years. They do not want to be surprised by capital or programmatic requests that appear unrelated to previous planning. More importantly, they want to ensure that the University has a financially viable plan to achieve its goals during the next five years. This is a reasonable request from the Board.

Most major universities have gone or are going through a strategic planning process and institutional restructuring. So, Loyola is not on this course alone. In looking at other plans, I have noted some similarities and also many differences that I believe will make our strategic plan strong, attainable and beneficial to Loyola. I note this because I am very much aware that we live and thrive in a competitive environment.

The Process

Since becoming Loyola University Chicago's 22nd president on August 16, 1993, I have worked hard to immerse myself in the people, programs and plans of this complex institution. Dialogue with Loyolans throughout this university has been most helpful to me during my first year as president.

One thing that I quickly realized after coming to Loyola is that the University is blessed with many hard-working administrators, committed faculty, dedicated staff, professional and caring doctors and nurses and enthusiastic and energetic students who possess a genuine zest for acquiring knowledge and contributing to make this a better world. For these Loyolans, I am grateful. They are a testimony to the integrity of our university and the expertise of our past administrators. The acquisition of Mundelein College and Mallinckrodt College of the North Shore in 1991 brought Loyola the rich traditions of the Sisters of the Blessed Virgin Mary and the Sisters of Christian Charity with a historical commitment to education, particularly of women.

Priorities within this plan will be more easily realized with cooperation among our increasingly diverse faculty, staff and administration. Additionally, as this plan is implemented, the University will make a special effort to provide

training and skills development opportunities for employees to meet the needs of a changing workplace.

Perhaps the biggest task I faced in my first year as president was to begin the process of planning for our future. Realizing that any successful plan must be embraced by a majority of Loyolans, involving as many people as possible from our diverse group of administration, faculty, staff and students has been challenging. Complicating this was the reality that Loyola University is integrally involved in two distinct missions: higher education and health care.

I was gratified, therefore, to learn that our Medical Center Campus was putting the final touches on its strategic plan shortly after my arrival. This business plan, and the expert leadership of our Medical Center administrative team, will strengthen our medical center operations, including our School of Medicine. In a time of significant change in health care delivery systems and increasing emphasis on primary care, the Medical Center plan will impact the Lakeside campuses of Loyola University Chicago.

Therefore, this document specifically addresses the higher education side of our university. Geographically, it is a plan for our Lakeside campuses--Water Tower, Lake Shore and Mallinckrodt, and the Rome Center. Additionally, this plan includes those graduate programs housed at the Medical Center Campus. While I believe that most effective planning must be done at the level below that of president, I think productive leadership by the president involves both setting a general direction and identifying specific benchmarks for the future. Before my arrival, the vice presidents and other administrators had identified, with considerable unanimity, a number of areas in which action was required. And, in my conversations with Loyolans during the past year and one-half, I have learned that there is significant agreement about a general priority of projects.

Another part of my preparation for this planning process included a review of the 1987 Plan for the Lake Shore and Water Tower Campuses, its revisions in 1989, the addendum in 1990, and the University-wide document "Planning at Loyola: 1992-1995." Additionally, I have studied the four documents that address graduate and professional education and research--the ad hoc Doctoral Committee, University Research Committee, Faculty Council Committee and CUWACS. I was particularly impressed with the accuracy and quality of some of these plans and how effectively University administration has implemented its various components. And, I am especially pleased with the strength and clarity of our university's mission statement (attached as Appendix A). I support it wholeheartedly; it enunciates many important themes that have been woven, in a very practical way, into this strategic plan.

With this foundational knowledge, I began to set the agenda for the

development of a five-year strategic plan for the Lakeside campuses. The initial timetable has been adjusted somewhat since this process began. (See Appendix B.)

This Strategic Plan has been extensively rewritten, both to reflect the points that were made during the process and to clarify many of the broad objectives. As a result, I can confidently assert that the projects and programs identified in this plan represent the best collaborative thinking of a wide cross-section of Loyolans at the Lakeside campuses. Additionally, any good plan must be regularly and systematically assessed. I intend to continue to engage the appropriate administrators, faculty, staff and students on an annual basis to review the progress of this plan so that evaluation of our strategies becomes an ongoing process at Loyola that closely integrates our physical and programmatic growth with an effective and realistic financial framework.

The Financial Dimension

As you know, our Board of Trustees continues to work toward separate incorporation of our health care operations. This restructuring will better enable our Medical Center to react to future opportunities and build alliances and programs that will ensure our leadership position in the Chicagoland health care marketplace. While being separately incorporated, the Medical Center will remain an integral part of Loyola University Chicago. Many factors, including the changing health care environment, will translate into less revenue for the Medical Center and, subsequently, less for the Lakeside campuses.

This reality necessitates a strong financial component to the strategic plan of the Lakeside Campuses. For this reason, one of our tasks must be to restore financial equilibrium to the Lakeside campuses of Loyola so that our operating results are positive. Only when our operating results achieve this goal will we be able to undertake the capital projects in this plan that are important for Loyola's future growth and development. While I will expend great effort to improve the amount of funds available to the University, we must be aware that our resources are not unlimited.

A portion of this plan calls for more independence and discretion within individual units of the Lakeside campuses regarding their financial state. Some restructuring, with consideration of technological change and market demands, will be necessary in all areas. Traditional revenue-generating units (those units who run an operating surplus) will be expected to maintain or enhance their revenues. Shared service areas--those that are integral to our academic, spiritual and social life--will be expected to review their operations and identify the most cost-effective way to provide their services to the University community.

Decisions to support new programmatic opportunities will not be driven solely by their ability to generate an operating surplus.

Since individual units will have more discretion in the future over generating revenue and controlling costs, they will have greater latitude in determining programmatic development for their own units, as long as those plans are consistent with the goals articulated in this document. And, while the University will continue to support and strengthen a centralized development effort, individual units will be more integrally involved in opportunities to enhance revenue sources for their particular areas.

A Context for the Plan

The individual priorities that constitute the core of the Strategic Plan are not intended to cover everything that is important about Loyola or even all those activities that are essential to its mission. Rather, the plan singles out projects that are strategic. To be included in the plan, a project must be significant in two ways. First, the project must be important because it enables Loyola to achieve its overall mission in an enhanced or more effective manner. Second, the project signals a change from what the University has done during the past several years. Usually, this means that the University intends to commit more resources, better thinking, or more energy to the indicated project.

The two criteria of being strategically essential and requiring more resources (financial or psychological) are necessary but not sufficient for determining whether a particular project is included in the plan. That is, one can think of other projects that are important to fulfilling the mission of the University but are not included in the plan. The plan selects from a variety of possible projects and focuses the attention and resources of the University on the designated projects or priorities.

A consequence of using these two criteria is that some very important activities of the University are not mentioned in the plan. For example, the University has traditionally maintained good relationships with its neighbors in Rogers Park, Edgewater, the Michigan Avenue Association, Maywood, and Wilmette. We plan to maintain such relationships, but because we do not intend to increase, markedly, the resources allocated to this project, it is not mentioned in the plan. Similarly, the University has always considered faculty, staff, and administrators as the essential assets in achieving its mission. The University remains committed to these groups by providing good salaries, benefits, and opportunities for personal development, even though this does not appear in the plan.

One of the prominent goals of the plan is to emphasize more the Jesuit, Catholic character of Loyola. This goal is vitally linked to the mission of the University. However, it is important to understand the context in which increased attention and programs are planned. A significant part of the Jesuit, Catholic tradition is an emphasis on ethical values and respect for people with religious heritages other than that of Catholic. Emphasizing the Jesuit, Catholic tradition means that people of all faiths are and will continue to be welcome at Loyola. Furthermore, when the Catholic tradition is mentioned in the goals and priorities of the Strategic Plan, it should be understood in the broad sense, inclusive of many sub-traditions. Some may understand Catholic tradition in a narrow, conservative sense, others in a liberal, eclectic sense. Both are sub-traditions, among many others, under the larger umbrella of the Catholic tradition. The plan is not attempting to impose one version or the other.

