Formalization in intercollegiate athletics: Development of a policies and procedures manual

Mary Sheila Strike
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University of Nevada, Las Vegas, 1988

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UMI
FORMALIZATION IN INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS:

DEVELOPMENT OF A POLICIES AND

PROCEDURES MANUAL

By

Mary Sheila Strike

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education

in

Higher Education Administration

Department of Educational Administration and Higher Education, University of Nevada, Las Vegas

Spring, 1988
The dissertation of Mary Sheila Strike for the Degree of Doctor of Education in Higher Education Administration is approved.

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University of Nevada,
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Spring, 1988
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Abstract


Mary Sheila Strike

Intercollegiate athletics in the 1980's has undergone a series of crises which appear to have resulted in increased formalization, both within the National Collegiate Athletic Association and at most universities across the nation. The integrity crisis, whether real or perceived, has resulted in a call for accountability in athletics. Concurrently, there is a trend toward the development of policies and procedures manuals for athletic management.

The theoretical basis of the study began with a focus on the ideology of business and industry in the early 1900's and the reasons for and results of formalization. The ideology of intercollegiate athletics in the 1980's was then discerned through a review of the current literature, and the impetus for formalization in athletics was examined. Formalization occurred in two separate enterprises, during two distinct periods of time; those were compared and contrasted, revealing similarities as well as differences.

The developmental basis of the study focused on the use and content of policies and procedures manuals in intercollegiate athletics. 284 NCAA Division I member institutions were surveyed and 210 (75%) responded; of that 210, 91 (43%) indicated they currently utilized a
manual and 53 (43%) of those utilizing manuals provided them for use in the study. Based upon the need identified in the literature review and content analysis of the manuals gathered in the research, a model for a policies and procedures manual was developed for use by athletic administrators.
The style guide Form and Style: Theses, Reports and Term Papers by W.G. Campbell, S.V. Ballou & C. Slade was used in this work.
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CHAPTER 1

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Introduction

Sport has become institutionalized in American society. "Its importance and centrality in individual and social life is indisputable" (Felshin 182). There has been increasing evidence, however, that although attendance figures at stadiums and before television sets have continued to rise, so too have the "misgivings" of Americans regarding sport (Deford 46). One aspect of the vast American sporting network about which many citizens have felt confusion is college athletics, which has become "a sophisticated, sprawling industry, involving billions of dollars" (Goodwin "When the" 8).

Currently, renewed debate exists regarding the proper role of sport in the American university (Goodwin 8), a consideration emanating from the view that "school sports programs are sullied by drugs, gambling, exploitation of students (particularly black athletes) and cheating" (Cramer 2). There have been numerous, well-publicized cases of abuses in college athletics, including allegations of: student-athletes involved in the abuse of illegal drugs (Kahn 9D); student-athletes involved in illicit gambling and point-shaving schemes (Keteyian 25); student-athletes gaining entrance into institutions of higher learning with exceedingly low academic skills (Nack 36), and student-athletes demonstrating shockingly low rates of graduation once
Reactions to the scandals which have plagued intercollegiate athletics have included: the authorization of the National Collegiate Athletic Association (hereafter referred to as NCAA) drug testing program by the nation's colleges and universities ("NCAA Takes" 1); the endorsement of institutional drug testing programs by presidents of the nation's universities (Farrell "Drugs and" 36); the implementation of new academic eligibility requirements for entering freshmen student-athletes (Gladwell 14); the formation of the forty-four member NCAA President's Commission to enable chief executives to become more involved in athletics (Williams 9); and concurrently, a trend toward the establishment of departmental manuals of policies and procedures to ensure greater internal administrative control (Richards 39). All of these developments have served to add increasing formalization to the intercollegiate athletics enterprise.

Champion observed that virtually all organizations were characterized by a formal structure; that is, preplanned and recorded devices (86). Carlisle noted that in business and industry, "the most common method for formalizing the functions and responsibilities of each unit (functional specification) is through establishing an organization manual" (346). Manuals traditionally demonstrated formal organization through the use of charts and functional statements, specified formal authority relationships, and contained descriptions of the primary management positions along with statements of philosophy, objectives and principles. "The functional statements in the manual are designed to ensure that all work is being covered and that
segregation of functions and duties will obtain the mix and balance necessary to achieve organizational objectives" (Carlisle 346). Thus, typically the underlying ideology for development of a formal structure was to bring about greater order and efficiency. It would seem, however, that in times of a real or perceived crisis, a call for increased formalization would sometimes occur to achieve accountability of actions of organizational participants.

Statement of the Problem

The purposes of this study were twofold: 1) to investigate the ideology (that is the total conception of beliefs, perceived causes and justifications) underlying the current trend toward formalization in intercollegiate athletics administration; and 2) to develop a model of a policies and procedures manual for use by Division I intercollegiate athletic programs. The research topic thus had both theoretical and practical application.

The ideological underpinnings of intercollegiate athletics were examined via a review of current literature. Additionally, a brief comparison was made with the ideology underlying the early period of formalization in business and industry. That period occurred during the 1930's and the resulting formal structure was called classical administration and scientific management. The development of the model was based upon a review of policies and procedures manuals obtained from NCAA Division I institutions.

Specifically, the study attempted to answer the following questions:

1. Was there an ideological shift in intercollegiate
athletics in America which resulted in the perceived need for formalization of policies and procedures in athletic administration?

2. If so, did the ideology which brought about the perceived need for increased formalization in intercollegiate athletics hold any similarities and differences to that which provided the impetus for formalization in scientific management and management theory development in the 1930's?

3. Did athletic administrators of the NCAA Division I member institutions utilize policies and procedures manuals, and, if so, what was contained in them?

4. What were the elements, if any, that were common among Division I policies and procedures manuals; what was the frequency among common elements; and what would an outline for a policies and procedures manual contain based upon the best of the works collected?

Need for the Study

The anticipated result of the study was the provision of:

1) an understanding of the process of formalization in intercollegiate athletics and those factors contributing to its development; 2) an understanding of the relationship between the ideology of intercollegiate athletics which resulted in formalization of policies and procedures and the ideology which precipitated and resulted from the scientific management movement in the 1930's; and 3) a comprehensive outline for a policies and procedures manual for use by directors of athletic programs based upon a review of manuals currently utilized
by NCAA Division I member institutions.

An impending financial crisis in the Fall of 1983 resulted in the inquiry into intercollegiate athletics at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas, by a citizens commission (Rothermel 1). Subsequent to a review of the citizens commission findings, the University of Nevada System Board of Regents mandated that "each institution shall develop and utilize a policy and procedure manual concerning intercollegiate athletics operations" (UNS Board of Regents 28). It was the intent of the author to compile a policies and procedures manual for the Department of Intercollegiate Athletics at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas, following completion of the study, based upon the results of the study.

Expert opinion regarding the need for the development of a model for a policies and procedures manual was also solicited from the President of UNLV, as well as the Director of the Department of Intercollegiate Athletics. Dr. Robert Maxson, President of UNLV, articulated his position:

I am writing to confirm to you my position regarding the proposed development of a model for a policies and procedures manual for the Department of Intercollegiate Athletics at UNLV. If feel this project is a worthy one and one which will help fulfill a current need in our athletic department. (Appendix I)

Dr. Bradley Rothermel, Athletic Director at UNLV, also commented that in his professional opinion, the development of an outline for a policies and procedures manual would have potential significance to other directors of intercollegiate athletic programs:

...it is my feeling that a carefully developed model for a policies and procedures manual could function as a prototype which might be utilized by other NCAA Division I institutions as a guide to the effective administration of those
institutions' intercollegiate athletics programs.
(Appendix II)

Assumptions of the Study

The assumptions of the study included:

1. Formalization was a major defining characteristic of organizations (Hall 162).

2. Formalization was generally a result of a desire for greater order and efficiency in terms of organizational goal attainment. Calls for greater formalization may have resulted when real or perceived threats developed that negatively affected organizational survival and goal attainment (Hall 162).

3. An organization's degree of formalization significantly affected how the organization and its members performed (Hall 179). Generally, increased formalization resulted in increased control over participant conduct.

4. It was possible to identify an ideology of intercollegiate athletics in the United States in the 1980's through a review of the current literature.

5. It was possible to discern the ideology of the scientific management movement, those things which led to and resulted from the formalization of organizations, through a review of the literature on bureaucracy, scientific management and classical management theory.

6. Grounded theory - the discovery of theory from data, systematically obtained and analyzed in social research - may have been furthered through a general method of comparative analysis.
7. The tables of contents of policies and procedures manuals received accurately reflected much of the formal organizational structure of the athletic departments they represented.

8. A model developed through the study would be of use by athletic directors of Division I intercollegiate athletic programs who functioned without a policies and procedures manual, as well as for those which needed revision.

Delimitations of the Study

The delimitations of the study were as follows:

1. The study was primarily a developmental study which provided a model. An integral component of the developmental study was, however, the theoretical insight provided through the review of literature.

2. The definition of ideology which served as the basis for the comparative analysis through a literature review was the total conception of ideology (Mannheim 49) as opposed to the particular, or political view (see definition of terms).

3. The ideology which led to/resulted from classical management theory was derived only from a review of the work of the major authors of the period, including Max Weber, Frederick W. Taylor, Chester I. Barnard, Henri Fayol, James D. Mooney and Allan C. Reiley, Oliver Sheldon, and Luther Gulick and Lyndall Urwick.

4. Conclusions derived from the analysis of the formalization that occurred in business and industry during the 1930's as compared to the formalization that developed as as late in athletics did not
necessarily apply to the processes of formalization in other types of organizations and/or historic eras.

5. Policies and procedures manuals were solicited only from Division I departments of intercollegiate athletics of NCAA institutions in the United States; not members of Division II, III or NAIA.

6. Policies and procedures manuals were solicited from athletic directors of NCAA Division I member institutions whose names appeared in the 1985-86 NCAA Directory. The directory listed the names of athletic directors and addresses of member institutions as of October, 1985.

7. Policies and procedures manuals were solicited only from institutional athletic departments; not university business offices or other academic departments; not from business and industry.

8. The tables of contents of policies and procedures manuals reviewed were utilized to represent the contents of the manuals.

9. An analysis of the formal structure of an organization was limited to just that; it did not address the role of the individual or that of the informal organization (Getzels, Lipham & Campbell, 105).

Theoretical Base of the Study

Scientific management and classical management theory, developed in the 1930's, provided the theoretical basis for comparison in the study. The early works of Max Weber entitled Essays on Sociology and The Theory of Social and Economic Organization, on the characteristics and development of bureaucracy, and the subsequent work of Frederick W. Taylor
entitled Scientific Management, provided the basis for what became known as "administrative management theory" or the "classical or traditional theory of organization management" (March 387). Briefly,

Classical theory assumes that failure to specify and designate organizational relationships would result in confusion, conflict and inefficiency. Therefore, the more the activities could be prescribed, the more efficiently and smoothly the organization would function. (Carlisle 334)

Carlisle noted that classical theorists tended to state simple and concise principles for managers and thus the classical conceptual frameworks were developed as guides for practical implementation.

"The classical school developed the concept of policy as a formal guide to decisions that top executives use for purposes of coordinating the actions of lower levels" (March 404). From the classical perspective, management was viewed as the formalization of relationships. "This formal structure and process, as they saw it, could best be made effective by explicit (usually written) directives authenticated by a higher authority" (March 404). This led to the development and implementation of organization charts and manuals.

In his work on organizations, Hage defined the concept of formalization:

Formalization, or standardization, is measured by the proportion of codified jobs and the range of variation that is tolerated within the rules defining the jobs. The higher the proportion of codified jobs and the less the range of variation allowed, the more formalized the organization. (295)

In later research, Hage and Aiken defined formalization:

Formalization represents the use of rules in an organization. Job codification is the measure of how many rules define what the occupants of positions are to do, while rule observation is a measure of whether or not the rules are employed. ("Relationship of " 79)
Pugh, Hickson, Hinnings and Turner defined formalization as "the extent to which rules, procedures, instructions and communications are written" (75). Rules were operationalized by utilization of official records and documents to determine items such as the proportion of employees who had handbooks describing their tasks and the number of procedures of various kinds (Hall 155).

From Weber's notion of the ideal type of bureaucracy, wherein goals and purposes were clear and explicit and organizational rules and regulations were derived from those goals (Hall 49), through Taylor's scientific management theory and the subsequent development of classical management theory, came increased formalization of organizations. Currently, a call for formalization in intercollegiate athletics has arisen, one which had both interesting roots and implications when considered in light of the following:

If a set of people are viewed as having excellent judgment and self-control, formalization will be low; if they are viewed as incapable of making their own decisions and requiring a large number of rules to guide their behavior, formalization will be high. (Hall 152)

For Hall, the behavior of individuals was vitally affected by the degree of formalization, as an inverse relationship existed between individual discretion and behavior which was preprogrammed by the organization (152). Rules and procedures handled the basic tasks of an organization's members; when those rules and procedures were so well defined as to include most of the organizational contingencies, little judgement was exercised on the part of the members of the organization. For example, an assembly line was a highly formalized procedure as compared to a work environment characterized by unique situations which required
expertise in decision making, even intuition and inspiration, on the part of the worker (Perrow "A Framework" 196).

Design of the Study

Literature pertaining to the development of classical administrative theory was reviewed from the perspective of those reasons why it evolved during the early 1900's and what the results and consequences were of its development. The ideology of the classical theoretical perspectives was delineated.

Current literature pertaining to intercollegiate athletics was collected. From a review of the research, a general statement of the ideology which led to and resulted from intercollegiate athletics in its current form in the United States was formulated.

The ideology which currently characterizes intercollegiate athletics and that which brought about the classical management perspectives were compared and contrasted. An attempt was made to gain an informed perspective on the reasons for the recent trend in athletics toward the type of formalization which typified and in fact emanated from classical management.

Concurrently, the athletic directors of two hundred and eighty-four NCAA Division I member institutions as listed in the 1985-86 NCAA Directory were solicited for the policies and procedures manuals of their departments of intercollegiate athletics. The policies and procedures manuals obtained were content analyzed (Krippendorff). Specifically, the tables of contents of all the manuals solicited were reviewed using three content analysis techniques: 1) identification of all elements contained in the manuals; 2) identification of
common elements contained in the manuals; and 3) frequency counts of common elements contained in the manuals (Krippendorff). Based on the need identified in the literature review, and the demonstrated understanding of the reasons for the creation of that need, an outline for a policies and procedures manual was developed, to serve as a model upon which manuals may be developed.