Loyola University has been actively involved in sharing the Jesuit, Catholic tradition with its students for one hundred and twenty-five years. At this time in our history, Loyola students come to the University with less knowledge and appreciation of that tradition. For this reason, the plan asks units to increase their efforts to expose students to components of the Jesuit, Catholic tradition. The general goal should be that students are well informed about the tradition by the time they graduate from Loyola.

The plan intends to be as specific as possible. Too many strategic plans are formulated at such a level of generality that, at the end of five years, one can as easily claim that the main goals have been achieved as one can complain that very little of the plan has been fulfilled. But, by being specific, one runs the risk of seeing the trees of individual priorities and missing the beautiful Loyola forest. The unifying factor of the plan that weaves through and colors many individual priorities is that Loyola can provide an even more effective education for contemporary undergraduate students. The University can marshall its resources in a more effective manner that enables students to become competent to compete in an international society. With increased competency comes greater confidence and a flowering of each individual undergraduate as he or she moves through the Loyola plan of education. The "Loyola plan"--our core curriculum--is currently being articulated by the faculty. Combined with the thrust of the Loyola Freshman Experience outlined in the Strategic Plan, our core curriculum will generate, in students willing to undergo the rigors of the Loyola experience, the academic, social, ethical, physical, and spiritual training that will enable them to succeed in a wide variety of endeavors throughout their lives.

The Challenge

This document articulates specific priorities that are specific steps toward realizing overall strategies. Some of these priorities are reasonable, in the sense that they can be achieved with careful nurturing of our resources--personal, financial, physical, and social--during the next five years. Other goals will require ingenuity and hard work to reach. I have attempted to strike a balance between "reasonable" and "stretch" priorities.

The challenge for Loyola in this planning process has been to identify the key priorities of the plan that will enable us not merely to maintain our current position, but to make a decisive move forward, so that we will compete head-to-head with other major research universities, both locally and nationally. In order for this to happen, we need a plan that is realistic and challenging, but also one that takes some chances and excites present and future Loyolans.

I am confident that we have achieved this in "Building New Traditions." That it is the result of over eighteen months of dialogue and feedback makes this a truly collaborative document. With your continued support, guidance and commitment to Loyola University Chicago, we will be a stronger institution as this plan becomes reality.

STRATEGIES

In order to warrant the name "strategic," the plan should incorporate an explicit strategy for achieving many specific goals and priorities to which individual units are committed. The strategies listed below are those that have emerged during campus wide discussion of various drafts of the strategic plan. As is to be expected in the formulation of a strategic plan at an academic institution, broad agreement exists along with uneasiness about particular priorities. Lack of complete consensus is the healthy outcome of the struggle by the gifted Loyola community to identify its opportunities and pathways to substantial growth.

In my own explanations of the plan at public meetings and through interaction with faculty and staff, I have seen more clearly the implicit strategies that were dormant in earlier versions of the plan. In the final version of the plan, I have identified five strategies that are the guiding lights behind the specific priorities of the plan. These strategies should also be the guideposts for future development of the plan as realities and opportunities change during the next few years.

1. **Emphasize Undergraduate Education** by offering a structured learning environment in which students can see the academic progress they make each year and are

inserted into the academic, cultural, religious, and social life of Chicago.

2. **Develop Loyola's Jesuit and Catholic heritage** in practical ways in each unit of the University so that any person who is primarily active in that unit can easily become acquainted with the Jesuit and Catholic tradition. The practical approaches to introducing Loyolans to the Jesuit and Catholic tradition should be developed in a way that is consistent with academic freedom.

3. **Strengthen Graduate Education and Research** at both the master's and doctoral level by making graduate assistantships more attractive and numerous. Improve Loyola's doctoral programs by linking graduate assistantships to the number of doctoral degrees granted, and continue to develop a broad array of support services, for example, library and computer services.

4. **Attend to the Human, Financial, and Physical Infrastructure** by developing buildings and procedures that respond to student and faculty expectations.

5. **Experiment with New Forms of Learning** and adjust quickly to market demands so as to achieve greater national prominence for Loyola University Chicago.

PRIORITIES

Beginning on the following page is a list of specific University priorities that relate to five overall strategies. Although the priorities are numbered, the sequence does not indicate any hierarchical structure. Which priorities can be implemented will depend in a significant way on the University's ability to achieve its financial goals. Even when our financial targets are achieved, decisions will have to be made concerning which priorities to emphasize first. This process has already begun, and selection of individual priorities for realization within a given time frame will be the result of various ongoing discussions--involving faculty, staff, students, and administration--concerning the integrity and coherence of the plan.

Defining Timing and Units

Most priorities reference an academic or fiscal year. An academic year begins on the first day of the fall semester of the previous year, e.g., academic year 1997 begins in August of 1996.

Those priorities that are referenced to a fiscal year begin on July 1 of the previous year, e.g., FY 1997 begins on July 1, 1996.

The term "unit" denotes a distinct division within the Lakeside campus organizational structure, e.g. a school, a department, a shared service area, etc.

Making Priorities More Precise

Any possible strategic plan for Loyola University Chicago remains an unfinished document for two reasons. First, the academic, cultural, and business world in which Loyola exists is constantly changing. Any plan has to be written with certain expectations about the way in which the world is expected to unfold. As reality demonstrates its unwillingness to fulfill the expectations of the planners, the plan has to be modified or amplified. The second reason a plan is always unfinished is that the plan becomes more particular as individual parts of it are implemented. The more successful the implementation, the more specific the next stage of development.

The lack of specificity for certain priorities in the planning document is to be expected during the initial stages of implementation. While some priorities will be made more specific, it is likely that some individual priorities of the plan will not be realized. If it were possible to predict which objectives would not be achieved, they would not be included in the plan. The challenge of implementation is to identify objectives that are more important than others, either because they must be realized before others can be or because they are more central to the aspirations of the University. Organizing, prioritizing, and sequencing the various priorities will occur as the plan is implemented. And whether all individual priorities can be achieved will depend in large measure on our ability to reach our financial goals.

1. **Emphasize Undergraduate Education**by offering a structured learning environment in which students can see the academic progress they make each year and are inserted into the academic, cultural, religious, and social life of Chicago.

Undergraduate education at Loyola will be anchored by the Loyola Freshman Experience. The program underscores the fact that undergraduate education is a high priority for the university and will help to structure the educational process at Loyola. Primary

in its objectives will be an enhanced intellectual interaction among students and faculty members.

Priorities:

1.1 Create an enhanced academic support system committed to academic retention by helping students select appropriate academic programs and providing them with the academic skills necessary to be successful in those choices.

1.2 As one component of an academic support system, develop an effective and focused advising system that provides students, especially freshmen and sophomores, with thoughtful recommendations concerning their academic choices at Loyola.

1.3 Freshmen and sophomores who do not live with their family are expected to live on campus in designated freshman and sophomore residence halls by academic year 1998.

1.4 By academic year 1998, build enrollment at the Rome Center Campus to 210 by aggressively recruiting at U.S. colleges and universities. Work to identify appropriate sources for financial aid.

1.5 To enhance the undergraduate experience, continue to support and expand intramural sports opportunities for students.

1.6 Build and implement a cohesive Loyola Freshman Experience by academic year 1996. Such an experience should emphasize structured interaction among students in their academic, social, recreational, cultural and spiritual life at Loyola. Constantly develop the Loyola Freshman Experience so that by academic year 1999 it becomes a recognized U.S. benchmark for the way to raise expectations and achievement during freshman year. The most important component of the Loyola Freshman Experience is that all freshman students interact regularly outside the classroom, at least twice a week, with each other, faculty members, administrators and staff in a way that promotes intellectual exchange.

1.7 Structure the educational process at Loyola so there are deliberate steps of integration and increased responsibility of students into the University, their school, their department, as they move freshmen to sophomore, junior and senior year.

1.8 Develop a Senior Year Experience that could include capstone courses, research internships, workshops, transitional courses and career

preparation seminars by academic year 1998. Link the experience with the Career Center for focused interaction with the marketplace.

1.9 Build a centralized cross-disciplinary internship program by academic year 1997 that is available to all students and that takes greater advantage of the cultural and business resources of the City of Chicago. Closely linked with the Career Center, this program should develop and promote a comprehensive plan to identify career development opportunities.

> An aggressive recruitment effort on the local, national and international level, will help to ensure the quality and diversity of our student body. Through this effort, we hope to increase the academic qualifications of students, attract students of sufficient diversity, and boost our graduation rates.

Priorities

1.10 In order to make Loyola more financially accessible to all students, financial aid amounts should be driven by market demands and relative to undergraduate tuition revenues, but should not exceed 25% of tuition revenues by the end of this 5-year period.

1.11 As a recruiting device, heighten the visibility of intercollegiate sports, both men's and women's, to positively impact national recruiting. By academic year 1999, in all Division I sports, award at least 80% of the total number of scholarships allowed by NCAA regulations.

1.12 Implement a comprehensive enrollment management plan that results in approximately 40% of the freshman class coming from outside Illinois or Indiana by academic year 1998.

1.13 Through academic year 1999, increase the total number of new African-American full-time undergraduate students by .5% per year; Hispanic undergraduate students should increase by 1% per year. The presence of our international students should continue to be enhanced and Loyola should continue to provide a welcoming environment to Asian students.

1.14 By academic year 1999, increase the freshman class to 1,500 students while improving the academic profile of the freshmen class to an ACT score of 26.

1.15 Develop and implement a centralized effort that will result in a freshman

to sophomore retention rate of 92% by 1999.

1.16 To remain competitive with other Jesuit institutions, award 20 full, 4-year merit scholarships--room and board--to entering freshmen by academic year 1998.

1.17 By academic year 1998, increase the number of FTE's of Mundelein College to 1,500. Following the BVM tradition, implement innovative programmatic opportunities for the adult student with special attention to the education of women.

1.18 Plan and develop a strategy to regularly interface with the network of Jesuit institutions around the world as a way to increase the percentage of international students at Loyola.

> The enhancement of the undergraduate experience will be directly related to the building of appropriate programs and services at the various Lakeside campuses. Once the appropriate programs for a particular campus are identified, the linking of those programmatic initiatives will be important for their success. Additionally, initiatives should address the integration of the typical undergraduate student, in such a way that, during the course of their four or more years at Loyola, students will experience the major assets of the university's multiple campuses and the City of Chicago. Undergraduates should be afforded reasonable ways to take better advantage of the opportunities in the City of Chicago.

Priorities:

1.19 Develop and provide appropriate transportation for students, faculty and staff among the campuses.

1.20 Enhance the identity of the Water Tower Campus as home campus for the School of Business, School of Social Work, School of Law and at least three significant majors within the College of Arts and Sciences, whose bulk of undergraduate course work among majors in their Junior and Senior year are conducive to the intense urban landscape of the campus.*

1.21 Heighten the identity of the Lake Shore Campus as the home campus for

a majority of the College of Arts and Sciences and the School of Nursing.*

1.22 Strengthen the identity of the Mallinckrodt Campus as the home campus for the School of Education.*

1.23 Continue to enhance the presence of Mundelein College and the Graduate School at those campuses where appropriate programmatic efforts exist.

1.24 Working closely with the appropriate deans, identify possible programmatic and campus linkage opportunities between the School of Medicine and the School of Nursing.

1.25 Encourage the development of appropriate elective courses and program opportunities at the Medical Center Campus for Junior and Senior undergraduate students in the biological sciences to expose these students to the health care component of Loyola University.

1.26 Build academic and programmatic opportunities at the Lakeside Campuses that take advantage of the cultural, social and civic opportunities of the City of Chicago.

* *Changing student needs, market conditions and new programmatic opportunities may necessitate the location of specific units at a campus other than the "home" campuses identified above.*

2. **Develop Loyola's Jesuit and Catholic heritage** in practical ways in each unit of the University so that any person who is primarily active in that unit can easily become acquainted with the Jesuit and Catholic tradition. The practical approaches to introducing Loyolans to the Jesuit and Catholic tradition should be developed in a way that is consistent with academic freedom.

> The integration of our Jesuit-Catholic traditions into teaching, health care, service, and research will engage students and employees in activities that are--themselves--reflections of the values that the university supports.

Priorities:

2.1 By academic year 1997, each unit should promote Loyola's Jesuit-Catholic tradition in an appropriate manner. Reflections of this tradition in

the ambiance of university space, displays, or artifacts should be integrated into all academic and program units.

2.2 By academic year 1996, new Loyola students, faculty, and staff will be introduced in a suitable way, corresponding to their different roles, to the Jesuit-Catholic tradition.

2.3 Through the Jesuit Heritage Seminars and other new initiatives, the University will continue to seek ways to identify and discuss our Jesuit-Catholic character among students, faculty, staff, administration and alumni.

2.4 With recognition and respect for other religious beliefs, the University will provide students and faculty with reasonable, practical ways to advance the Jesuit-Catholic tradition.

2.5 Stress the importance of social values by asking students and employees to respect particular practices such as rules for ethical conduct, diverse religious customs, and promoting interactions among students, faculty and staff in informal academic and social settings.

2.6 Academic units should support and promote a programmatic opportunity that enhances the Jesuit-Catholic tradition of Loyola University by the beginning of academic year 1997. While a particular course may be one example of this, an annual seminar, lecture, symposium, or research project might also contribute to this priority. Such opportunities already exist in some departments, but they can be expanded and given greater visibility.

2.7 Articulate and promote the numerous ways in which our Jesuit-Catholic character is expressed through our programs in service to the community, work of ministry, spirituality, care for students and staff, and opportunities and support for various religious traditions.

2.8 Establish an inter-disciplinary center for research and graduate studies to explore the impact of contemporary culture on our understanding of Loyola's religious heritage.

2.9 Establish a center for dialogue among religions. This dialogue would be hosted by the Catholic tradition, but would embrace a variety of religious traditions. The center would explore common social problems from a religious perspective.

3. **Strengthen Graduate Education and Research** at both the masters and doctoral level by making graduate assistantships more attractive

and numerous. Improve Loyola's doctoral programs by linking graduate assistantships to the number of doctoral degrees granted, and continue to develop a broad array of support services, for example, library and computer services.

> A strong array of graduate and professional programs will assist in supporting initiatives to make graduate stipends more competitive, emphasize a linkage between undergraduate and graduate programs, and help to boost the amount of externally funded research.

Priorities:

3.1 Student stipends will increase gradually so that by FY 1998, stipends are at least 5% above those of competing institutions. In the Graduate School, the number of student stipends awarded per year should be approximately equal to the number of Ph.D.'s granted per year.

3.2 In order to maintain their viability, Ph.D. programs must graduate a minimum of three students per year by academic year 2002. The University must provide corresponding support in graduate fellowships to make this feasible.

3.3 Encourage partnerships between our undergraduate and graduate schools and divisions by reserving a limited number of spaces in graduate and professional programs for qualified Loyola undergraduates.