Definition of Terms

1. Athletics Although the term athletics and sports have been differentiated in some of the scholarly literature - "In essence, sport is a kind of diversion which has for its direct and immediate end, fun, pleasure and delight ... athletics, on the other hand, is essentially a competitive activity which has for its end, victory in the contest" (Keating 28) - for the purposes of this discussion, the terms were used synonymously (Loy et al 3,4).

2. Content Analysis "Content analysis is a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from data to their context" (Krippendorff 21).

3. Division I "Active and conference memberships of the Association (NCAA) may be divided into divisions for the purposes of by-law legislation and competition in NCAA championship meets and tournaments" (NCAA Manual 32). "A member of Division I strives for regional and national excellence and pre-eminence" (203); "A member of Division I shall sponsor a minimum of six varsity intercollegiate sports, including at least two team sports, involving all male or mixed teams ... and a minimum of six varsity intercollegiate sports, including at least two team sports, involving all-female
teams" (134).

4. **Formal Organization** "A formal organization is a predetermined arrangement of individuals whose interrelated tasks and specialties enable the total aggregate to achieve goals. It is further characterized by provisions for the replacement of members who resign, transfer, die or retire; a system of rewards and benefits which accrue to each member in return for his services; a hierarchy of authority which allocates power and delegates duties to be performed by the membership; and a communication system which transmits information and assists in the coordination of the activities of the members" (Champion 1). "Writers generally mean the same thing by the terms complex organizations and formal organizations" (Blumberg 4).

5. **Formalization** "The rules and procedures designed to handle contingencies faced by the organization are part of what is called formalization" (Hall 152); "The extent to which rules, procedures, instructions and communications are written" (Pugh et al 75).

6. **Ideology** "The inclusive or total conception of ideology ... the ideology of an age or of a concrete historico-social group, eg. of a class, when we are concerned with the characteristics and composition of the total structure of the mind of this epoch or of this group" (Mannheim 49,50). This was in contrast to the "particular conception of ideology" which Mannheim referred to as the "intellectual armament of a party" - a distorted or rationalized view (Merton 547).

7. **NCAA** The National Collegiate Athletic Association, whose
stated purpose was to "maintain intercollegiate athletics as an integral part of the student body, and, by so doing, retain a clear line of demarcation between college athletics and professional sports (NCAA Manual 32)."  

8. **Organizational Variables** Four commonly recognized variables of organizations included: organizational structure, organizational control, organizational behavior and organizational change; the variable of structure has been further subdivided into: size, complexity and formalization (Champion 86).  

9. **Policy** "Policies are closely related to strategy. Policies constitute more the internal strategy of the firm. They are general guides to organizational behavior and provide operating parameters within which decisions should be made. Each major function of a company will have policies relating to that function" (Carlisle 569).  

10. **Procedures** "Procedures are established to assign appropriate responsibility to each organizational unit and to sequence the activities contained in the process. Each major function of an organization, such as marketing, finance, and production, normally has its own procedures" (Carlisle 347).  

11. **Sports** See definition of athletics.  

**Organization of the Study**  
Chapter One stated the purpose of the study and defined the problem statement. The questions to which the study was directed were articulated in Chapter One, along with an explanation of the need for
the study, the assumptions of the study, the limitations and delimitations of the study, an outline of the research design and a definition of terms of particular relevance to the study.

Chapter Two provided a documented review of the literature pertinent to the study. The chapter reviewed literature on the development of the classical theory of organizational management; discussed the concept of ideology; defined the ideology of the classical theory of organization management; reviewed the current literature on intercollegiate athletics; defined the ideology of intercollegiate athletics in the 1980's; and compared and contrasted these ideologies.

Chapter Three included a discussion of the methods of data collection and procedures for analysis of the data gathered. It also included a policies and procedures manual model, based upon the analysis of the data gathered by research.

Chapter Four included a summary, conclusions and recommendations, and recommendations for further study.
CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter was to review the literature pertaining to a study of the development of formalization in organizations. The focus of the first section of the chapter was on classical theoretical perspectives, including bureaucracy, scientific management and classical management theory. "The traditional classic approach concentrates on deducing the universals of management and emphasized the formalistic aspects of organizations" (March 409).

The next section of the chapter was devoted to several current theoretical perspectives which have advanced some of the concepts of the classical thinkers in organizations, concepts which related to the formalization of organizations. Topics included functional theory and compliance theory.

The concept of ideology was then defined and discussed as it related to the scientific management movement. From the work of Weber, Taylor, Fayol, Mooney, Reiley, Sheldon, Culick and Urwick, the reasons for and results of the advent of scientific management were discussed.

The focus of the literature review then shifted to an analysis of the current literature pertaining to intercollegiate athletics in the United States. The major issues confronting university and athletic administrators including athletics and: big business, commercialization,
alumni, drugs, gambling and academics, were reported, along with the
reaction of athletic administrators to the growing challenges facing
intercollegiate athletic programs. The review of literature revealed
the increasing trend toward formalization of policies and procedures
in intercollegiate athletics. The ideology of contemporary intercol-
legiate athletics was discerned and contrasted with the ideology of the
scientific management movement of the 1930's. Finally, some of the cur-ent theoretical perspectives on organizations were related to a current
appraisal of intercollegiate athletics.

The purpose of the literature review was to discern the reasons for
and results of formalization which occurred in two distinct settings and
at two periods of time separated by over fifty years. An understanding
of the classical theoretical perspectives on formalization in organiza-
tions may lead to a better understanding of the current trend toward
formalization in intercollegiate athletics, and the need for the model
developed in the study.

Classical Theoretical Perspectives

The early work of Weber and subsequent work of Taylor led to the
evolution of management theory. "Management theory has been largely
derived from practicing managers who have attempted to put their
experiences on paper for the benefit of practitioners" (Hall 42).
Hall listed the main representatives of the management theory approach
as: Frederick Taylor, Henri Fayol, James Mooney, Lyndall Urwick and
Luther Gulick (42). Massie stated that "the contributions of Fayol,
Mooney and Sheldon became the foundations for later statement of
management principles" (March 395).

Bureaucracy

Among organizational sociologists, Max Weber (1864-1920) was considered to have earned a position of pre-eminence (Grusky 1). Much of Weber's writing focused on the manner in which organizations structured themselves for utmost rationality (Hall 49). Weber developed the notion of bureaucracy which was defined by the following characteristics:

1. There is the principle of fixed and official jurisdictional areas, which are generally ordered by rules, that is, by laws or administrative regulations.

2. The principles of office hierarchy and of levels of graded authority mean a firmly ordered system of super- and sub-ordination in which there is a supervision of the lower offices by the higher ones.

3. The management of the modern office is based upon written documents ("the files") which are preserved in their original or draught form.

4. Office management, at least all specialized office management - and such management is distinctly modern - usually presupposes thorough and expert training.

5. When the office is fully developed, official activity demands the full working capacity of the official, irrespective of the fact that his obligatory time in the bureau may be firmly delimited.

6. The management of the office follows general rules, which are more or less stable, more or less exhaustive, and which can be learned. (Weber "Essays" 196-198)

The office hierarchy was "monocratically organized" (Weber "Essays" 197), and the possibility existed within the hierarchy that a decision may have been appealed to a higher level of the hierarchy than that from whence it came.

Bureaucracy was defined as the ideal type of formal organization
characterized by a clearly defined division of labor, including: a careful specification of decision-making powers of individuals in an unambiguous chain-of-command pattern with a hierarchy of officials; rationality; impersonal application of rules; and routinization of tasks to the degree that personnel were easily replaceable (Champion 33-36).

Weber's ideal type of bureaucracy was one in which goals and purposes were clear and explicit; organizational rules and procedures were derived from the goals in a "rational" manner; tasks which led to achievement of the goals were subdivided among members so that each member's limited sphere of activity matched his competence; offices (positions) were arranged in hierarchical fashion; decision-making was based upon officially established rules and criteria; members participated on the basis of contractual (written) agreements; selection of membership was based solely upon personal competence and interpersonal relationships remained on an impersonal basis (Hall 49).

The position of the official as defined by Weber was characterized by the following: 1) office holding was a "vocation"; 2) the official was afforded "distinct social esteem" by virtue of his position; 3) the position of the official was held for life; 4) the official received the regular pecuniary compensation of a normally fixed salary and old age security provided by a pension; and 5) the official was set for a "career" within the hierarchical order (Weber "Essays" 198-204). Weber's official was required to have training and the office holder was expected to fulfill an obligation of faithful management in return for a secure existence (199).
Weber's bureaucracy was developed on the premise that it possessed purely technical superiority over any other form of organization (Weber 214). Its attributes included speed, unambiguity, precision, knowledge of the files, unity, strict subordination, reduction of friction and reduction of personal and material costs. Indeed:

Bureaucratization offers above all the optimum possibility for carrying through the principle of specializing administrative functions according to purely objective considerations. Individual performances are allocated to functionaries who have specialized training and who by constant practice learn more and more. The "objective" discharge of business primarily means a discharge of business according to calculable rules and "without regard for persons". (Weber 215)

Bureaucracies thus embodied the concept of formalization of organizations. Weber emphasized the use of "the files" which necessitated a staff of persons to write and organize the bureaucracy's paperwork (Weber 197).

Scientific Management

An engineer from Philadelphia, Frederick Taylor, sought to improve upon the management of "initiative and incentive" by a systematic method which he called scientific management or task management. In his work, Scientific Management, Taylor stressed that under the management of "initiative and incentive," much was left up to the workman, while under scientific management, much more was left up to the manager (Taylor 30-1).

The crucial element of scientific management was the "task" which was scientifically calculated and planned by management. "Task specifies what is to be done, how it is to be done and the exact time allowed
for doing it" (Taylor 39). Additionally, from thirty to one hundred percent of a man's wages was given as a bonus for doing a task correctly, within an allotted period of time.

The four principles which constituted the essence of scientific management as they defined the duties of managers included:

1. They develop a science for each element of a man's work, which replaces the old rule-of-thumb method.

2. They scientifically select and then train, teach and develop the workman, whereas in the past he chose his own work and trained himself as best he could.

3. They heartily cooperate with the men so as to insure all of the work being done in accordance with the principles of the science which has been developed.

4. There is an almost equal division of the work and the responsibility between the management and the workmen. The management take over all work for which they are better fitted than the workmen, while in the past almost all of the work and the greater part of the responsibility were thrown on the men. (Taylor 36-7)

By combining both the increased initiative of the worker and new types of work to be performed by the manager, Taylor sought to improve upon the management of initiative and incentive. Taylor believed that the development of a science, which involved the establishment of rules, laws and formulae, would replace the traditional situation wherein the workers possessed all the knowledge of work to be done. The development of a science involved the systematic recording, indexing and timing of tasks and called for a special room in which books and records were kept where a "planner" was housed. Planning thus was removed from the realm of the worker and placed in the hands of management.

The use of a planner to find the optimum way for a task to be done also emphasized the concept of division of labor. For example, men were
assigned by the planner to those tasks to which they were most suited, and work which preceded their tasks and followed the completion of their tasks was done by others, also assigned by the planner. The outcome of such division of labor was the shift of responsibility and work from the workers to a more equal division between workers and management (Taylor 38).

Taylor's scientific management also emphasized the need to treat men as individuals rather than in "gangs" or groups. "Under the plan which individualizes each workman, instead of brutally discharging the man or lowering his wages for failing to make good at once, he is given the time and the help required to make him proficient at his present job" (Taylor 70). Taylor felt that men were stripped of ambition because they were herded into gangs rather than treated as individuals (72). He cited examples of pig iron workers and bricklayers to prove that scientific management was indeed a superior form of management.

Under scientific management, three elements were essential: the careful selection of the workmen, the method of first inducing workmen to work according to scientific methods, and the method of training and helping workmen to work according to the scientific method (Taylor 47).

Classical Management Theory

Management emerged around 1900 with the work of Frederick Taylor and the scientific management movement (March 387). Taylor focused primarily on techniques of workers and low levels of management but his work provided a conceptual framework which was later adopted by administrative management theory, which began with the work of Henri Fayol
Fayol proposed five elements of administration and fourteen principles of administration in his work, General and Industrial Management. In the forward to Fayol's book, Luther Urwick noted, "The work of Taylor and Fayol was, of course, essentially complementary. They both realized that the problem of personnel and its management at all levels is the "key" to industrial success" (Fayol ix). Both Fayol and Taylor applied "scientific method" to the problems of management. Taylor worked primarily from the bottom up whereas Fayol focused on management from the top down:

To manage is to forecast and plan, to organize, to command, to co-ordinate and to control. To foresee and provide means examining the future and drawing up the plan of action. To organize means building up the dual structure, material and human ... to command means maintaining activity among the personnel. To co-ordinate means binding together, unifying and harmonizing all activity and effort. To control means seeing that everything occurs in conformity with established rule and expressed command. (Fayol 6)

Fayol viewed management as one of six activities to which industrial activities gave rise, including technical, commercial, financial, security, accounting and managerial activities (Fayol 3).

Fayol also listed fourteen principles of management based upon his experience in managerial positions. The principles of management included: division of work; authority; discipline; unity of command; unity of direction; subordination of individual interests to the general interest; renumeration; centralization; scalar chain (line of authority); order; equity; stability of tenure of personnel; initiative and espirit de corps (Fayol 19, 20).

In his work General and Industrial Management, division of work was
designed by Fayol to produce more and better work with the same effort and to permit a reduction in the number of objects to which attention and effort were directed (20). Authority was "the right to give orders and the power to exact obedience" (21) while responsibility represented the corollary of authority: "wheresoever authority is exercised, responsibility arises" (21). Discipline was defined as "obedience, application, energy, behavior and outward marks of respect observed in accordance with the standing agreements between the firm and its employees" (22) and was dependent upon good superiors at all levels, fair and clear agreements and sanctions "judiciously applied" (24).

Unity of command represented the notion that a person should receive orders from only one superior (24). Unity of direction was expressed as "one head and one plan for a group of activities having the same objective" (25). Subordination of individual interest to general interest meant that the interest of one individual or group of employees should not prevail over the organizational concern. The means of securing subordination of individual interests included firmness and good example on the part of superiors, fair agreements, and constant supervision (26).

Renumeration of personnel was to be fair and afforded satisfaction to both the employees and the firm. Appropriate renumeration was based upon a good knowledge of business, judgment and impartiality. Scalar chain referred to the chain of superiors ranging from the top source of authority to the lowest ranks (34). Communication was thus to follow the line of authority from one step to the next. Fayol emphasized that superiors may have wished to give subordinates permission to depart from
the strict line of authority ("gang plank").

Fayol's concept of order was expressed as "a place for everyone and everyone in his place" (36). Equity resulted from a combination of kindliness and justice: "equity excludes neither forcefulness nor sternness and the application of it requires much good sense, experience and good nature" (38). Stability of personnel was also considered essential to good management; employees must have felt secure in their tenure which ensured that continuity existed in the organization. The initiative of employees to think out new means to accomplish organizational goals was also an important factor for Fayol; initiative represented "a great source of strength for businesses" (39). Fayol's final principle of management, espirt de corps, emphasized the concept "union is strength" (40).

Fayol also outlined five elements of administration including: planning, organization, command, coordination and control (43-110). Fayol believed that the best method to study an organization was through an analysis of the "administrative apparatus" which was comprised of "a system of recording which includes the present, the past and the future" (Fayol x). Included in the system of recording were the survey (the past, present and future of every aspect of the undertaking); the plan (a synthesis of the various forecasts provided by the survey); reports (from subordinates to superiors regarding the work undertaken utilized as a means of control); minutes of meetings (a record of weekly meetings of various department heads); and the organization chart (demonstrating at a glance the set-up of the undertaking, the hierarchy) (Fayol x-xii).

For both Taylor and Fayol, planning played an essential role in
management. Fayol's second element, organization, was cited by Gulick and Urwick in 1937 as one of the prominent features of classical management theory:

To organize is to define and set up the general structure of the enterprise with reference to its objective, its means of operation and its future course as determined by planning ... It is to give form to the whole and to every detail its place; it is to make the frame and to fill it with its destined contents. (103)

Indeed, the emphasis on structure provided in this definition became a major characteristic of all classical management theory (March 388).

James D. Mooney and Allan C. Reiley, operating executives of General Motors, made the second major attempt to provide a conceptual framework of management principles (March 392). Their work was first published in 1931 entitled Onward Industry and was republished in 1939 as The Principles of Organization. While Fayol was leading the classical theorists in France, Mooney and Reiley became popular in the United States through an analysis of the state, the Roman Catholic Church, the military, and industry. Their work proved to be consistent with Fayol's ideas and provided support for the classical perspective (March 392).

In The Principles of Organization four major principles of organization were outlined: the coordinative principle; the scalar principle; the functional principle; and the staff principle (91-96). The coordinative principle directed attention to the unity of action toward a common purpose achieved through the forces of doctrine, spirit and morale; the scalar principle defined the hierarchical flow of authority and the assignment of duties to various subunits of an organization; the functional principle stressed the need for specification in grouping of
duties; and the staff principle answered the need for advice and ideas by line executives (Massie 392).

Concurrent with the work of Fayol and Mooney and Reiley, Oliver Sheldon espoused the classical management view in his work, The Philosophy of Management, published in England in 1923. Sheldon differentiated between three key terms in his work:

Administration is the function in industry concerned with the determination of the corporate policy, the coordination of finance, production and distribution, the settlement of the compass of the organization, and the ultimate control of the executive.

Management proper is the function in industry concerned with the execution of policy, within the limits set up by administration, and the employment of the organization for the particular objects set before it.

Organization is the process of so combining the work which individuals or groups have to perform with the faculties necessary for its execution that the duties, so formed, provide the best channels for the efficient, systematic, positive, and co-ordinated application of the available effort. (Sheldon 32)

For Sheldon, "Organization is the formation of an effective machine; management, of an effective executive; administration, of an effective direction" (32).

Sheldon's principles of management were broader and less definite than those of Fayol and Mooney (Massie 393). Whereas the principles of other early classical writers were primarily structural and procedural, some of Sheldon's principles were also of an ethical nature. Sheldon's fundamentals of management included:

1. We are in a position to be convinced that there exists a scientific basis of management.

2. If we have established the principle that management can be reduced to a science, we have simultaneously arrived
at the conclusion that management can operate by scientific means rather than by the autocracy of the "boss". (69)

Sheldon viewed management thus: "Management is no longer the wielding of the whip; it is rather the delving into experience and the building upon facts" (69).

According to Massie, "The contributions of Fayol, Mooney and Reiley and Sheldon became the foundations for later statements of management principles" (395). Essentially, the early classical frameworks focused not on complex concepts but on simple explanations for implementation by the practicing manager. Fayol, Mooney and Reiley and Sheldon all provided principles which could be readily applied by practitioners.

Some of the useful concepts which evolved from the classical management theorists included: the scalar principle (chain of command); unity of command (one superior); the exception principle (superiors dealt with the exceptional rather than the routine); span of control (number of subordinates reporting to a superior); organizational specialization (division of work into specialized units) and the profit center concept (division of work into self-contained units) (March 396-401).

The classical school also developed the concept of policy to serve as a formal guide for management for purposes of coordination of actions of subordinates (March 404). "With this orientation, they viewed management as primarily the formalization of relationships" (March 404). In fact, in some classical writing, it was implied that if an organization could not be charted, it was not a good organization. The formal structure, thus, could best be made effective by explicit, written,
directives. "In organization, this led to an emphasis on formal organization charts and manuals" (March 404).

In 1937, Luther Gulick and Lyndall Urwick published *Papers on the Science of Administration*, which, among others, included their own works along with those of Henri Fayol and James Mooney. Gulick's "Notes on the Theory of Organization" (1-46) addressed the theory of organization "as it has to do with the structure of co-ordination imposed upon the work-division units of an enterprise" (3). Gulick's work was subdivided according to: division of work (3); coordination of work (6); organizational patterns (11); interrelation of systems of departmentalization (31); coordination and change (39). In keeping with the classical thinkers, Gulick's work included notions of the structure and flow of authority, span of control, unity of command, the principle of homogeneity, efficiency, vertical and horizontal departmentalization and line and staff (3-45). The work was complete with charts depicting organizational subdivisions and interrelations.

Gulick and Urwick also defined the work of the chief executive with the acronym POSDCORB, which represented the initials for the following functional elements: planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting. Gulick and Urwick's construct borrowed much from the work of Fayol.

Planning included constructing a broad outline of the things that were to be done and methods for doing them to accomplish the organization's purpose. Organizing consisted of the establishment of the formal structure of authority, containing sub-divisions, which were defined and coordinated in keeping with the organizational objectives. Staffing
represented the personnel function of bringing in and training the staff, along with maintaining favorable work conditions. Co-ordinating was the duty of interrelating all parts of the enterprise. Reporting consisted of keeping the executive informed of what was going on, through records, research and inspection, and budgeting included fiscal planning, accounting and control (Gulick and Urwick 13).

Chester I. Barnard, at one time president of the New Jersey Bell Telephone Company, wrote The Functions of the Executive, which was published in 1938. Barnard's organization included the following elements: communication; willingness to serve; and common purpose (82). Barnard also defined organizational effectiveness and efficiency as necessary for the continued existence of organizations. Effectiveness comprised the relevance of an organization's purpose to the environmental situation; efficiency comprised the interchange between the organization and individuals (19, 55). Barnard differed significantly from the aforementioned classical theoretical perspectives in that he tended to place a much stronger focus on motivational elements than on structural features (Grusky 3). As Hall stated, "While Weber emphasized the system, Barnard is concerned with members of the system" (20).

Current Theoretical Perspectives

Following the classical management theory era, several divergent perspectives arose in an attempt to more completely explain organizational life, including structural theorists, group theorists, individual theorists, technology theorists and economic theorists (Hall 42-49). Two more current theoretical perspectives which seem of unique relevance
to an examination of the current state of intercollegiate athletics were briefly discussed: functional theory and compliance theory.

Functional Theory

The functional approach to organization which was developed in the 1950's represented an outgrowth of the classical theoretical perspectives. According to The Dictionary of Modern Sociology, functional analysis referred to "research which stresses the contributions, (negative or positive) made by social or cultural phenomena to the socio-cultural systems of which the phenomena are a part" (49). Functional analysis has been termed structural-functional analysis and functionalism.

The structure-function approach emphasized organization as a social form; it was assumed that the best way to understand the functioning of the organization was to concentrate on the organization itself, rather than its members (Litterer 58). Implicit in this approach to organizations was that individuals were viewed only as they contributed to the organization and that the organization was conceptualized completely apart from its members. Weiss viewed the organization as a social form which had the following characteristics:

1. A set of individuals in offices;
2. individual responsibility for definite tasks—functional activities— which are parts of a division of labor;
3. an organizational goal to which the activities of the staff contribute, and
4. a stable system of coordinative relationships, a structure. (62)

Weiss defined an office as a "position in the organizational structure in regard to which role prescriptions exist" (62). The office was complete with expectations of performance shared among organization
members, a title, formal specification of duties, a salary scale, and a place on the organizational chart. Functional activities were tasks allocated to offices which became the responsibility of whoever filled the office; such tasks also contributed to the attainment of organizational goals. Organizational goals were the basis for the existence of jobs within the organization. Although organizational goals may not have been the personal goals of any or all employees, organization members must have performed their jobs well so that the organizational goals would be met (Weiss 61-63).

Implicit in the understanding of organizational goals was the definition of an organization as a "collectivity for the achievement of something" (Weiss 64). Management played an important role in regard to organizational goals: "the high ranking executives ... are responsible for the development of a program, a plan of action for the organization by which the goal may be achieved" (63).

The final component of Weiss' organization was the organizational structure. "The structure (is) the characteristic of the organization which reflects its method of operation in the same way that anatomy reflects physiology" (64). The structure of the organization reflected the division of labor; the structure changed very slowly under ordinary circumstances. It is noteworthy that the emphasis on structural aspects of organizations in the structure-function approach paralleled much of the rationale behind Weber's bureaucracy.

In the contemporary work "The Study of Formal Organizations" in American Sociology, Perspectives, Problems and Methods (Talcott Parsons, ed.) Peter Blau discussed the concept of formal organization relative to
the classic theory of bureaucracy of Max Weber. Blau stated that the defining criteria of a formal organization was "the existence of procedures for mobilizing and coordinating the efforts of various, usually specialized, subgroups in the pursuit of joint objectives" (56). However, Blau noted that activities in organizations rarely corresponded to official prescriptions and that the actual departures from official prescriptions were what made for interesting study:

If all relations among the members of organizations and all their activities were completely predetermined by formal procedures, however, organizations would evidently not pose meaningful problems for scientific inquiry, because everything about them could be ascertained by simply examining the official blueprints and procedure manuals. (56)

According to Blau, Weber's functional analysis of the characteristics of bureaucracy as related to rational, efficient administration fell short of total organizational analysis. Weber addressed the manner in which elements in the organization contributed to effective functioning, but "what is missing is a similar systematic attempt to specify the dysfunctions of the various elements and to examine the conflicts that arise between the elements comprising the system" (60).

The concept of organizational functional analysis has also been discussed in depth by Robert Merton, in Social Theory and Social Structure. Merton stated:

... a theory of functional analysis must call for specification of the social units subserved by given social functions and that items of culture must be recognized to have multiple consequences, some of them functional and others, perhaps, dysfunctional. (90)

The central orientation of functionalism, according to Merton was expressed in the practice of interpreting data by establishing their
consequences for larger structures in which they were implicated (101). Functions were "those observed consequences which make for the adaptation or adjustment of a given system" while dysfunctions were "those observed consequences which lessen the adaptation or adjustment of the system" (Merton, 105). An item may have had both functional and dysfunctional consequences, a fact which must have been taken into consideration in policy formation and enactment.

Merton also distinguished between the subjective "aim-in-view" and the objective consequence: manifest functions were "those objective consequences contributing to the adjustment or adaptation of the system which are intended and recognized by participants of the system" while latent functions were "those which are neither intended nor recognized" (105).

Compliance Theory

Contemporary author Amital Etzioni identified compliance as a central element of organizational structure in his work A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations. Etzioni's compliance theory offered an intriguing perspective on the ordering of organizations according to power structure. Etzioni defined compliance as "both a relation in which an actor behaves in accordance with a directive supported by another actor's power, and the orientation of the subordinated actor to the power applied" (3). Etzioni's compliance relationships, based on the associations of kinds of power with kinds of involvements, served as the basis for his classification of organizations (4).

Etzioni's classification of organizations reflected their
predominant compliance patterns: coercive, utilitarian and normative (23). In coercive organizations, coercive power was predominant and high alienation of lower participants occurred; utilitarian organizations utilized remuneration as the major means of control and calculative involvement typified the relationship of most participants to the organization; and normative organizations were those in which normative power was the major source of control over lower participants and high commitment characterized the orientation of participants to the organization (23-29).

"Compliance in normative organizations rests principally on internalization of directives accepted as legitimate" (Etzioni 40). Educational organizations were considered by Etzioni as normative organizations but although they usually used normative controls, coercion was a secondary source of compliance (45). Unlike the public school system, colleges and universities formed a separate class and were viewed as typical normative organizations (45).

Ideology

In Ideology and Utopia, Karl Manheim distinguished between two separate and distinct meanings of the term "ideology": the "particular" and the "total". For Manheim, the particular conception of ideology referred to skepticism of ideas advanced by opponents which were thought of as "conscious disguises" of reality because reality for some reason would not meet their interests. The range of such distortion lay between "half-conscious and unwitting" attempts to disguise reality and "calculated" attempts to deceive others (Manheim 49). The total
concept of ideology, on the other hand, referred to "the ideology of an age or of a concrete historico-socio group, e.g. of a class, when we are concerned with the characteristics and composition of the total structure of the mind of this epoch or of this group" (Mannheim 49, 50).

Mannheim postulated that the particular ideological perspective fell short because it designated only a part of the opponent's assertions as ideologies, it made its analysis of ideas on a purely psychological level and it operated primarily with a psychology of interests (50-51). However, the total conception of ideology "calls into question the opponent's total Weltanschauung (including his conceptual apparatus) and attempts to understand these concepts as an outgrowth of the collective life of which he partakes" (50).

The total conception of ideology differed significantly from the particularistic conception from two additional perspectives. From the total perspective, when one historical epoch was attributed to one intellectual world apart from ours, or if a particular social stratum historically was thought in categories different than our own, we referred to fundamentally different and divergent thought-systems and widely different modes of interpretation and experience (51). "We touch upon the theoretical or noological level whenever we consider not merely the content but also the form, and even the conceptual framework of a mode of thought as a function of the life-situation of a thinker" (51). Also, the total conception utilized a more formal functional analysis than did the particularistic; it was confined to an objective description of the structural differences of person's minds operating in differing social settings (51). Thus, the total conception of ideology
"presupposes simply that there is a correspondence between a given social situation and a given perspective, point of view or apperception mass" (51).