3.4 Where appropriate, encourage proficient undergraduate students to take graduate courses for undergraduate credit.

3.5 The total amount for externally-funded research for the graduate and professional schools should increase by 15% per year beginning in FY 1996. Those academic departments without graduate programs are expected to increase externally funded research by 10% annually. Growth rates for individual departments will differ depending on available funding sources and departmental research commitments.

3.6 Support linkage opportunities between undergraduate research opportunities and faculty research projects to underscore the research component of the University.

3.7 By academic year 1997, encourage academic departments to seek an appropriate balance and identify the parameters of undergraduate faculty workload based on undergraduate teaching, graduate teaching, research, publication and service. In so doing, contribute to the development of a university culture that emphasizes excellence in many tasks--tasks seen as intersecting circles rather than mutually exclusive and competing boxes.

3.8 Identify and implement appropriate graduate and professional program opportunities at the Rome Center Campus that will be attractive to students and enhance the international dimension of the academic program.

3.9 By FY 1998, secure a five million dollar endowment for Ph.D. stipends and another five million dollar endowment for research funding.

3.10 By FY 1998, increase the support for grant writing and application by hiring at least two additional persons in research services.

3.11 By academic year 1996, the University will support 2 to 3 major academic symposia or conferences each year that will advance research, scholarship and dialogue on issues and challenges facing our world.

3.12 In an effort to build on the Jesuit history as the "schoolmasters of Europe," establish two professorial teaching chairs by academic year 1998, whose chairholders will be selected on the basis of their outstanding classroom skills and methods.

3.13 Facilitate the sharing of faculty so that it is administratively easy to have a faculty member in one Loyola school or college teach a course (in which he or she is qualified) in another Loyola school or college.

3.14 By FY 1997, provide annual increases of 4% above inflation to the library budget. The library is the core of an academic institution, and it reflects the institution's commitment to learning and research, especially at the level of the graduate and professional schools.

3.15 Commit to the objectives, strategies, and resources needed to achieve classification as a Carnegie II research institution by academic year 1998.

4. **Attend to the Human, Financial, and Physical Infrastructure**by developing buildings and procedures that respond to student and faculty expectations.

   The enhancement of the physical facilities of the three Chicagoland Campuses will make our university more attractive to students by beautifying the campuses while providing a safe and friendly atmosphere for all Loyolans. The expansion of our educational and recreational facilities will assist the academic and social life of the campuses.

Priorities:

4.1 Integrate a "student-friendly" approach to the design, beautification and development of our Lakeside campus grounds and buildings, paying special attention to classroom and common space conducive to interaction and dialogue among students, among faculty, and between students and faculty.

4.2 Begin construction of a student union that addresses both the students' academic and recreational needs, at the Lake Shore Campus by FY 1997.

4.3 Begin construction of a Life-Science building at the Lake Shore Campus by FY 1998.

4.4 Purchase or lease substantial recreational and NCAA-approved playing fields within 2 to 3 miles of the Lake Shore Campus. Provide free transportation to and from the Lake Shore Campus for varsity sports, club sports and recreational use.

4.5 Provide some housing, consistent with market demand, for married couples and international students at the Lake Shore Campus by academic year 1997.

4.6 Continue to study the need for additional parking at the Lake Shore Campus so that by FY 1998 the Lake Shore Campus has adequate parking.

4.7 Identify and develop an intercollegiate sports facility, primarily for Division I basketball, that is close to the Lake Shore Campus, by FY 1997.

4.8 By the beginning of academic year 1996, develop a campus and neighborhood security and safety assessment at the Lake Shore Campus

to identify significant safety concerns and implement new initiatives to ensure the security of the Loyola community.

4.9 When the discipline requires it, integrate appropriate space for the research component of a particular unit when developing new or renovated academic space.

4.10 Consonant with enrollment projections, develop a plan to acquire additional residence hall beds by the beginning of academic year 1997, paying special attention to providing safe and affordable housing opportunities for students.

4.11 Develop and complete a comprehensive market study of student housing interest at the Water Tower Campus by FY 1997, once the WTC programmatic components are identified and operational.

4.12 Renovate both the interior and exterior of the Skyscraper building in a manner consistent with its historical and stately characteristics by FY 1998.

> A new financial structure is needed to bring into balance the operating budgets of the Lakeside campuses. This structure will allow the university to provide sufficient funding of plant and capital projects. Additionally, a revised financial structure will be designed to provide incentives to deans to increase revenues and decrease costs. This will permit deans greater latitude in determining spending patterns and the ability to carry over unexpected funds across fiscal years. New program initiatives that would generate more net revenues for the unit and the university will be assisted by this new model.

Priorities:

4.13 Bring the operating budget for the Lakeside campuses in approximate balance by FY 1998.

4.14 Income from the endowment will be used only for property acquisition, construction and special opportunity projects, not to cover operating expenses.

4.15 By FY 1998, develop and implement a tuition structure that will appropriately adjust Loyola's tuition to more closely represent the cost of higher education delivery at Loyola.

4.16 Support revenue generating projects at the operating and capital level before funding alternative projects that will require additional net funding.

4.17 Begin phasing in a new budgeting process by FY 1996, with complete adoption by FY 1998. The system will encourage deans to participate in shared service cost determination so they can make informed decisions and carry over operating surplus funds for future years.

4.18 Maintain capital pools at their present level, adjusted for inflation, through FY 1996. Thereafter, adjust the level of capital pool funding for the Lakeside campuses to equal approximately two-thirds of Lakeside campus depreciation by FY 1997.

> Intensifying our development efforts to gain a heightened level of financial support will be important to our financial infrastructure. We must increase our effectiveness in generating support from alumni, friends, parents, corporations, foundations and government sources. The role of key administrators, deans, and trustees in this effort will be important. Additionally, development and public relations will need to work closely to coordinate effective communication to our external audiences. Engaging our alumni, through the formation of a strong, national alumni association, will be a key component of this effort.

Priorities:

4.19 Build a strong, national alumni association that will increase dramatically the number of alumni involved in Loyola's advancement both in Chicago and around the country. (Improving the University's communication with and service to alumni is essential to substantial increases in gift support.) Establish active alumni chapters in 25 cities by FY 1999.

4.20 Increase overall cash gifts by an average of 15% per year from FY 1995 to FY 1999. Double Loyola's cash gift total during this five-year period.

4.21 Build an effective and visible annual fund program that improves the percentage of participating alumni and increases unrestricted gifts by an average of 10% per year during this same five-year period.

4.22 Implement, as quickly as possible, a highly effective program to identify, cultivate, and solicit individuals who can make six-, seven- and eight-figure commitments. Double the number of individuals giving at the

$100,000 and $1,000,000 levels from FY 1995 to FY 1999. Inaugurate effective cultivation programs including the "Day with the President" program and President's Advisory Councils for select colleges and units of the University.

4.23 Expand the active participation of the trustees in fundraising efforts, including the identification, approach and cultivation of individuals and organizations. Raise increased support from corporations and foundations by utilizing trustees' and others' relationships, and by involving the president and other key leaders.

4.24 Inaugurate, during FY 1996, a visible, solicitation-driven planned giving program that will triple the number and dollar total of new planned giving commitments secured by Loyola staff by FY 2000.

4.25 Expand the involvement of the president, vice presidents, deans and other key administrators in the identification, cultivation and solicitation of prospects and in the promotion of Loyola to individuals and organizations.

4.26 Work closely with public relations to carefully shape and effectively communicate the messages about Loyola and its priorities that are most likely to encourage increased investment and involvement in the University.

4.27 Beginning in FY 1996, lay the foundation and shape preliminary plans for Loyola's next campaign.

> The successful implementation of change within Loyola University will necessitate the implementation of a new operational structure for the Lakeside campuses. Special attention will need to be placed on human resource development, services, and entrepreneurial projects. Human resource development programs for deans, directors and interested faculty will be encouraged in devising new ways to provide traditional academic services. The focus on such initiatives will be based on student outcomes. A comprehensive self-assessment process for each school, based on programmatic initiatives and student outcomes will work to intensify the impact of teaching and research of Loyola's faculty.