In his study of American big business ideology, Seider related the work of Mannheim to its origin in the work of Karl Marx. "It is from Marx that the sociology of knowledge derived its root proposition: Man's consciousness is determined by his social being" (Seider 803). The relationship of a man to the means of production, or his class, for Marx, placed him in social situations wherein a particular way of thinking became accepted to him. From the Marxist perspective, "the substructure - the economic, technological base of society - is seen as reacting toward and determining the superstructure - all the idea systems or ideologies" (Seider 803). Seider argued that Mannheim went beyond Marx citing factors such as the nation, generation and racial and ethnic ties as factors which combined with a variety of structural forces and provided the basis for ideologies. Mannheim emphasized the importance of non-class ties, allowing a broader base for ideological constellations (803).

In his article "Legitimating Myths and Educational Organization: The Relationship Between Organizational Ideology and Formal Structure," Milton Kamens proposed that the structure of a college or university conformed to its ideology. "Organizational structure must conform to schools' self-perception and their advertised effects on students" (Kamens 208). For schools wherein structure and ideology did not match, two potential outcomes existed: "change or suffering the fate of non-conformity" (Kamens 208). For Kamens, the causal relationship between
structure and ideology was reciprocal: "changes in conception of "student" will produce changes in organizational structure and, similarly, externally induced changes in organizational structure will necessitate a shift in organizational self images" (209). This relationship between organizational structure and ideology had application to the current appraisal of intercollegiate athletics and some of the changes it has recently undergone.

Ideology of the Classical Theoretical Perspectives

In Essays on Sociology, Max Weber stated that "the decisive reason for the advancement of bureaucratic organization has always been its purely technical superiority over any other form of organization" (Weber 214). Speed, unambiguity, continuity, unity, precision, strict subordination, reduction of friction, discretion and reduction of material and personal costs were all optimized by the bureaucratic organization. Such technical advantages of bureaucracy provided strong impetus for its implementation.

For Weber, the development of the money economy was equally as important as a "presupposition of bureaucracy" (204). The organizational realm of feudal domination, cited by Weber in an historical context, necessitated coercion to function and therefore achievement of "steadiness" was difficult (208). Weber sought to remove the worker from the traditional plight of dependence:

... the relative optimum for the success and maintenance of a strict mechanization of the bureaucratic apparatus is offered by a secured money salary connected with the opportunity of a career that is not dependent upon mere accident and arbitrariness. (208)
Weber called for a "principled separation of the private sphere of the official from that of the office" (208).

Weber stressed the impersonal nature of bureaucracy and the subsequent "objective discharge of business without regard for persons." Weber sought to "dehumanize" bureaucracy, to eliminate from official business "love, hatred, and all purely personal, irrational, and emotional elements which escape calculations" (216). He viewed the impersonal nature of bureaucracy as one of its most important attributes.

Changes in the complexity of society and structural changes in the economy brought with them a need for experts, "in lieu of the master of older social structure, who was moved by personal sympathy and favor, by grace and gratitude" (Weber 216). Thus, the rationally trained expert was viewed as the ideal replacement for the tradition-bound, at times, irrational, rule of patrimonial domination.

Weber felt that bureaucracy inevitably accompanied "modern mass democracy" (224). Indeed, bureaucratic organization historically came into being to level social and economic differences: "in nondemocratic states, administrative functions and duties were tied to existing material, social and honorific preferences and ranks" whereas "mass democracy makes a clean sweep of the feudal, patrimonial and - at least in intent - plutocratic privileges in administration" (225). Mass democracy put paid professional labor in place of "historically inherited avocational administration by notables" (225).

Two main themes emerged from the writing of Max Weber which spoke to the changing nature of society at the time in which he lived. The
existing form of government and social order of organizations as unjust: bureaucracy could "level social differences" by offering positions to persons based on their expertise rather than social position; and bureaucracy provided the seemingly most rational, efficient and financially prudent means of organization.

Weber's bureaucratic model represented one of the earliest scholarly attempts to formalize organizational life. From Weber's work, the concept of technical improvements of organizations through adjustments in organizational structure, and particularly through definition of the duties of the "official" led to later works more fully defining formal organizations.

Taylor's scientific management was expressly directed toward securing the most from both the organization and its employees (Hall 42). Taylor, an engineer, sought to define a systematic method of management which would eliminate the management of "initiative and incentive." Essentially, the motivation for Taylor's scientific management was to place the knowledge and control of organizations in the hands of management where formerly knowledge of job skills was often not in possession of management but passed down from generation to generation of workers. Management by initiative and incentive was precarious because it simply relied on the workers to work their hardest. Through scientific management, Taylor sought to "secure maximum prosperity for the employer, coupled with the maximum prosperity for each employee" (9). Taylor defined maximum prosperity in terms of maximum dividends and permanent prosperity which resulted from excellence throughout the organization.
Taylor did not believe that relations between employer and employee should be antagonistic. During a time which witnessed considerable labor unrest, Taylor felt that the interests of the employee and employer were one and the same: prosperity for one could only mean prosperity for the other. "Maximum prosperity can exist only as a result of maximum productivity" (Taylor 12). In order to attain the goal of maximum productivity, Taylor emphasized scientifically based training and development of each worker to afford the "highest class of work" (12).

Taylor maintained that under the existing system, men were motivated to do as little as possible. "In a majority of the cases this man deliberately plans to do as little as he safely can ... in many instances to do not more than one-third to one-half of a proper day's work" (13). If a man were to do more than this, he would be scorned by his fellow workers:

... workers believe it to be directly against their interests to give their largest amount of work and the best quality of work for their employers; they deliberately work as slowly as they dare while they at the same time try to make those over them believe that they are working fast. (Taylor 33)

Taylor referred to this as "soldiering"; natural soldiering resulting from the natural instinct of men to take it easy and systematic soldiering caused by the relations among the men. Taylor believed that soldiering represented the greatest evil in the American workplace.

Taylor also viewed the elimination of soldiering and the improved prosperity which the nation would enjoy as a result of scientific management as a means to alleviate other social evils such as poverty
and suffering (14). He viewed the benefits to the worker as higher wages, shorter working hours, better working conditions and better home conditions (15). He felt that the factors which accounted for soldiering were that inefficient "rule of thumb" methods which existed were not conducive to efficiency; defective systems of management made workers feel it was in their best interests to work slowly; and a universal fallacy among workmen that increased productivity would jeopardize the jobs of some of the workers.

The hypocrisy which Taylor believed was a result of soldiering led to poor relationships between workers and management; often a lack of confidence developed as a result of the employees' antagonistic perspective toward management. Taylor sought to replace coercion and poor relationships between employer and employee with "close, intimate, personal cooperation between the management and the men (which) is the essence of modern scientific management" (26).

Several themes emerged from the work of Taylor which spoke to the beliefs of the author regarding the state of industry and the potential for change. Taylor's scientific management sought not only to maximize profits for employers, but to raise wages and working conditions for employees. Through a prosperous economy, the quality of life of all people would be raised and the security of the future of organizations ensured. The relationship between employers and employees would be harmonious rather than adversarial. So too, labor unions and strikes would perhaps be unnecessary. "Taylor believed that the adoption of scientific management principles by industrial concerns would usher in a new era of industrial peace" (Scott 37).
In his work, *Scientific Management*, Clarence Bertrand Thompson provided "a collection of the more significant articles describing the Taylor system of management" (1). According to Thompson, "It appears that Mr. Taylor's entire system grew out of his determination to break up this practice (soldiering)" (13). Thompson also pointed out that Taylor's scientific management was related to alleviation of larger social problems through the reduction of production costs and the increased purchasing power of the consumer (42-3).

In Thompson's volume, Forrest E. Cardullo provided an insightful analysis of scientific management and, specifically, the causes of industrial inefficiency. He summarized the causes of inefficiency as follows: those which were chargeable primarily to the employer; those which were chargeable primarily to the workmen; and those which were chargeable primarily to the political and industrial system (67).

The causes of industrial inefficiency chargeable to the employer included: mental laziness; prejudice against so-called non-productive labor; timidity of capital; lack of foresight; mental inertia and lack of adaptability; lack of study of the industry; systems of rewarding labor; "holier than thou" spirit of some employers and avarice of the management (Thompson 67-76). The causes which were due to the workmen included: the natural pace of workmen; lack of ambition; mental laziness of workmen; fallacy of the arguments against a good day's work; and enmity to employers (76-80). The causes due to political and industrial systems included: the boom times of the economy followed by periods of business depression; seasonal variations in opportunities for work and the demand for certain products; the debate over whether capital should
be used for the benefit of the community; foolish and wasteful competition; and frequent and sudden changes in laws, customs, fashions and social conditions (81-83).

Thompson provided a unique perspective on some of the social problems of the early 1900's, particularly as they related to industry. The application of scientific management, for Thompson, created the potential for greatly increased efficiency of the entire industrial system (52). Thompson also expressed his perspective on the need for scientific management through an analysis of the development of existing "conventional" management practices it was designed to replace:

In spite of tremendous changes in our social, economic and industrial system, we have been content to adapt or modify methods which originated thousands of years ago. I may liken the system of administration which obtains in most industrial plants to one of those "old homesteads" which dot our New England landscape. They started as a log cabin, to which was successfully added a lean-to, a barn, a shell, an ell, an upper story, and other "modern conveniences." As a result, they are roomy - and also inconvenient. The common system of industrial administration is constructed of the surviving remains of Greek slavery, Roman militarism, Saxon serfdom, the mediaeval guilds, and various other historical oddities, slightly altered to adapt them to the twentieth century conditions, and engrafted on one another in very much the same way as the additions to the old house. (50)

Scientific management sought to optimize conditions for workers and employers through systematic analysis of the tasks of organizations and the use of planning. Scientific management introduced the role of the planner and resulted in increased formalization of organizations. As Perrow noted in his work Complex Organizations, classical management withstood the test of time:

... a successful and durable business of management consulting and an endless series of successful
books rest on the basic principles of the classical management school. These principles have worked and are still working, for they addressed themselves to the very real problems of management. (53)

Intercollegiate Athletics in the United States
- A Current Appraisal

Introduction

Americans have experienced a time of renewed debate over the proper role of sport in the American university (Goodwin "Reform" D25). That debate came about because of nationally publicized cases of abuse in college sport: improper cash payments to athletes, academic unpreparedness of athletes and the abuse of drugs by college athletes (Goodwin "Reform" 8). Indeed, "there is wide agreement among educators, coaches and athletic directors that college sports in America are beset with serious ills" (Goodwin "Reform" D25).

"Exposes of illegal recruiting, gambling and drug use in once sancrosanct sports have become almost routine" reported U.S. News and World Report (16). As the President of Texas Tech. University, Lauro Cavazos stated: "It seems we lost perspective. We lost the sight of what athletics should be within a university" (Horn 2). Horn commented: "Somewhere along the path from the locker room to the playing field, colleges and universities seem to have lost sight of the purpose of intercollegiate athletics" (2).

For some, the "grousing about the fallen nature of sports today" was nothing new (Cramer Kl). Cramer believed that the great American sport monster was created long ago, when society allowed games to assume just a little too much of the Protestant work ethic: when American's
very moral fibre came to be measured by the won-loss record of their local teams (K1). Indeed, "once schools began to organize sports, winning became a serious institutional consideration. Our innocence vanished when we refused to accept losing" (K1). For Cramer, society's view of sports was a mirror, "a sometimes upsetting reflection of much of what is good - and bad - in American society today" (K2).

Frank Deford agreed that college sports have been overemphasized for over a century. Deford viewed athletics as "the spoonful of sugar that makes the educational medicine go down" (58) while he demonstrated that athletics have been vital to the building of the nation's educational system through their high visibility and popularity. Deford was one of a growing number of persons who viewed athletics as a "pox" on all college education, "spreading infection, poisoning anything they touch" (58).

For many, the root of the evil in athletics was a direct result of the intense pressure to win, because the pressure to win led to abuses (Williams 9). Walter Byers, president of the NCAA stated: "there is a growing acceptance of the belief that the conditions of intercollegiate athletics are such that you have to cut corners, you have to circumvent the rules" (Farrell, "NCAA admits" 29). According to Byers, there were a growing number of administrators and coaches who perceived NCAA penalties as "the price of doing business" (Farrell 29) and that the risks involved in punishment were worth the potential rewards of success. Goodwin believed that a "crisis atmosphere" developed because of widespread abuse of rules by schools at the top levels of sports ("Reform" D30).
The emphasis on winning in athletics created pressure to produce sufficient revenue, in some cases, increasing revenue, to ensure future success. A vicious circle may have been created wherein the need to win and to in turn balance an ever-escalating budget led to cheating: "the rewards are so great now that people are trying to take shortcuts" (Goodwin "When the" 8). Rhoden agreed: "Winning has always been important, but now, with so much riding on success, there's more pressure to win and earn money. Whenever money gets involved, things change" (C4).

In his article in Sports Illustrated entitled "No Longer a Cozy Corner," Deford expressed the growing feeling of regret experienced by Americans who have come more to view American sport as seriously flawed:

Coaches, players, colleges and pro teams will lie, cheat, steal, dispense and take drugs, pay and pocket the most outlandish renumeration - all in the name of victory. But then, all too often, real achievement goes unrewarded and triumph is capriciously gained. (48)

Part of the disenchantment Americans felt toward sport was a result of the incredible publicity which sports and sport heroes received. Part of what Americans struggled with was not so much what they saw, but what they didn't; "the ambiguities and the contradictions that we simply can't fathom" (Deford 46).

With the consistent reporting of abuses in athletics, Americans mourned the loss of their sporting heroes, those men and women who personally exemplified sport, democracy, America itself (Smith 59). There were also those who shared the perspective that the most serious scandal of intercollegiate athletics was the exploitation of the
athletes. As more than ninety percent of college athletes never sign professional contracts,

... it is clear that the vast majority, whom you never hear about, have pathetically little to show for four years of their life. They have simply spent four years providing entertainment for their classmates, alumni, media audiences and paying customers in the stadium. (Sowell 2)

As a disproportionate number of college athletes were black, Sowell felt that athletics provided them with a tragic experience: athletics offered a glimpse of a world and an escape from poverty to which they may never otherwise have had access while it created the illusion that more opportunity existed than did in actual fact (2). Essentially, millions of black youths dreamed of being one of the fewer than three thousand black athletes who made professional sports.

Athletics as Big Business

Increasingly, college sport has been labelled big business. "Sports are big business and athletic programs are crucial to the survival of many institutions" (Cramer K8). Revenues and expenditures of large intercollegiate athletic departments often reached in excess of fifteen million dollars annually (Goodwin "When the" 1). The pressure to meet multi-million dollar budgets brought great pressure to win: "winning brings more money than losing" (Goodwin 1). Cecil Ingram, Athletic Director at Florida State University, said: "You show me a program that doesn't emphasize winning, and I'll show you a program that doesn't have any money" (Goodwin 8). Far from being proponents of the simple notion of "sport for sport sake" (Vanderzwaag 1), athletic administrators increasingly emphasized the financial implications of
success. "Athletic departments, facing the pressures of bills to pay and expectations to meet, are as bottom-line oriented as any company on the Fortune 500" (Goodwin 1).