Priorities:

4.28 Use Loyola's sophisticated computer networks and software to maintain better contact with students and to facilitate for students payments, record keeping, and access to information.

4.29 By academic year 1996, develop a financial management system that gives vice presidents, deans, and directors on-line and accurate information about the financial performance of their units.

4.30 Beginning in academic year 1995, initiate new human resource development programs for deans, directors, and interested faculty members to assist them in devising new ways to provide Loyola's traditional academic services.

4.31 With the assessment process in place at the academic departmental level, deans will be expected, by academic year 1997, to develop a comprehensive self-assessment of their school based on programmatic initiatives and student outcomes.

4.32 Efficiently use a variety of electronic media to extend and intensify the impact of the teaching and research of Loyola's faculty.

4.33 Beginning in academic year 1996, institute in some service areas a total quality management approach that focuses on student outcomes.

5. **Experiment with New Forms of Learning**and adjust quickly to market demands so as to achieve greater national prominence for Loyola University Chicago.

Loyola will seek to demonstrate that a Loyola education meets the needs of the marketplace. Deans will be encouraged to recognize and respond to challenges and opportunities afforded by new market opportunities. A Center for Urban Initiatives to coordinate and, in some cases, direct activities the university undertakes for the City of Chicago, will be established. Other marketplace initiatives will contribute to our resolution of the urban national crisis facing schools at the middle and high school level and providing appropriate internship opportunities for all students.

Priorities:

5.1 As part of the yearly planning and assessment process, deans and

appropriate administrators will be expected to identify significant marketplace forces that impact their particular units and, subsequently, develop marketplace opportunities that meet those changing needs.

5.2 A Center for Urban Initiatives will be established as a base of research and service to Chicago and to the nation. Out of this center, current urban activities will be based. This Center should, inter alia, contribute to the study and resolution of elementary and secondary education dilemmas.

5.3 Design a model School-to-Work transition program, with research opportunities for Loyola's faculty. Initial funding will be provided by state, federal and private sources.

5.4 Establish an entrepreneurial center with the charge to launch initiatives that enhance net revenues and make more complete use of Loyola's human, technological and physical resources. Once an initiative has been approved, the center will work closely with the appropriate academic or shared services unit.

5.5 By academic year 1996, develop a new group of managers who will work with faculty and others to plan and market new programs that grow out of Loyola's academic, medical and religious mission.

> Positioning the University to a leadership position in education and health care will be more important than ever as we enter the next century. Building strong local and national recognition will permit Loyola to compete with other national universities and afford us the opportunity to emphasize the accomplishments of our faculty and students.

Priorities:

5.6 Continue to develop sports facilities and programs for women and men for Division I to position Loyola as a highly respected force in NCAA play. Provide enhanced facilities in order to attract an equal number of female and male athletes.

5.7 Support and implement the multi-year public relations program for Loyola University Chicago's higher education and health care component. The communications plan addresses the needs identified in the image study and provides a strategic framework for an integrated and sequential approach to the University as a whole and to each of Loyola's important audiences.

5.8 By academic year 1998, have each Division I athletic team compete at

least twice a year outside a 500-mile radius of Chicago.

EVOLUTION AND ASSESSMENT

The five overall strategies encompass every particular priority associated with it in the document. Since individual priorities may change over time, the strategies indicate a direction and emphasis that should be the energizing force behind each current priority and any future priorities.

The five strategies of this plan as well as specific priorities identified at the beginning of each fiscal year will be the primary norms used in the assessment of this strategic plan and will be integrally linked to the budget planning process. Implementing the strategies through the specific priorities will be the measure used to evaluate the achievement of administrators and staff. Each manager should provide his or her team members with performance standards in terms of the strategies and priorities listed in this plan.

As was indicated earlier, this strategic plan is not engraved in granite. We hope that members of the Loyola University community will introduce changes in the plan and also develop new initiatives, but these should be consonant with the five strategies of "Building New Traditions." As time passes, some priorities will be bypassed, and some priorities will not be achieved. At this point, however, all the priorities are plausible and can be achieved. Because of changing circumstances in the world of higher education, we may choose to set aside certain priorities and develop new ones. The plan is a flexible guide, not a rigid instrument that cannot be calibrated anew for changed circumstances.

The Next Steps

This document contains the building blocks and some specific directions which I expect the University to follow during the next five years. However, the implementation of this plan will depend on each individual unit throughout the University. I ask each faculty, staff, or administrator to focus your attention on applying the strategies to particular plans and objectives within your own section or unit.

New initiatives, or subsequent changes of existing ones, should be consonant with "Building New Traditions." Additionally, the appropriate vice presidents and deans will be expected to view "Building New Traditions" as a framework for their divisional plans and decision-making. Collaboration among your colleagues and with those who will be most dramatically impacted by this plan will be important in realizing its benefits for Loyola University Chicago.

I am hopeful that "Building New Traditions" will result in a stronger and

more prominent Loyola University Chicago. I look forward to working with you to achieve these challenging, but attainable goals.

John J. Piderit, S.J., April 1995

APPENDIX 1

MISSION STATEMENT OF LOYOLA UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Loyola University Chicago is a Jesuit Catholic university dedicated to knowledge in the service of humanity. It is a comprehensive, independent, urban institution of higher education and health care. The University endeavors to develop in the lives of its students, faculty, and staff the spirit of searching for truth and living for others which characterized Ignatius of Loyola.

This university exists to preserve, extend, and transmit knowledge and to deepen understanding of the human person, the universe, and God. Loyola values freedom of inquiry, the pursuit of truth, and care for others, especially the young, the poor, and the sick. The University strives to develop in its community a capacity for critical and ethical judgment and a commitment to action in the service of faith and justice. To perform its educational mission, Loyola stresses excellence in the complementary endeavors of teaching and research.

The Jesuit character of the University derives from the presence of Jesuits and others whose work is inspired by the conviction that learning is a way of seeking and finding God. Loyola, while believing in the Christ and in his Church, welcomes students, faculty and staff from many religious and cultural backgrounds, confident that they will find the University environment congenial, rewarding, and enriching.

Respect for the human person characterizes Jesuit education, which encourages students to develop all dimensions of themselves--intellectual, emotional, physical, creative, moral, and spiritual. To accomplish this end, all undergraduate schools offer a common core curriculum of liberal arts and sciences.

Loyola's graduate and professional schools express the University's values through research, rigorous training, and clinical practice. In addition to developing professional expertise, Loyola emphasizes ethical behavior and recognition of the dignity of each individual. As an employer, Loyola practices these same values.

The Loyola University Medical Center addresses a wide range of educational and health needs. Its teaching and research facilities, faculty, and staff expand scientific knowledge, promote health-related research, and train the health care professionals of the future, while its hospital, out-patient center and dental clinic provide services to metropolitan Chicago.

An urban institution, Loyola benefits from Chicago's exceptional cultural,

economic, and human resources. In turn, the University affirms its long-standing commitment to urban life—and works to solve its problems—in Chicago, the nation, and the world.

Aware of its international role in a world unified by communications technology, and conscious of its emerging national status, Loyola transmits its own cultural and intellectual heritage while preparing students to understand and to serve the needs and aspirations of the world community.

Loyola University of Chicago encourages all members of its community to strive for excellence, to search for truth, to live for others, and to develop in their lives a spirit of freedom. This is its tradition. This is its character.

March, 1988

APPENDIX 2

STRATEGIC PLANNING PROCESS TIMELINE

Phase 1: Planning Retreat

December 1993	President prepares "Building New Traditions" draft 1, for reflection and discussion among senior administrators.
January 1994	Deans, VP's, faculty & staff council representatives gather for day long planning retreat.

Phase 2: Reflection and Amplification

February 1994	President issues "Building New Traditions" draft 2 for university-wide circulation, dissemination and feedback.
	Academic and Shared-Services task forces begin work to develop planning guidelines.
March 1994	Vice Presidents' guidelines and plan format submitted to Executive Vice President.
March 1994	Vice Presidents' guidelines and plan format approved by President.

Phase 3: Vice Presidents' Guidelines/Plan Feedback

April 1994	Vice Presidents' guidelines and plan format distributed to all VP'S, deans, and administrators. Appropriate unit heads are asked to submit specific feedback on the planning document. Over 1,000 pages of feedback are received.
	Freshman Year Experience task force is formed to dialogue on components of a common experience for freshmen year.

July 1994	Departmental and unit responses are reviewed, edited and organized for integration into a third draft of the plan.
August 1994	Freshmen Year Experience Committee formed to refine and integrate work of task force.
September 1994	President presents update on planning process to the Board of Trustees.
October 1994	President reports on planning process to faculty at annual Faculty Convocations.

Phase 4: Refinement and Implementation

October 1994	"Building New Traditions" draft 3 of the Strategic Plan is released.
October 1994–January 1995	President initiates departmental meetings with faculty groups to dialogue on final draft. Faculty, staff, administrators provide feedback on final draft to their respective deans or vice presidents by January 10.
January 1995	Lakeside VP'S, deans, faculty and staff council presidents, and representative students participate with President in day-long planning retreat on January 11 to finalize plan.
February 1995	President refines draft and prepares Strategic Plan for presentation to the Board of Trustees.
March 1995	President presents "Building New Traditions: The Strategic Plan for Loyola University Chicago" to the Board of Trustees for approval on March 10.
April 1995	Implementation

APPENDIX B

Interview Schedule

1. What are some of your recollections as:

   a. a faculty member of Loyola University Chicago?

2. Could you give me some background information as to why football was discontinued in the same year at:

   a. Loyola University Chicago

   b. Fordham University

   c. University of Chicago under President Hutchins?

3. What are your views given that Loyola University Chicago was an all-male institution in the 1930's?

____

____

____

4. How were athletes recruited between 1930 and 1970:

   a. Loyola University Chicago

   ____

   ____

   ____

   b. other private universities

   ____

   ____

   ____

   c. state universities

   ____

   ____

   ____

5. When did women participate in athletics at Loyola University Chicago? Date: ________________

   a. What were your views about this at that time?

   ____

   ____

   ____

   b. What are your thoughts about women in athletics today?

   ____

   ____

   ____

c. Did athletic policies change for males as female athletes were recognized in the various colleges?

____
____
____

6. In what ways were athletic team sports programs similar/different in relation to other Catholic universities?

Similar

____
____
____

Different

____
____
____

7. What do you think of gender equity, in which school athletic programs want proportionate expenditures for men and women's programs:

____
____
____

a. as it relates to varsity athletic team sports in the U.S.A.

____
____
____

b. here at Loyola University Chicago

____
____
____

8. What do you think of the refocusing by some people of the philosophy of athletics from varsity team sports to recreation?

____

____

____

a. in the U.S.A.

____

____

____

b. here at Loyola University Chicago?

____

____

____

9. What are some of your thoughts concerning:

a. varsity athletic team sports

____

____

____

b. recreation

____

____

____

c. an interrelationship between the two?

____

____

____

d. Do you think varsity athletic team sports should replace recreational sports?

Yes ____________ No ____________

Reasons ______________________________________

____

____

10. In general, what are your recollections of varsity athletic team sports and education at Loyola University Chicago?

____

____

____

a. varsity athletic team sports

____

____

____

b. education

____

____

____

11. What are you views of the attitudes of the Jesuits concerning varsity athletics team sports and education at:

____

____

____

a. Loyola University Chicago

1) varsity athletic team sports

____

____

____

2) education

____

____

____

b. other Jesuit institutions?

1) varsity athletic team sports

____

____

____

2) education

______

______

______

12. A Jesuit education stresses the development of the whole person. To what extent was attention paid to:

a. varsity athletic team sports?

______

______

______

b. education

______

______

______

13. In general, what are your views of a Jesuit education as these relate to:

a. varsity athletic team sports

______

______

______

b. education

______

______

______

14. How well does Loyola University Chicago focus on Jesuit education as it relates to varsity athletic team sports and education?

______

______

______

15. What are your views of the people with whom you have worked over the years as they relate to varsity athletic team sports and education?

____

____

____

16. What kind of economic changes should be made within Loyola University Chicago that are relevant to:

a. varsity athletic team sports at Loyola University Chicago

____

____

____

b. education at Loyola University Chicago

____

____

____

17. What educational changes would you advocate to implement the status of:

a. varsity athletic team sports at Loyola University Chicago

____

____

____

b. education at Loyola University Chicago

____

____

____

18. Do you anticipate any obstacles in implementing changes by the year 2000 or the 21st century in varsity athletic sports at Loyola University Chicago?

Yes ____________ No ____________

Reasons ______________________________________

____

____

19. Is there anything you would like to add concerning education and varsity athletic team sports at Loyola University Chicago?

Yes ____________ No ____________

Comments ____

____

____

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW #1

Table 1
Coding Guide

	Question No's	1a	2a	2b	2c	3	4a	4b	4c	5a	5b	5c	6S
F	Structure												
R	Human Resources												
A	Political												
M	Symbolic												
E	Blank												

	Question No's	6D	7	7a	7b	8	8a	8b	9a	9b	9c	9d	10
F	Structure												
R	Human Resources												
A	Political												
M	Symbolic												
E	Blank												

INTERVIEW #1

Coding Guide (continued)

	Question No's	10a	10b	11	11a	11b	12a	12b	13a	13b	14	15	16
F	Structure												
R	Human Resources												
A	Political												
M	Symbolic												
E	Blank												

	Question No's	16a	16b	17a	17b	18	19
F	Structure						
R	Human Resources						
A	Political						
M	Symbolic						
E	Blank						

WORKS CITED

Abdenour, Thomas E. Sports Injury Care. Boston: Jones and Bartlett Publishers, 1993.

Alderfer, Clayton P. Existence, Relatedness, and Growth. New York: Free Press, 1972.

Appenzeller, Herb. Athletics and the Law. Charlottesville, VA: Michie Co. 1975.

Argyris, C. Intervention Theory and Method. Reading, Mass: Addison-Wesley, 1970.

Bailey, Wilford S. Athletics and Academe: An Anatomy of Abuses and a Prescription for Reform. New York: American Council on Education: Maxwell Macmillan, 1991.

Balridge, J.V. Power and Conflict in the University. New York: Wiley, 1971.

Bass, Bernard M. Leadership and Performance Beyond Expectations. New York: Free Press, 1985.

Berry, Robert C. Law and Business of the Sports Industries. Common Issues in Amateur and Professional Sports. 2nd ed. Westport, CT: Praeger, 1993.

Biracres, Tom. Althea Gibson. New York: Chelsea House, 1989.

Blake, Robert R. and Jane S. Mouton. The Managerial Grid III: The Key to Leadership Excellence. Houston: Gulf Publishing Company, 1985.

Bolman, Lee G. and Terrence E. Deal. Modern Approaches to Understanding and Managing Organizations. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1966.

Bortstein, Larry. After Olympic Glory: the Lives of Ten Outstanding Medalists. New York: F. Warne, 1978.

Brass, Daniel J. "Being in the Right Place: A Structural Analysis of Individual Influence in an Organization," Administration Science Quarterly 29, 1984.