The relationship of athletic departments to universities as a whole were often unique as compared with other departments on campus. Athletic departments' relationships with their universities were commonly business-type interactions, wherein they were charged full price for such items as tuition for student-athletes on scholarships and groundkeeping for athletic facilities, while other campus departments were not assessed such charges. "Dealings with the universities are characterized by businesslike arrangements and negotiations over prices for services and goods" (Goodwin 8).

Concurrent with the evolution of intercollegiate athletics into a business-oriented enterprise, characterized by multi-million dollar budgets and autonomous relationships with the greater university, the nature of the role of the athletic director changed. No longer were institutions hiring former or retired coaches to administer their athletic programs. Rather, "businessmen are filling the athletic director's chairs once occupied by former coaches" (Alfano D30). One of the important roles of athletic directors was to negotiate for television contracts with major networks. Peter Lund, the President of CBS Sports stated,

... the athletic directors we meet are every bit as anxious to make a deal and get TV dollars as any professional entity we deal with. That's what an athletic director does these days." (Goodwin 8)
The Commercialization of Athletics

College sport evolved from the notion of athletic contests purely for the sake of participation into a form of mass entertainment (Goodwin 8). As Deford stated: "Not even Avery Brundage could have denied that sports are entertainment" (55). The major vehicle by which college sport was brought to the American public was, of course, television. It was estimated that television alone would pay up to seven hundred million dollars for the rights to broadcast college sports over the next five years (Goodwin "Reform" D30). Television paid as much as seven hundred and twenty-five thousand dollars to the two teams involved in a regular season football game; at the end of the 1985 football season, thirty-six teams participated in eighteen bowl games and the television revenues alone from those games amounted to forty-one million dollars. Basketball, although not as big a revenue maker for most schools, also brought in significant income: the four teams that participated in the 1986 Final Four were paid a total of eight hundred and thirty-five thousand dollars each (Goodwin "When the" 8).

Walter Byers, past president of the NCAA, perceived television as one of the major villains on the college sporting scene. "Much of the blame for the cheating epidemic can be placed on television and the large amounts of money it provides to winning teams" said Byers (Farrell "NCAA admits" 29). Byers maintained that television perpetuated the cultural idea that "you ought to get it and you ought to get it now" and thus prompted many coaches and administrators to violate rules to achieve success (Farrell 29).

Although success in athletics brought lucrative television contracts
and supported ever-increasing athletic department budgets, perhaps one explanation for the persistent striving of our nation's institutions of higher learning for athletic success lay in the potential of the additional rewards which accompanied athletic success. Indeed, winning resulted in sold-out stadiums and arenas, television appearances and therefore increased revenue. But some university presidents also argued that good teams attracted student applications and had a "spillover" effect on the overall institutional contributions as well (Alfano D30). Athletic success may have also brought with it "an avalanche of favorable publicity" which focused on the institution's academic excellence and ability to compete without compromising its standards (Lipper 2).

Goodwin noted that,

... with higher visibility provided by television and successful athletic programs comes increased numbers of applications from students, which brings in added revenue through application fees and allows the school to be more selective in choosing their student bodies. ("Reform" D30)

Alumni and Athletics

The relationship of alumni, friends and "boosters" of universities to their athletic programs became the focus of increasing scrutiny nationwide. Alfano noted that "athletic boosters have secured a prominent role at universities that have teams playing major sports" (D27). The nature of the role of the booster was called into question. Alfano maintained that the booster was viewed by university officials as a "necessary evil" while at the same time was viewed as the "biggest possible cause of the integrity problem" (D27).

Cramer estimated that booster clubs throughout the United States
raised in excess of one hundred million dollars annually to support athletic programs (K3). Goodwin maintained that there were various motivations for booster involvement, including "hopes of shaping decisions and producing winning teams that will be good for alumni pride as well as local merchants" ("When the" 8). A survey of college presidents revealed that more than eighty-six percent of presidents of U.S. colleges believed that boosters were posing a major threat to college sports (Cramer K3). Indeed, boosters have been linked with major recruiting violations and under-the-table payments to athletes to attract them to college campuses. "The public perceived that improper payments - cheating - are a widespread problem in college athletics" (Horn 2), and boosters were often considered the source of such payments. In fact, violations which pertained to recruiting and financial aid payments to athletes were "so rampant in big-time college sports that the NCAA is having a difficult time tracking down the cheaters" (Farrell "NCAA admits" 29).

Alfano also noted that presidents felt pressure from boosters as well. "The influence of boosters does not stop at the gymnasium. University presidents have to contend with them, too" (D30). Large booster organizations which controlled millions of dollars in donations to universities wielded considerable power. Some athletic booster groups donated large sums to academic programs and could have potentially made chief executives leery of creating communication problems with them for fear of losing their sizeable academic donations (Alfano D30).

Harry Edwards defined a major sociological problem inherent in the fact that black athletes very often comprised a high percentage of
the athletes that made up a successful athletic program. "To many white alumni and boosters, the alma mater is represented by mercenaries, black supermen who can leap and run but who really aren't much like us" (Deford 58). Although black athletes represented a university in athletic contests, they may never really have felt much a part of it (Deford 58). Deford also noted that alumni and boosters were not quite as forgiving of young black recruits as they were of local athletes:

It was one thing when our homegrown sports star was drunk and disorderly or got caught with his hand in the till or his bare bottom in the sorority house. It's quite another thing when the same human frailties are exhibited by some transient. (55)

Drugs and Athletics

During the summer of 1986, several incidents involving the use of illicit drugs served to focus national attention on the use of drugs in sport, and simultaneously, in American society. Perhaps the most media attention focused on the death of Len Bias, a basketball star from the University of Maryland who died of cocaine intoxication just two days after being drafted by the Boston Celtics. Bias' death not only resulted in numerous reforms aimed at greater accountability within the University of Maryland basketball program but also brought attention to the abuse of drugs in college athletics nationwide.

Just eight days after the death of Len Bias, Don Rogers, safety for the Cleveland Browns, died of a cocaine-induced heart attack. Rogers' death demonstrated that the lesson that should have been learned from Bias' death had been lost on Rogers; he died the day before he was to marry his high-school sweetheart. Subsequently, in July of 1986, three
star players from the University of Virginia football team made the headlines when they were charged with conspiring to distribute cocaine. They faced thousands of dollars in fines and prison terms of up to sixteen years each (Lamar 53). Lapchick reported that in 1986 "fifty-seven of the top collegiate prospects for the NFL draft tested positive for drugs" (33).

Harry Edwards, prominent sociologist and author of Sociology of Sport, has been most vocal about the relationship of drugs and sport. Edwards believed that drug abuse by athletes was simply a reflection of both a greater societal problem and the nature of sports, and he predicted an ominous future:

Len Bias and Don Rogers may constitute only the first wave of tragic drug-abuse casualties from within the ranks of athletes who have matured with the drug counter-culture and with big-time sports. (Lamar 53)

Edwards' statements were echoed by Dean Smith, head coach of the basketball team at the University of North Carolina: "What we are seeing in sports is a by-product of what's going on in society" (Lamar 53). Indeed, drugs have become a problem of national proportions. In "Nine Days in June" Life reported that for the nine days in June 1986 that followed the deaths of Bias and Rogers, one-hundred and fifty-seven others also died of drug abuse (83). "Joint by joint, line by line, pill by pill, the use of illegal drugs on the job has become a crisis for American business" (Brecher 52). It has been estimated that drug abuse costs the American economy nearly twenty-six billion dollars per year in lost productivity, medical expenses and crime (Brecher 55). The link of drug abuse and crime has caused the NCAA to implement an
expansive campaign to eliminate drug abuse among athletes:

The association's new drug-testing program is designed not only to deter drug use among players, but also to prevent as much as possible the related problem of game fixing as it is influenced by drug abuse. (Farrell "Drugs and" 36)

Gambling and Athletics

"Whether we like it or not, gambling is a big part of the American sports scene" (Lapchick 53). One of the less conspicuous aspects of intercollegiate athletics that received less publicity than drug abuse but that remained an insidious problem was that of gambling, specifically, point shaving. According to Cramer, "gambling and point shaving are as much a part of college basketball as the zone defense and twenty minute halves" (K2). Deford pointed out that the point spread created a reality of two games: the one played and the one handicapped (49). The notion that "you're not losing the game, son, you're just shaving a few points" fostered the notion that "a victory of sorts can be gained in defeat" (Deford 49). There also existed the tenuous connection between drug abuse and point shaving: drug users may have perceived a missed shot here and there as an easy way to acquire money for drugs.

Academics and Athletics

Ernest Boyer, president of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, stated:

I believe that the college sports system is one of the most corrupting and destructive influences on higher education. It is obscene, and there is no way to put an educational gloss on this enterprise. (Goodwin "When the" 8)
Athletic enterprises have been viewed as accepting academically unprepared students; making little effort to provide an education for them; and essentially "kissing them goodbye" when they are either injured or no longer eligible for competition (Cramer K3). "College athletes often find their careers finished before their educations have begun" (Cramer K3). However, Cramer noted that taking shots at athletes as "paid gladiators" had become a sport in its own right. Indeed, "it is a very crowded soapbox from which the connections between school and sports are criticized" (Cramer K2).

From one increasingly popular perspective, athletes were simply used by universities to produce revenue in athletics (Cramer K3). Their only reason to be in school was to win athletic contests. Edwards likened college sports programs who "shuffled" their players through to the "limbo" of underqualified, often marginally employed ex-jocks, to a "plantation system": "they use up (the athletes) and when they're finished, there's no place to go" (Bowen "The worst" 64). Some of the statistics indicated that in reality: fewer than thirty percent of the professional athletes who attended college received degrees ("Should college" 56); sixty-five to seventy-five percent of black athletes never graduated from colleges they represented in sports, and of those black athletes who obtained degrees, seventy-five percent majored in physical education, sports administration or communications where occupational marketability was limited; and over ninety-eight percent of all college basketball and football players never made a payday as professionals (Edwards "Academic expectations" 24).

From yet another perspective, the cases of black male athletes in
football and basketball tended to be emphasized but in relation to the total numbers of men and women who participated in intercollegiate athletics, they were not wholly representative. A study by the American College Testing Program demonstrated graduation rates for male athletes about ten percent higher than for students in general. "The tragic case of athletes who didn't get a good education aren't many compared with the two hundred and twenty-five thousand men and women athletes at NCAA institutions" claimed the NCAA ("Should college" 56).

Gladwell stated that "perhaps most disturbing is the way college athletics systematically exploits black youths" (13). Gladwell was skeptical as to whether or not current reforms would prohibit schools from continuing to do so. Edwards agreed that disproportionate numbers of black young men and women have been channeled toward athletic careers and have been victims of the system. Edwards felt that the choice of playbooks over textbooks came as a result of the unwillingness of black adults to direct their children towards academics. "For the better part of two decades, black society either has tolerated or been oblivious to extraordinarily disproportionate black casualties in the struggle for sports supremacy" (Edwards "Academic" 19).

The lure of lucrative professional sports careers motivated many young athletes to focus on their athletic rather than academic pursuits. Statistics revealed that only a very few college athletes ever made the professional ranks. "The truth is that the odds are better for high-school athletes to become a doctor or an attorney than to become pro athletes", reported Richard Lapchick, Director for the Center for the Study of Sport in Society (Williams 14). Lapchick reported that the
odds are staggering: "only one in every twelve thousand high school athletes will be fortunate enough to make it to the top of the mountain and become a pro" (18). In light of the limited opportunities for professional sports careers, an alternative was suggested by Tim Green, an All-American football player and Rhodes Scholarship candidate. Green suggested a separate vocational curriculum for those who were, in effect, studying for a professional athletic career. Green proposed "practical, appropriate courses of study" to meet the needs of some student-athletes (Williams 14).

Others would like to have seen student-athletes share in the rewards they bring to athletic departments and institutions:

Amateurism is an ideological instrument to keep athletes from sharing in the wealth they create. It's based on two myths: that being paid for athletic achievement is immoral or unethical and that the ancient Greek athletes didn't receive valuable rewards. ("Should college" 56)

Some felt that payments to athletes would reduce the need for illegal recruiting activities; to allow athletes to stop living a lie. "The only solution to the problem, as far as I can see, is to do away with the notion - and that's exactly what it is - of amateur sports and pay college athletes salaries, just like the pros," said Billie Jean King (60). Rather than learning how to survive in a corrupt system, King would like to have seen athletes learn about the business world. She proposed a curriculum wherein athletes would be able to major in athletics and learn about agents, interviews, administration and sports marketing (King 60).

The relationship between academics and athletics appeared to be a challenging and perplexing one, one which was embedded in the very nature
of the achievement-oriented American society. Referring to academically unprepared athletes, Cramer noted that "every Division I school (major college sports institution) has kids with that kind of (academic) record, and if they deny it, they're lying" (K5). It is indeed a pervasive, complex problem to which there appear to be no easy solutions.

Recent College Athletics Scandals and Their Repercussions

Over the past several years, numerous scandals have plagued major college sports programs, attracted national media coverage and focused attention on aspects of college athletics aside from wins and losses. At Tulane University, basketball center John Williams was on trial on two counts of sports bribery and three counts of conspiracy for his alleged role in point-shaving schemes involving three games during the 1984-85 season (Keteyian 25). Although Williams' case was dismissed due to a mistrial, the case brought considerable attention to the relationship between college athletics and gambling. (As an interesting aside, it was revealed in the trial that John Williams was reported as having told his coach that he could not even read the verbal portion of the SAT test (Bowen "The worst" 64).) As a result of the scandal, the Tulane University men's basketball program was dropped.

In a statement following the demise of the basketball program, Tulane's President Eamon Kelly was asked when the school's basketball program would be restored. He responded:

When there is an end to the commercialization of collegiate athletics, elimination of the culture of win at all costs in order to appear on television and a removal of the economic incentives of inter-collegiate basketball. (Cramer K6)
Four universities which received NCAA sanctions during the 1985–86 season included Clemson University, the University of Florida, Southern Methodist University and Tulane University. A survey conducted under the auspices of the NCAA revealed that these institutions reported serious problems. The survey related the following characteristics of those institutions:

1. unclear lines of responsibility;
2. a distant and laissez-faire approach by presidents until problems appeared in the press and the faculty demanded attention; and
3. athletic departments that were separate from the rest of the university and operated in an autonomous or semi-autonomous manner. (Farrell "Sports Departments" 38)

The report summarized that the institutions revealed inadequate internal administration and control (Farrell 38).