Bronzan, Robert T. Public Relations, Promotions, and Fund-Raising for Athletic and Physical Education Programs. New York: Wiley, 1977.

Brouns, Fred. Nutritional Needs of Athletes. Chichester, New York: J. Wiley, 1933.

Bucher, Charles Augustus. Athletics in Schools and Colleges. New York: Center for Applied Research in Education, 1965.

Burns, Grant. The Sports Pages: A Critical Bibliography of Twentieth-Century American Novels and Stories Featuring Baseball, Basketball, Football, and other Athletic Pursuits. Metuches, NJ: Scarecrow Press, 1987.

Cady, Edwin Harrison. The Big Game: College Sports and American Life. Knoxville: University of Tennessee Press, 1978.

Cantu, Robert C. Sports Medicine in Primary Care. Lexington, MA: Collamore Press, D.C. Health and Co. 1982.

Cashmore, Ernest. Black Sportsmen. London: Routledge & K. Paul, 1982.

Chalk, Ocania. Black College Sport. New York: Dodd, Mead, 1976.

Chu, Donald. The Character of American Higher Education and Intercollegiate Sport. Albany: State University of New York Press, 1989.

Deal, Terrence and Allen Kennedy. Corporate Cultures. Reading, Mass: Addison-Wesley, 1982.

Dealy, Francis X. Win at any Cost: the Sell Out of College Athletics. New York: Carol Pub. Group, 1990.

DeSwarte, Lyn Guest. Women and Sport: from Fitness for Fun to International Competition: the Pleasures and Pressures for Women Today. Wellingborough, England: Grapevine, 1988.

Didinger, Ray. Game Plans for Success. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1995.

Duffy, Tony. Winning Women: the Changing Image of Women in Sports. New York: Times Books, 1983.

Falla, Jack. NCAA, The Voice of College Sports: A Diamond Anniversary History, 1906–1981. 1st ed. Mission, KA: National Collegiate Athletic Association, 1981.

Farell, A.P., S. J., Ph.D., The Jesuit Code of Liberal Education, Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Company, 1938.

Figler, Stephen K. The Athletes Game Plan for College and Career. Princeton, NJ: Peterson's Guides, 1984.

Fiedler, F. E. A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967.

Fitzpatrick, Edward A., St. Ignatius and the Ratio Studiorum. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1988.

Fleisher, Arthur A. The National Collegiate Athletic Association: A Study in Cartel Behavior, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1992.

Ford, Charles E. and Edgar L. Roy, The Renewal of Catholic Education, Washington, D. C.: National Catholic Education Association, 1968.

Fowles, Jib. Starstruck: Celebrity Performers and the American Public. Washington: Smithsonian Institution Press, 1992.

Fox, Edward L. The Physiological Basis of Physical Education and Athletics, 4th ed. Philadelphia: Saunders College Pub., 1988.

Franks, Ray. What's in a Nickname? Exploring the Jungle of College Athletic Mascots. Amarillo, TX: Ray Franks Pub. Ranch, 1982.

French, J.R. and B.H. Raven. "The Bases of Social Power," in D. Cartwright (Ed.), Studies in Social Power. Ann Arbor: Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, 1959.

Gallico, Paul. The Golden People. 1st ed. Garden City, NY: Doubleday, 1965.

Gallup, Elizabeth M. Law and the Team Physician. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics Publishers, 1994.

Gardiner, E. Norman. Athletics of the Ancient World. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1955.

Garfield, Charles A. Peak Performance: Mental Training Techniques of he World's Greatest Athletes. New York: Warner Books, 1984.

Garrick, James G. Sports Injuries: Diagnosis and Management. Philadelphia: Saunders, 1990.

Goldberger, Alan S. Sports Officiating: A Legal Guide. New York: Leisure Press, 1984.

Goldman, Bob. The "E" Factor: The Secrets of New Tech Training and Fitness for the Winning Edge. 1st ed. New York: Morrow, 1988.

Harriman, Bruce. "Up and Down the Communications Ladder," Harvard Business Review. September–October, 1974.

Hart-Hibbrig, Nand E. The Political Economy of College Sports. Lexington: Lexington Books, 1986.

Hartley, Anne. Practical Joint Assessment: A Sports Medicine Manual. St. Louis: Mosby–Year Book, 1990.

Hay, Robert D. Sports Marketing: Text and Cases. Santa Barbara: Kinko's Publishing Group, 1965.

Herbert, David L. Legal Aspects of Sports Medicine. Canton: Professional Reports Corp. 1990.

Hersey, Paul and Kenneth H. Blanchard. Management Organizational Behavior. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1988.

Herzberg, F. Work and the Nature of Man. Cleveland, Ohio: World, 1966.

Katz, D. and R.I. Kahn. The Social Psychology of Organizations. New York: Wiley, 1966.

Jokl, Ernst. What is Sportsmedicine?. Springfield, IL: Thomas, 1964.

John Paul II, Apostolic Constitution Ex Corde Ecclesiae of the Supreme Pontiff on Catholic Universities, Washington, D.C.: United States Catholic Conference, 1990.

Kibler, W. Ben. The Sport Preparticipation Fitness Examination. Champaign: Human Kinetics Books, 1990.

Klein, Christa Ressnezer, The Jesuits and Catholic Boyhood: Nineteenth Century New York City: A Study of St. John's College and the College of St. Francis Xavier. 1846-1912. Ann Arbor: University Microfilms International, 1976.

Kramer, William D. Guide to Title IX & Intercollegiate Athletics. Prepared for the National Collegiate Athletic Association by William D. Kramer with the assistance of others at Squire, Sanders & Dempsey. 2nd ed, Washington, D.C.: 1991.

Kyle, Donald G. Athletics in Ancient Athens. Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1987, Mnemosyne, Bibliotheca Classica Batava, Supplementum, 95.

Lawrence, Paul R. Unsportsmanlike Conduct: The National Collegiate Athletic Association and the Business of College Football. New York: Praeger, 1987.

Leahy, William P., Adapting to America. Washington D. C.: Georgetown University Press, 1991.

Ledochowski, W., S.J. Letter to the Fathers and Scholatics of the American Association Announcing the New Instructors on Study and Teaching Art 8, New York: Jesuit Education Association, 1948.

Lewis, C. Day, ed. Aeneid of Virgil. New York: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 1952.

Littlefield, Bill. Champions: Stories of Ten Remarkable Athletes. Boston: Little, Brown, 1993.

Littlewood, Thomas B. Arch:A Promoter, Not a Poet: The Story of Arch Ward. 1st ed. Ames: Iowa State University Press, 1990.

London, Jack. 1876-1916 Sporting Blood: Selections from Jack London's Greatest Sports Writing. Novato, CA: Presidio Press, 1981.

Lynn, Elizabeth A. Babe Didrikson Zaharias. New York: Chelsea House, 1989.

Mangi, Richard, The Runner's Complete Medical Guide. New York: Summit Books, 1979.

Martyniuk, Joy S. Sport Psychology: January 1986 through December 1988. Bethesda, MD: U.S. Dept. of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, National Institutes of Health, National Library of Medicine, Reference Section: Washington, D.C., 1986.

Maslow, Abraham H. Motivation and Personality, rev. ed. New York: Harper & Row, 1970.

Matre, Richard A. Loyola University and its Medical Center: A Century of Courage and Turmoil. Chicago: Department of Printing Services, Loyola University Chicago, 1995.

Matz, David. Greek and Roman Sport: A Dictionary of Athletes and Events from the Eighth Century B.C. to the Third Century A.D. Jefferson, NC: McFarland, 1991.

McCroskey, James C. and Virginia P. Richmond. One on One: The Foundations of Interpersonal Communications. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1986.

McGuane, Thomas, An Outside Chance: Classic and New Essays on Sport. Boston: Houghton Mifflin/Seymour Lawrence, 1990.