In January of 1986, three University of Minnesota basketball players were arrested for sexually assaulting a Madison, Wisconsin, woman (Gladwell 13). The team's coach, Jim Dutcher, stated that the athletes in the basketball program were simply "out of his control." Dutcher publicly stated that he could not set reasonable disciplinary standards for fear that he would lose his athletes to teams he would then have to compete against (Gladwell 13).

The University of Wisconsin, Madison, was involved in a scandal when it was reported that a former player had received a guarantee on a personal bank loan from an athletic booster. Prior to the NCAA hearing, the university took a series of self-imposed corrective actions, including:
1. the implementation of a comprehensive compliance program at the university;

2. a monitoring procedure for all outside athletics representatives;

3. removal of two outside athletics representatives from involvement in the university's athletics program;

4. the forfeiture of games won and records achieved from January 25, 1982 to March 1984 due to participation of an ineligible student-athlete, and

5. action against the current men's head basketball coach who was aware in 1982 of the primary violation considered in the case. ("NCAA Places" 7)

In the most highly publicized case to date regarding academics and athletics, Janice Kemp, coordinator of the English section of the developmental studies program at the University of Georgia, brought suit against the institution for violation of her first amendment rights (Nack 35). Kemp sued for damages totalling $100,000 and was awarded in excess of $2.5 million by the jury. Kemp contended that athletes at the University of Georgia were being used "as a kind of raw material in the production of some goods to be sold" while they got "nothing in return" (Nack 35).

Kemp complained because nine football players were allowed to move from the remedial learning program into the regular university curriculum despite failing grades in their final quarters of English. All nine players went on to play in the 1982 Sugar Bowl. Kemp protested, and the ensuing lawsuit brought national attention to virtually every aspect of the University of Georgia's athletic program. Kemp contended that she sued to stop the practice of athletes being used at Georgia and across the nation: "Athletes are being harmed; they're not better off."
They come in expecting to make the pros and earn a diploma. Most of them do neither" (Nack 42).

The national scope of the publicity surrounding the Georgia case was viewed as a message to all athletic departments. It was a "real indictment of the system, and not just Georgia" (Bowen "Blowing" 65). "The court is setting an example for other schools and putting them on notice that this abuse can't be tolerated" (Bowen 65). As a result of the Kemp case, Georgia was considered to be in a unique position to make some difficult decisions about the relationship of the university and its athletic department (Shearer 3). "The nation is looking to Georgia to see what it will do," said John C. Weistart, Duke University law professor.

Weistart addressed a Georgia University faculty reform committee and advised that "a college or university should first decide what sort of educational institution it wants to be. Its athletics program should mirror those choices and adhere to the same level of academic aspiration" (Shearer 3). Weistart argued that athletes should reflect the general student population at a university and that often "educationally distinct" athletes were justified by the services they performed for their universities. For Weistart, such logic was faulty because:

... colleges and universities are endowed with a public trust that assumes they will further the education of young people; the stated guidelines of the NCAA assume the athletes will be like other students in the university ... I believe there is great potential for embarrassment to a university when its athletics department operates distinctly from the university. (Shearer 3)

Weistart believed that athletic-related scandals impeded the educational functions of large universities and were simply a reflection of the fact
that intercollegiate athletics were "just a little out of whack".

The cocaine induced death of University of Maryland basketball
star Len Bias focussed national attention on the abuse of drugs by
athletes. Bias' death resulted in an intense investigation by a
committee at the University of Maryland which looked into the academic
achievement of athletes focusing on the following questions:

1. Do the policies and procedures for student-athletes
   at the university clearly support the academic philosophy
   and goals of the institution?

2. Are the roles and responsibilities of student-athletes,
   coaches and athletic department officials clearly defined?

3. What policies, procedures and programs are in place
   for the recruitment, admission and orientation of student-
   athletes?

4. What policies, procedures and programs for academic and
   non-academic support and guidance of the student-athletes
   are in place? Are they adequate?

4. In what way are the academic and curricular components
   of the campus integrated into, and supportive of, the
   athletic program? (Farrell "Colleges Eye" 23-4)

John B. Slaughter, Chancellor of the University of Maryland, after
the death of Len Bias, stated: "I believe firmly that we must establish
a policy that encourages and supports the retention of student-athletes
toward graduation and not merely eligibility for inter-collegiate
athletics" ('Slaughter asks" 10). Slaughter felt that a sound educa-
tional policy regarding academic progress of student-athletes on his
campus was long overdue. He viewed participation in intercollegiate
athletics as a privilege for students; as representatives of the campus,
student-athletes must adhere to higher academic performance standards
than they had been in the past.
The University of Virginia underwent a self-analysis much like that of the University of Maryland. Virginia enjoyed increasing success in its athletic programs from 1982-86, but during that time, Virginia athletes also brought unfavorable publicity to the institution:

The list of individual transgressions in recent years - they include honor-code violations, assault cases, charges of theft, suspensions for breaking team rules and the selling of drugs - runs longer than one that could be compiled over the same period for the schools against which Virginia normally competes. (Lipper 2)

Although the university president, Robert M. O'Neil, believed that there was no inherent conflict between athletic success and academics, many of his faculty did not agree. One professor stated:

It has become a national institution with high ambitions. We have a nationally known faculty ... at the same time we have an athletic program that seeks to compete with anyone in the country. Can the institution do both things? (Lipper 3)

As reported in the March 1987 issue of the Chronicle of Higher Education, twenty-four institutions as of that date were under NCAA sanctions (49).

The Recent Trend Toward Accountability

"Outraged by sports corruption, college presidents finally try to take charge" (Williams 8). Indeed, college presidents have played an increasingly significant role in the efforts toward dealing with some of the problems of intercollegiate athletics. In the summer of 1985, presidents demonstrated the depth of their concern by turning out in unprecedented numbers for a special convention called by the NCAA President's Commission to specifically address the "integrity crisis" in college athletics (Williams 8).
The NCAA President's Commission was formed in 1983 and consisted of a forty-four member group designed "to enable chief executives to become more involved in athletics" (Williams 9). The President's Commission proposed a stringent set of rule changes including:

1. Division I schools would have to make annual reports to the NCAA on the academic progress and graduation rates of athletes;
2. athletes themselves would be held accountable for any violations in which they participate;
3. an annual independent audit would be made of all athletic expenditures, including those made by boosters not officially connected with an institution;
4. a school's athletic budget would be subject to its normal budgeting procedures - in other words, no separate books;
5. NCAA restrictions resulting from violations by a coach be applied to that coach even if he has already moved to another institution; and
6. at any institution found guilty of two major NCAA violations in any sport within a five-year period, the program guilty of the second violations would be all but wiped out for up to two years: no recruiting, no scholarships and perhaps no games. (Williams 9, 10)

All of the proposals passed the NCAA floor overwhelmingly, some unanimously, "a tribute not only to the presidents' new clout in athletic policy but also to higher educations' profound embarrassment about its sports scandals" (Williams 9). It was demonstrated by the NCAA commissioned study into athletic departments that colleges whose presidents exercised considerable responsibility for control of their athletic programs gave strong internal control as the reason for their confidence (Farrell "Sports Departments" 37).

The NCAA mandated more strict academic requirements for
entering college freshmen. Proposition 48, requiring a minimum of a 2.0 grade point (C average) in eleven core classes and either a seven hundred on the SAT (Standard Aptitude Test) or fifteen on the ACT (American College Test), was enacted effective August 1, 1986. Athletes who failed to meet these criteria would be deemed ineligible for practice and competition during their freshman seasons and lost one year of eligibility.

The NCAA has also mandated drug testing of student-athletes, effective August 1, 1986. More than three thousand student-athletes in all sports, including some from each of the sixty-four teams participating in the Division I men's basketball championship, would be involved in drug testing. The purpose of the drug testing program was stated as follows:

... to prevent the use of performance-enhancing drugs that undermine the integrity of athletic competition ... so that no one participant might be pressured to use chemical substances in order to remain competitive. ("NCAA Drug-Testing" 1)

The drug testing legislation provided that student-athletes would be required to sign a statement consenting to be tested for the use of drugs prohibited by NCAA legislation prior to participation in intercollegiate competition. Additionally, failure to sign such a statement would result in ineligibility.

University presidents became increasingly involved in overseeing athletic operations; the President's Commission was formed to allow presidents more say in intercollegiate athletic policy making; the NCAA membership passed legislation setting higher standards for academic qualifications for incoming student-athletes; and the membership passed legislation regarding drug-testing of student-athletes. At the
in institutional level, many presidents became more actively involved on their campuses in supervising athletics, and many institutions across the country have begun to formulate their own drug-testing policies and procedures.

The Current Status of Policies and Procedures Manuals in Athletics

In their research regarding the role and status of policies and procedures manuals in Division IA athletic departments, Drs. Richards and Edberg-Olsen found that "there appears to be a trend toward the establishment of MPPs (manuals of policies and procedures) nationally" (39). They acknowledged and stressed the need for policies and procedures manuals for utilization in routine operations and normal daily activities (38). The authors also noted that the role of the athletic director has changed dramatically over the last decade:

The glare and demands of multimillion-dollar budgets, expensive and oftentimes image-damaging litigation, as well as increased awareness of athletic programs by the general public, have forced athletic administrators to conduct the affairs of their departments in a manner similar to that of entrepreneurs and efficient executives of business enterprises or corporations. (38)

Michael Cleary, Executive Director of the National Association of Collegiate Directors of Athletics (NACDA), commented:

A comprehensive outline for a Division I policies and procedures manual could indeed be beneficial to intercollegiate athletics. Though certainly there are slight variances from one institution to the next, a structured model would help standardize the industry and add consistency among universities. (Appendix III)

The concept of a policies and procedures manual for intercollegiate athletics had its genesis in business. The American Management Association reported:
Procedures that affect a particular function are collected in a manual. This arrangement makes it easier to get an overall view of the relevant procedures pertaining to a particular function. Individual departments will have on file the manuals that affect their activities. (Moore 2-20)

Carlisle stipulated that the horizontal flow of the primary processes of organizations required regulation and direction for coordination to be achieved. Thus procedures were established "to assign appropriate responsibility to each organizational unit involved and to sequence the activities containing the process" (346). Carlisle defined policies as closely related to strategy. "Policies constitute more the internal strategy of the firm. They are general guides to organization behavior and provide operating parameters within which decisions should be made" (568). In an organization, each major function should have policies relating to that function. Additionally, policy making was the prerogative of the top management; it was one of the most significant responsibilities of management (Carlisle 568).

Boone and Kurtz defined policies as "general guidelines for decision making" while procedures were "guides to action that specify in detail the manner in which activities are to be performed" (111). These authors stressed that procedures tended to be narrower in scope than policies; procedures were often intended for policy implementation.

Cannon viewed policies as "guides to future decisions and actions" (10). Policies thus provided a point of reference for future decisions or provide, in advance, action which should be taken in recurring situations. "The need for both major and minor policy guides exists at virtually all levels of management structure" (Cannon 10).

Emery defined the development of policy in relationship to the role
of management to control environmental exchanges necessary for survival and growth: "The central feature of the policy of the enterprise being a determination of what ends it shall pursue with the means actually or potentially available" (Emery 42). In this definition of policy, there was a direct relationship between the demands of the environment and the relationship of the organization to its environment:

Specification of the primary task or strategic objective furnishes the organization with stability and direction in the face of environmental uncertainty. Without clear policy, the organization is subject to a rudderless course as it negotiates its environment. (Cummings et al 225)

In his article on the development and distribution of employee handbooks, Cowan noted six phases which were taken into consideration: setting objectives; research and content determination; preparation of handbook draft and legal review; format, design and printing; distribution; and follow-up (342). Cowan emphasized that all six steps were crucial to the development and maintenance of a useful employee handbook. Employee handbooks should:

1. set the model for a quasi-contract between the company and the employee by providing the corporation with a set of documented work rules and corporate policies to serve as both clarification of the company's position and as a behavioral guide for the employee;

2. define for the employee, the corporate stature on employment policies ... which create a feeling of pride in belonging and a sense of commitment, motivation and good feeling;

3. provide the employee with his own personal reference copy of the company's operating procedures and benefits and ... an understanding of his role as a company member;

4. maintenance in a current state to serve as updated informational source;
5. serve as the primary communication tool for the meetings to be held between employees and supervisors and should serve as an initial communication effort in the establishment of the upward-downward communication network; and

6. provide the recruitment area with a tool to be used for all new employees. (Cowan 342)

Cowan stressed the importance of frequent updating of manuals; the advantages of using three-ring binders for ease of revisions; the importance of dating each page of the manual, including revisions; and distribution in a well-defined, organized manner, to reflect the attitude of management toward the value of the book (343-344).

In "Making New Employees A Part of Your Team," Bistline demonstrated the importance of a policy and procedure handbook, particularly for orientation of new employees. Bistline also cited the importance of written job descriptions, contained in such a handbook: "It helps eliminate infighting over territory (which is so damaging to association) and gives both staff and management a clear idea of what is expected of them" (Bistline 49).

An assessment of employee handbooks from the legal perspective was offered by Jana Howard Carey, an attorney who specialized in representing management in labor relations, equal opportunity and employment law matters (Carey 171). From Carey's perspective, employee handbooks may have had their problems for employers, but "as much if not more risk is posed by unwritten policies and practices" (172). The difficulty inherent in oral representations to employees was that many state courts held them contractually binding, and such cases were particularly problematic because of difficulties in proving or disproving policy that the employee may have alleged (Carey 172). Carey warned of the
legal risks inherent in policy manuals and emphasized the need for legal review prior to distribution to employees.

Some general suggestions Carey offered for handbook drafting: say precisely only what you mean; carefully consider what is to be left out; and include "limiting language" where appropriate (174-176). Carey also recommended that drafters of handbooks utilize upbeat, positive and personal language; keep sentences brief and to-the-point; consider and specify which employees to which the document applies; create a handbook of manageable size presented in an attractive format; keep it current and use a format that reflects this; and create a "user-friendly" handbook (177-178).

Ideology of Intercollegiate Athletics

The evolution of intercollegiate athletics over the past few decades has resulted in what many perceive to be "a big, profitable business on many campuses" (Goodwin "When the" 1). The notion of athletic competition as the embodiment of much of what was good about America, i.e. providing a training ground for young people who learned the virtues of self-discipline, hard work, goal orientation, teamwork and competitive spirit, resulted in what many perceived to be opposed to those goals. "The altruistic goal is becoming perverted because the financial reward is so great. The money creates an enormous amount of pressure and an educational dichotomy" (Goodwin 1).

The development of financially autonomous departments of intercollegiate athletics which relied largely on success for financial support and hence existence and perpetuation, created an entity on many
college campuses which was distinct and often differentiated from the
educational setting by virtue of its goals, operations procedures and
financial resources. While universities focused on teaching and re­
search, athletic departments focused on winning athletic contests;
while academicians worked toward and enjoyed tenure, coaches and ath­
letic administrators often possessed only annual contracts, renewable
on the basis of won/loss records and gate recepits; while students on
college campuses worked toward careers in their chosen fields through
earning degrees, athletes often worked toward their goals of becoming
professional athletes, goals which did not necessitate the earning of
college diplomas.

As Deford suggested, Americans were perhaps uncertain about the
role of sports in our society. "What has happened to sports in the post
World War II era is that while they have assumed a larger role in soci­
ety, nobody has the foggiest idea what that role should be" (Deford 47).

Perhaps what called to question not only the role of athletics
in America, but the manner in which intercollegiate athletic programs
were organized and administered, was the series of nationally publicized
"scandals" which brought some stark realities to light. Reports of
prominent college athletes involved in gambling and drug abuse, of
exceedingly low academic skills of college athletes who gained entrance
into institutions of higher learning, and of university alumni and
boosters involved in illegal payments to prospective recruits and
athletes have caused the public, as well as academic administrators, to
examine the role of athletic on college campuses across the nation.

A trend toward accountability in intercollegiate athletics
resulted from the closer scrutiny of athletic programs by the media, the public and university presidents. Formalized regulations, both institutional and NCAA, emerged to address some of the apparent ills of athletics: the NCAA drug testing program, the NCAA core academic eligibility requirements, the formation of the NCAA President's Commission to bring chief executive officers of institutions of higher learning in touch with athletics. At the institutional level, many administrators, including the Board of Regents at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas, mandated the formalization of policies and procedures for the administration of their athletic departments. All the institutions who suffered the adverse publicity of national athletic-related scandals have taken a long and hard look at their policies and procedures in athletics; a trend which will no doubt continue as the role of intercollegiate athletics in higher education continues to evolve.

Ideology of Classical Theoretical Perspectives and the Ideology of Intercollegiate Athletics

Emanating from the work of Weber and Taylor, the development of classical organizational theory resulted in increased formalization of organizations. Weber's bureaucratic model was characterized by a division of labor, a chain-of-command within a hierarchy, specification of decision making powers, and application of organizational rules. Management was based upon written documents, "the files," and organizational rules and procedures were derived from organizational goals. Weber sought both technical superiority and an impersonal organization wherein social differences were leveled. Bureaucracy essentially addressed a
social condition with a formal order which stressed coordinated activities of persons, a clearly defined organizational pattern and individual competence rather than social position.

Scientific management was based upon scientifically determined tasks and called for formalization with regard to determining the tasks and allocation of tasks among workers. Taylor's "office of the planner" was designed to formalize procedures for workers wherein charts, records, plans and organizational documents were filed. Scientific management sought to replace conventional management practices which relied heavily on the incentive of the workers as the knowledge of methods was passed down from generation to generation of workers and was not in the possession of management. Scientific management addressed industrial inefficiency and proposed methods for improvement of both employee and employer conditions, hence a generally enhanced way of life for all.

Formalization of organizations came about in the early 1900's as a response to social and economic conditions. The motivation for Weber was to provide a fair and equitable means of ordering organizations for workers; for Taylor and the scientific management theorists, the motivation was to increase industrial efficiency. The early 1900's thus resulted in a period of organizational development marked by increasing formalization, in the form of rules and regulations, policies and procedures, organizational charts and clarification of organizational goals.

Robbins outlined the five main elements of formalization:
... the degree to which job descriptions and regulations are specified; the degree of supervision; the amount of freedom given to subordinates and managers; the degree of work standardization; and the degree to which regulations exist and are enforced. ("Organization" 72)

Robbins also pointed out that the most popular formalization techniques were the selection process; role requirements; rules, procedures and policies training; and employee rituals ("Organization" 72). Baron stated that formalization techniques such as the issuance of employee handbooks "exert powerful effects on employees' attitudes and behavior" (504).

The impetus for formalization in intercollegiate athletics was a response to the existence of "crises" which plagued the enterprise in the last decade. What educators as well as the general public viewed as "scandals" caused a questioning of the role of athletics within the educational environment and a demand for accountability. The response of administrators to the problem of intercollegiate athletics increased formalization and specification of the place of athletics within the educational setting.

Classical theory partially explained the phenomenon of increasing formalization in athletics:

If it (an organization) allows too little freedom for its members, they are likely to feel oppressed, alienated and "bureaucratic" and to engage in rule following for its own sake. If, on the other hand, it allows more freedom, behavior is apt to become erratic and organizationally irrelevant. (Hall 179)

Some of the behavior manifest in athletics, by both coaches and athletes, surely could have been termed "organizationally irrelevant."

Hall stated that if an organization failed to provide sufficient
specification, individual behavior could have extremely negative con­sequences for the organization (179). An examination of the literature pertaining to the current state of intercollegiate athletics would lead to the logical conclusion that something was amiss; the response of educational administrators has been to more clearly define the role of athletics.

People in decision making positions determine whether or not the organization should "tighten up" its pro­cedures. They also develop images about the people in the organization as being capable or incapable of self-direction. (Hall 179)

Perhaps the preponderance of organizationally irrelevant behavior manifest by alumni, coaches and athletes caused university administra­tors to increasingly view those involved in athletics as incapable of total self-direction and thus in need of more clearly defined policies. As Robbins demonstrated, formalization "not only eliminates the possi­bility of employees engaging in alternative behaviors, but even removes the need for employees to consider alternatives" ("Organizational behavior" 370).

Ideology of Current Theoretical Perspectives and Ideology of Intercollegiate Athletics

From the functionalist perspective, intercollegiate athletics may be viewed through an analysis of the organization itself rather than its members (Litterer 58). An interesting study of athletics may be pro­vided if the organization was conceptualized completely apart from its members, including administrators, coaches, student-athletes and fans.

On the national level, the National Collegiate Athletic Associa­tion, the governing body for intercollegiate athletics, provided the
rules and regulations for participation and possessed complete enforce-
ment responsibility. The four hundred and eleven page NCAA Manual which
expanded with each annual printing, and the NCAA News which provided the
latest interpretations of rules and regulations, attested to the high
level of sophistication and formalization of the national organization.

The fact that a significant portion of the NCAA was devoted to reg-
ulation and enforcement spoke to the nature of the intercollegiate
athletic enterprise as perceived by its governing body. NCAA repre-
sentatives have commented as of late about the growing concern that
violations were escalating with such rapidity that the NCAA was unable to
identify and punish all the offenders. NCAA management also expressed
concern over the growing philosophy of athletic administrators that
NCAA penalties were simply a necessary evil, "the price of doing
business," as the risks of potential sanctions were by far out-weighed
by the rewards of athletic success.

On an institutional level, the analysis of intercollegiate athletic
departments may have been facilitated by a review of manuals of policies
and procedures, similar in intent to the NCAA manual. The existence,
comprehensiveness and currency of such manuals provided one indicator of
the nature of the organization at the departmental level.

Functional theory emphasized "offices," complete with expectations
of performance; titles; formal duty specifications; salary scales and
organizational charts; "functional activities" which were the tasks of
the offices; "organizational goals" and "a structure." The structure-
function approach emphasized the role of management in setting the goals
for organizations and in designing structures to allow for attainment
of those goals. Intercollegiate athletic administrators could surely borrow from this perspective when compiling their policies and procedures manuals and structuring their departments.

One of the challenges posed by intercollegiate athletics which came to light in consideration of functional theory was the implicit difference between the goals of institutions of higher learning and their respective athletic departments. The goals of academic institutions, "to strive for excellence in teaching, to generate new knowledge through research and artistic creation, and to provide meaningful public service programs" (Flagg 12), are often contrasted to those of athletic departments primarily interested in winning athletic contests and in so doing produce sufficient revenue to perpetuate themselves. Essentially, universities housed athletic departments with separate and distinct primary goals and structures. Reconciling the two was often challenging.

The scandals which have occurred in intercollegiate athletics have been seen as both dysfunctions as well as latent functions as defined by Merton. The illegal involvement of alumni and boosters in recruiting activities, the use of drugs by student-athletes and involvement of athletes in point-shaving or gambling, and the academic challenges which faced many athletic departments were viewed as dysfunctional; they "lesson the adaptation or adjustment of the system" (Merton 105) and have even caused temporary cancellation of programs. Such scandals served to produce adverse publicity and inevitably called to question the role and purpose of athletic programs on college campuses.

The repercussions of the "win at all costs" mentality of athletic
programs which operated in an achievement-oriented society may be viewed as latent functions, "those which are neither intended nor recognized" (Merton 105). It may be that the toll such programs have exacted was not intended nor fully recognized. There were many signs, however, that such programs were potentially dysfunctional.

Summary

An analysis of the ideology of intercollegiate athletics as it exists today as compared to the ideology of classical theoretical perspectives provided some interesting points for discussion. Classical management theory grew out of two basic needs or desires on the part of its originators: the necessity to provide technical or industrial advantage through efficient organization and the need to better an existing social order through more equitable distribution of wealth and power. Thompson described the manner in which administration grew haphazardly through various social orders much like the haphazard growth of the New England homestead to which unplanned additions were constantly made. Much like the need to build a new home instead of merely adding onto the old one, older systems of management proved increasingly inadequate and a new approach was needed.

A like evaluation of the role of intercollegiate athletics may currently be in its embryonic stages. Serious problems associated with recruiting, gambling, drug use and academics have called to question the viability of athletics as big business on college campuses. There appeared to be an inherent difficulty in competing in a system wherein violators outnumber enforcement capacities and institutional athletic
and academic goals were in conflict. The amateur athletic system, by all appearances, may have outgrown the foundation upon which it was built.

One of the options to better control an enterprise which may have grown out of step is to formalize much in the same manner as the classical managers. The classical theorists left us organizational planning, a hierarchy of officials, and organizational charts and manuals. Perhaps intercollegiate athletic enterprises should borrow from the classical management theorists to address some of their problems through increased formalization.

Collegiate athletic scandals created an increasing demand for accountability in athletic programs. One of the ways in which accountability has been attained was through clearly defined policies and procedures. Formalization referred to "the amount of written documentation in the organization" (Daft 16); athletic enterprises appear to be formalizing to reduce individual discretion and hopefully, indiscretion as well. At those institutions where athletic challenges have been recognized, the inevitable call for accountability has been heard. Greater accountability may be attained, in part, through formalization of policies and procedures and it has been demonstrated that such documentation represents an effective management tool.
CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DEVELOPMENT
OF A POLICIES AND PROCEDURES MANUAL MODEL

Introduction

The purposes of this chapter were to: 1) outline the procedures for collection and analysis of the data; and 2) develop a model based upon analysis of the data and the review of literature.

Research Methodology

Collection of the Data

On February 25, 1986, a letter was sent to the athletic directors at 283 NCAA Division I member institutions as listed in the 1985-86 NCAA Directory, soliciting their participation in the study. The letter is included in Appendix IV and a list of the NCAA Division I schools solicited is included in Appendix IX. Division I of the NCAA had a total of 284 member institutions, thus the University of Nevada, Las Vegas represented the only Division I member institution which was not included in the mailing.

The letter stated the purpose of the correspondence as well as the purpose of the study. Included in the letter was a stamped, self-addressed postcard which was to be filled out and returned, indicating the name of the institution, the name of the athletic director, whether or not the athletic department utilized a policies and procedures manual and whether or not a copy of the manual would be forwarded for
use in the study (Appendix VI).

When postcard returns ceased, a follow-up note attached to the original letter and enclosed, self-addressed, stamped postcard was mailed to all athletic directors on the mailing list from whom a response was not received in the first mailing. The follow-up notes and enclosures were sent April 21, 1986 (Appendix V). The return address was highlighted on the postcard included in the second mailing to indicate that it was part of the second mailing and cards were cross-checked for duplication after the final return. The last correspondence in reply to the study was received on August 30, 1986.

As postcards were returned, results from the questions contained thereon were tallied on a master list. Additionally, any comments written on the postcard were recorded on a master comment list (Appendix X). When all policies and procedures manuals promised were received, copies of their tables of contents were xeroxed. The tables of contents were checked against the texts of the policies and procedures manuals to ensure that the tables of contents accurately reflected the actual contents of the manuals. Some manuals had no tables of contents, so tables of contents were developed based upon the headings and subheadings in the text. The text was reviewed to ensure that the headings and subheadings accurately represented the contents of the text.

Analysis of the Data

Of the 283 NCAA Division I institutions surveyed, responses were received from 210 or 74%. From the initial mailing, 164 responses were received and from the second mailing an additional
46 responses were received. There were no institutions which sent duplicate postcards.

At the time of the mailing in February and March, 1986, 91 of the 210 institutions, or 43%, which responded to the survey indicated that they were currently utilizing a policies and procedures manual for their intercollegiate athletic program. Of the 91 institutions which indicated they utilized a manual, 21 or 18% indicated that they were in the process of revising their manual.

At the time of the mailing, 119 institutions or 57% of respondents indicated that they were not currently utilizing a policies and procedures manual and 26 of those, 22%, indicated that they were in the process of developing a manual.

Of the 91 institutions which responded that they utilized a policies and procedures manual, 53 or 58% forwarded a copy of their manual for use in the study. A list of the schools which forwarded manuals is included in Appendix VII; a bibliography of the manuals included in the study is included in Appendix VIII. A total of 17 institutions who were utilizing policies and procedures manuals for their inter­collegiate athletic programs at the time of the study were unwilling to provide them for use in the study. A total of 69 of the 210 responses received included comments written on the side of the postcard and the list of comments received is included in Appendix X.

Three of the institutions which responded indicated that their manuals could have been purchased, one for a publisher's fee and two for the cost of reproduction only. Two of the manuals had been copywri­ted.
**Table I**  
Summary of Demographic Data from Survey Responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item:</th>
<th>Number:</th>
<th>Total:</th>
<th>Percentage:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Responses received</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>233</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondents utilizing a manual</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondents who mailed manual</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>58%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondents utilizing manuals who were revising thus didn't mail</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondents utilizing manuals but unwilling to provide for use in the study</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondents not utilizing manual</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondents not utilizing manual but developing one</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondents neither utilizing manual nor developing one</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>44%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Manuals received demonstrated a wide variety of formats. The shortest manual was 5 pages in length; the longest (with pages numbered) was 112 pages in length. The average length of manuals with pages numbered was 49 pages. Six manuals did not include page numbers.