Messenger, Christian K. Sport and the Spirit of Play in American Fiction: Hawthorne to Faulkner. New York: Columbia University Press, 1991.

Meyers, Ellen Jeanne, The Social World of Athletes: Social and Psychological Distinguishable Characteristics of Four Collectives of Athletes. 1987.

Michener, James A. Sports in America. New York: Random House, 1976.

Miller, Patrick Bryant. Athletes in Academe: College Sports and American Culture, 1850-1920. 1987.

Miner, John B. Organizational Behavior: Performance and Productivity. New York: Random House, 1988.

Mirkin, Gabe. The Sportsmedicine Book. Boston: Little, Brown, 1978.

Morris, Alfred F. Sports Medicine: Prevention of Athletic Injuries. Dubuque, IA: W.C. Brown, 1984.

Murrell, John. Athletics: Sports and Games. London: Allen and Unwin, 1975.

Nelson, Mariah Burton. Are We Winning Yet? How Women Are Changing Sports and Sports Are Changing Women. 1st ed. New York: Random House, 1991.

Nemerov, Howard. The Homecoming Game: A Novel. Columbia: University of Missouri Press, 1992.

O'Donoghue, Don H. Treatment of Injuries to Athletes. Philadelphia: Saunders, l962

Porter, Lyman and Edward E. Lawler. Behavior in Organizations. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1975.

Piderit, John J., S.J., Ph.D., "Building New Traditions," Chicago: Loyola University Chicago, 1995.

Rader, Benjamin. American Sports From the Age of Fold Games to the Age of Televised Sports. 2nd ed. New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1990.

Railborn, Mitchell H. Revenues and Expenses of Intercollegiate Athletic Programs: Analysis of Financial Trends and Relationships, 1978-1981. Mission, KA: National Collegiate Athletic Association, 1982.

Reddin, William J. Managerial Effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970.

Reid, David C. Sports Injury Assessment and Rehabilitation. New York: Churchill Livingstone, 1992.

Romano, David Gilman. Athletics and Mathematics in Archaic Corinth: The Origins of the Greek Stadium. Philadelphia: American Philosophical Society, 1993.

Rouse, W.H.D. Trans. The Iliad. New York: Mentor Books, 1958.

Reitz, Joseph. Behavior in Organizations, rev. ed. Homewood, IL: Richard D. Irwin, 1981.

Roloff, M.E. Interpersonal Communications: The Social Exchange Approach. Beverly Hills: Sage, 1981.

Rooney, John F. The Recruiting Game: Toward a New System of Intercollegiate Sports. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1980.

Rosenberger, Mathew G. Sports Resource Directory. 1st ed. Chicago, IL: M.G.R. Enterprises, 1993.

Roy, Steven. Sports Medicine: Prevention, Evaluation, Management, and Rehabilitation. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1983.

Rudolph, Frederick. The American College and University. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1962.

Ruxin, Robert H. A Career in Professional Sports: Guidelines That Make Dollars and Sense: Suggestions for Obtaining Competent, Honest and Fair Representation. Mission, KA: The National Collegiate Athletic Association, 1986.

Savage, Howard James. Current Developments in American College Sport. New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1931.

Savitz, Harriet May. Wheelchair Champions: A History of Wheelchair Sports. 1st ed. New York: Crowell, 1978.

Shea, Edward J. and Elton E. Wieman. Administrative Policies for Intercollegiate Athletics. Springfield: Thomas, 1967.

Shelden, Mirian Feely. Greek Athletics in the Writings of the Greek Historians. 1974.

Shropshire, Kenneth L. Agents of Opportunity: Sports Agents and Corruption in Collegiate Sports. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1990.

Smith, Ronald A. Sports and Freedom: The Rise of Big-Time College Athletics. New York: Oxford University Press, 1988.

Sperber, Murray. College Sports Inc.: The Athletic Department vs the University. 1st ed. New York: H. Holt, 1990.

Starkey, Chad. Therapeutic Modalities for Athletic Trainers. Philadelphia: F. A. Davis, 1993.

Stogdill, R. Handbook of Leadership. New York: Free Press, 1974.

Telander, Rick. The Hundred Yard lie: The Corruption of College Football and What We Can Do To Stop It. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1989.

Thelin, John R. Games Colleges Play: Scandal and Reform in Inter-Collegiate Athletics. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1994.

Trickett, Paul C. Prevention and Treatment of Athletic Injuries. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1995.

Tver, David F. Encyclopedic Dictionary of Sports Medicine. New York: Chapman and Hall, 1986.

Umphlett, Wiley Lee. The Sporting Myth and the American Experience; Studies in Contemporary Fiction. Lewisburg PA: Bucknell University Press, 1975.

Underwood, Clarence. The Student Athlete: Eligibility and Academic Integrity. East Lansing: Michigan State University Press, 1984.

Vroom, V.H. Work and Motivation. New York: Wiley, 1964.

Vroom, V.H. and T. Yetton. Leadership and Decision Making. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1973.

Wade, Steven C. Sports Law for Educational Institutions. New York: Quorum Books, 1988.

Walton, Clarence C. and Fredrick de W. Bolman. Disorders in Higher Education. New Jersey: American Assembly, Columbia University, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1979.

Watts, Tim J. The Regulation of College Sports: A Bibliography. Monticello, IL: Vance Bibliographies, 1991.

Weiner, Betty. Drug Abuse in Sports: An Annotated Bibliography. Brooklyn, NY: CompuBibs, 1985.

Weiss, Ann E. Money Games: The Business of Sports. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1993.

Weiss, Paul. Sport A Philosophic Inquiry. Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press, 1969.

Westerllund, G. and S. Sjostrand. Organizational Myths. New York: Harper & Row, 1979.

Wiggins, David K. Sport in America From Wicked Amusement to National Obession. Champaign: Human Kinetics, 1995.

Williams, Melvin H. Nutritional Aspects of Human Physical and Athletic Performance. 2nd ed. Springfield: Thomas, 1985.

Wilson, Holly. Workbook: Fundamentals of Athletic Training for Women. Washington, National Association for Girls and Women in Sports, 1974.

Wootton, Steve. Nutrition for Sport. New York: Facts on File Publications, 1988.

Yaeger, Don. Undue Process: The NCAA'S Injustice for All. Champaign: Sagamore Publ. 1991.

VITA

The author of this dissertation, Thomas G. Hitcho was born in McKeesport, Pennsylvania. He is the son of the late John and Helen Pranaitis Hitcho. He received his early education in Duquesne, Pennsylvania. Upon graduation from high school in 1967, he entered Youngstown State University from which he received a BS in Education in 1971. Subsequent to that, he enlisted in the US Navy where he served until 1975 earning the rank second class petty officer. Receiving an honorable discharge with a good conduct commendation, he returned to civilian life whereupon he matriculated at Indiana State University in Terre Haute, Indiana. In 1977, he was awarded the Master of Science (MS) in Sports Medicine from the University's Department of Physical Education. After graduation, the author entered the employment of Loyola University Chicago. Currently, he holds the position of Associate Athletic Director and Head Athletic Trainer.

DISSERTATION APPROVAL SHEET

The dissertation submitted by Thomas G. Hitcho
has been read and approved by the following committee:

Steven I. Miller, Ph.D., Director
Professor, Educational Leadership and Policy Studies
Loyola University Chicago

Marcel A. Fredericks, Ph.D.
Professor, Sociology
Loyola University Chicago

John M. Wozniak, Ph.D.
Dean Emeritus, School of Education
Loyola University Chicago

The final copies have been examined by the director of the dissertation and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the dissertation is now given final approval by the committee with reference to content and form.

The dissertation is, therefore, accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

March 26, 1996 — Steven I. Miller

Date — Director's Signature