Manuals were received in bindings which varied from no cover, to soft cover to hard cover. A total of 7 manuals (13%) included
no tables of contents; 38 manuals bore the date of printing or the latest date of revision while 14 indicated no date in the text or on the cover pages.

Table II
Summary of Characteristics of Policies and Procedures Manuals Utilized in the Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item:</th>
<th>Number:</th>
<th>Total:</th>
<th>Percentage:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Manuals for which a fee was charged</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manuals copywritten</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manuals with pages numbered</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>89%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manuals with no page numbers</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manuals with tables of contents</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>87%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manuals with no tables of contents</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manuals with date of printing/revision</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undated manuals</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fewest number of pages</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greatest number of pages</td>
<td></td>
<td>112</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average number of pages</td>
<td></td>
<td>49</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Content analysis of the tables of contents provided a fifty-six page list of items which appears in Appendix XI. Items were
placed in alphabetical order and were checked three times with the tables of contents to ensure accuracy. All university and athletic association names were removed from the data, as were conference names and booster club names. For example, a specific university name such as the University of Nevada, Las Vegas was replaced by "university". The names of special projects were also deleted, as were references to recreation and intramural programs. Only information pertaining to Division I NCAA athletic programs was recorded.

Two items which were not included in the alphabetical listing of items which appeared in the tables of contents were the specific job titles which appeared under the heading "job description" or "position description" and items which were listed under "appendices" or "subject index". However, frequency counts were recorded for the number of times the items "job descriptions", "position descriptions", "appendices" and "subject index" appeared. The items listed under those headings were extremely diversified and individualized specifically for the institutions which they represented, and the author felt that inclusion of them was not useful.

Where references were made under broad headings which generally had appeared as separate, individual items in the alphabetical list, a note was made after the reference in the alphabetical list "see ...". For example, one institution listed an item entitled "Specific Procedures and Policies" and under that heading appeared many items which other manuals had listed under separate, individual headings. "Specific Procedures and Policies" was such a broad heading that the items which appeared in that category were listed alphabetically
on the master list and that was indicated as follows: "Specific Procedures and Policies (1) - items listed alphabetically".

Utilizing a simple frequency content analysis technique, the tables of contents of the 53 manuals gathered in the study were analyzed. The frequency with which each item on the master alphabetical list appeared was recorded on the list in brackets ( ) immediately following each item (see Appendix XI). A total of 3,720 items were listed.

Based upon the content of the tables of contents and the frequencies of items, the literature review, and the experience of the author, the data was then content analyzed for common themes and subjects and ordered into 18 main categories which comprised the major headings for the model (see Table III).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item:</th>
<th>Frequency:</th>
<th>The Research:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academic Policies and Procedures</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>Intercollegiate athletics has been severely criticized for acceptance of academically unprepared students and for low rates of graduation among student-athletes. The NCAA and many institutions have imposed new higher standards. (Nack 36; Bowen 65; Gladwell 14; Cramer K2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration and Organization of the Athletic Program</td>
<td>579</td>
<td>Institutional control is a vital issue in management of intercollegiate athletic programs. Increased formalization, organizational charts and clearly defined policies and procedures have been borrowed from business and organizational management theory. (Carlisle 346)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awards for Athletic Participation and Achievement</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>The goal of intercollegiate athletic programs is clear: to win. The achievement orientation is reflected in the apparent emphasis on the rewards of winning. (Cramer K1; Goodwin &quot;When the&quot; 8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equipment, Property and Facilities</td>
<td>327</td>
<td>Organizational theorists state that virtually every level of an organization needs major and minor policy guides. (Cannon 10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item:</td>
<td>Frequency:</td>
<td>The Research:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Aid to Student-Athletes</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>One of the more common violations among NCAA member institutions is the &quot;extra benefit&quot; - student-athletes receiving more than the allowable financial aid. The guidelines for aid are clearly stated by the NCAA. (Goodwin &quot;Reform&quot; 8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fiscal and Business Operations Policies</td>
<td>385</td>
<td>Athletics is big business. Athletic departments are often distinct units which must operate within specific university and state financial guidelines, as well as within NCAA rules and regulations. (Rhoden C4; Cramer K8; Goodwin &quot;When the&quot; 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fund Raising Policies and Procedures</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>Booster clubs and alumni represent an area of concern for the NCAA and institutional control of booster club funds ensures compliance with university, state and NCAA regulations. (Alfano D27; Cramer K3; Horn 2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legal Review of Departmental Policies</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Legal risks are inherent in policy manuals as well as in unstated, unwritten policies. Legal review should take place prior to distribution to employees. (Carey 172; Cowan 342)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical Policies and Procedures</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>NCAA and institutional drug testing programs have mandated strict policy and procedural guidelines for mandatory drug testing. (Lamar 53; Farrell &quot;Drugs and&quot; 36; &quot;NCAA Drug Testing&quot; 1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table III (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item:</th>
<th>Frequency:</th>
<th>The Research:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous Policies and Procedures</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>Organizational theorists state that virtually every level of an organization needs major and minor policy guides. (Cannon 10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel Policies and Procedures</td>
<td>362</td>
<td>Borrowing from business, policies and procedures must be clearly outlined for athletic department personnel. (Carlisle 346; Cowan 342)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philosophy and Objectives of the Athletic Program</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>Scandals have occurred where institutional academic and athletic objectives have been disparate. Athletic philosophy and objectives should be formulated based upon institutional philosophy and objectives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recruiting Policies and Procedures</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>The majority of institutional violations by staff members occur in the area of recruiting. NCAA, conference and institutional rules and regulations regarding recruiting should be made clear and explicit to all employees. (Goodwin &quot;Reform&quot; 8; US News and World Report 16; Deford 48)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scheduling Policies and Procedures</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>Scheduling policies should reflect departmental philosophy and objectives and resources. (Cannon 10; Shearer 3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports Information Policies and Procedures</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>Public relations, promotions and marketing have enlarged the scope of the traditional sports information office. Departmental and institutional marketing should reflect institutional philosophy. (Cannon 10; Shearer 3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item:</td>
<td>Frequency:</td>
<td>The Research:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student-Athlete Information and Responsibilities</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>The student-athlete must be informed of his/her rights and privileges, and institutional rules and regulations regarding agents, bribery, gambling and drug-testing which have been problem areas as of late. (U.S. News and World Report 16; Cramer K2; Deford 49)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ticket Policies and Procedures</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>Complimentary tickets are an area of concern on which the NCAA has focused attention, both for student-athletes and recruits. Ticket revenue at some institutions is sizeable and control of ticket operations essential. (Cannon 10; Rhoden C4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel Policies and Procedures</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>Organizational theorists state that virtually every level of an organization needs major and minor policy guides. (Cannon 10)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Total number of items: | 3,720    |
Development of a Model:  

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction by the President  
Athletics at the University

1.2 Introduction by the Athletic Director  
Athletic Department: Historical Perspective  
Scope of the Athletic Program

1.3 The Manual  
Purpose  
Scope

2. PHILOSOPHY AND OBJECTIVES OF THE ATHLETIC PROGRAM

2.1 Philosophy of the Intercollegiate Athletic Program

2.2 Purposes of the Intercollegiate Athletic Program

2.3 Objectives of the Intercollegiate Athletic Program

2.4 Institutional Control

3. ADMINISTRATION AND ORGANIZATION OF THE ATHLETIC PROGRAM

3.1 Administrative Control  
Board of Regents/Trustees  
President/Provost  
Vice President  
Director of Athletics  
Athletic Committee/Athletic Council/Athletic Association/  
Athletic Advisory Board  
Faculty Representative for Athletics  
Faculty Senate Finance Committee  
Financial Aid Committee

3.2 Administration and Organization  
Departmental Chain of Command  
Organizational Chart  
Job Descriptions (contained in Appendix)  
Athletic Director  
Athletic Administrators  
Coaching Staff  
Support Staff
Secretarial Staff/Administrative Assistants
Personnel Limitations - Football and Basketball
Present Personnel, Titles and Telephone Numbers

3.3 Administrative Policies
Addition/Deletion of a Sport
Athletic Code
Conference Affiliation
Evaluation
Fundamental Policy of the NCAA
Orientation of New Staff
Policy Formulation
Policy Amendments and Revisions
Policy of Non-Discrimination and Affirmative Action
Post Season Competition Policy
Principles of Ethical Conduct
Public Image
Title IX Regulations and Compliance

3.4 Athletic Council
Statement of Responsibilities of Council
Duties and Functions of Council
Membership of Council
Policy Recommendations

3.5 Athletic Department Advisory Committee/Faculty Senate
Finance Committee
Appeals Committee
Appeal Procedure
Hearing Procedure
Function
Membership
Tenure of Members
Charge of the Committee
Membership

3.6 Athletic Department Office Policies
Letterhead Policy
Office Atmosphere
Office Staff Supervision
Telephone Etiquette
Work Area Appearance

3.7 Athletic Department Operating Procedures
Conference Rooms
Courtesy Parking
Emergencies
Equipment and Supplies
Keys
Duplicate Keys
Key Loans
Lost Keys
Termination/Key Return
Mail
  Answering Mail
  Bulk Mail
  Federal Express
  Official Mail
  Personal Mail
Office Hours
Office Supplies
Parking
Property Inventory
Xeroxing

3.8 Conference Affiliation
  Conference Information
  Conference Limitations/Competitive Squads
  Conference and NCAA Rules
    Interpretation of the Rules
    Rule Violations
  Conference Meetings

3.9 Ethical Conduct
  Adherence to Institutional, Conference and NCAA Regulations
  Confidential or Privileged Information
  Conflict of Interest
  Contracts
  Disclosures
  Fair Treatment
  Gifts
  Loyalty
  Penalties

3.10 Event Management
  Admissions
  Concession Operations
  Event Administration
    Assignment of Game Personnel
    Employment of Game Personnel
  Inclement Weather
  Locker Room Policy
  Media
  Officials
    Accommodation
    Hiring and Payment
    Scheduling
  Parking
  Policy on Alcohol
    Sale of Alcohol at Athletic Events
    Student Discipline for Violations
Vendor Sponsorships
Pre-Game and Half-Time Entertainment
Program Sales
Special Events
  Banquets
  Camps and Clinics
  Parties
  Luncheons
  Picnics
  Rallies
Team Bench Policy
Visiting Team Accommodations and Hospitality

3.11 Duties, Responsibilities and Expectations of Head Coaches
Academics
Budgets
Conduct and Ethics
Drugs
Grants-in-Aid
Home vs. Travel Squad Limitations
Housing
  In-Season/Post-Season/Pre-Season
NCAA Letter of Intent
NCAA Squad List
NCAA Student-Athlete Statement
Number of Contests Limitations
Personnel and Squad Limitations
Playing and Practice Season Limitations
Playing Rules
Professional Associations
Professional Development
Public Appearances
Recruiting
Red Shirt List
Roster
Scheduling
Scouting
Speaking Engagements
Summer Camps
Team Rules and Regulations
Team Travel
  Responsibility to Athletes While on Trips
Try-Outs and Team Selection

3.12 Evaluations
Administrators
Coaches
Programs
  End of the Season Reports/Recommendations
    Participation Report
    Season Record Report
3.13 Long Range Planning
   Expansion and Curtailment of Programs
   Facilities Expansion
   Financial Planning

3.14 Post Season Competition
   Eligibility
   Funding
   Hosting or Sponsoring

4. ACADEMIC POLICIES AND PROCEDURES

4.1 Academic Philosophy
   Institutional Philosophy
   Athletic Department Philosophy
   Academic Standards

4.2 Academic Policies and Procedures
   Academic Expectations
   Class Absences
   Class Attendance
   Computing Grade Point Average
   Conditioning Classes
   Continuing Education Classes
   Correspondence Classes
   Course Credit by Examination and Independent Study
   Incompletes
   Normal Progress
   Physical Education Credits
   Probation
   Summer School
   Suspension
   Transcripts

4.3 Academic Services
   Academic Advising and Counseling
     Purpose
     Objectives
     Special Services
   Academic Progress Reports
   Study Hall
   Testing
     Early Identification for Special Programs
   Tracking
   Tutoring

4.4 Admissions
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   Educational Opportunity Programs
     Alternate Criteria
Special Action Admissions
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Requirements
   Freshman Applicant
   In-State Applicant
   Out-of-State Applicant
   Transfer Applicant
Standards

4.5 Eligibility
   Certification
   Conference Rules
   Fifth Year Rule
Games
   Away
   Home
Institutional Rules on Athletic Eligibility
NCAA Rules of Special Note:
   Agents
   Amateurism
   Bribery
   Commercialization (posters, calendars, etc.)
   Complimentary Tickets
   Drug and Alcohol Abuse Policy
   Employment Compensation
   Extra Benefits
   Gambling
   Normal Progress
   Proposition 48
   Protests
   Sanctions for Violations of Rules
   Satisfactory Progress
   Transfer Rules
   2.0 Rule
   University Eligibility Standards
   Waiver of Eligibility Petition

4.6 Eligibility and Financial Aids Committee

5. AWARDS FOR ATHLETIC PARTICIPATION AND ACHIEVEMENT

5.1 Awards Policies
   Award Requirements
   Awards Banquets/Picnics
   Athletic Department Awards Banquet
   Individual Team Awards Banquets
   Other Banquets
   Tournament Banquets
   Awards Received by Department Teams
   Championship Rings
Conference Championship Awards
National Championship Awards
Other Awards
Conference Awards
Scholar Athlete Awards
Special Awards
   Individual Recognition Awards
   Special Introductions, Honors and Dedications
Sports Hall of Fame
   By-Laws of the Sports Hall of Fame
   Procedures to Amend By-Laws
Staff Awards
Tournament Awards
Varsity Letter Awards
Form of Awards
Participation Requirements
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      Cheerleaders
      Student Managers
      Student Trainers
   Women
Awards Committee
   Meetings
   Organization
   Responsibilities

5.2 Awards Procedures
   Award Replacements and Purchases
   Awards Presentation Schedule
   Procedure for Reporting Award Selections

6. EQUIPMENT, PROPERTY AND FACILITIES

6.1 Athletic Equipment/Apparel Committee

6.2 Equipment
   Inventory
   Issue
   Loan
   Lost, Damaged, Modified Equipment
   Maintenance
   Management of Equipment
   New Equipment
   Ordering
   Purchasing
   Receiving
   Repairs
   Replacement Equipment
6.3 Equipment Room
   Accountability for Equipment
   Authorized Personnel
   Equipment Issue Procedure
   Equipment Ordering Procedures
      Bids
      Conflict of Interest
      Departmental and Specific Sports
      Emergency Purchases
      Other Campus Departments
   Equipment Room Operations
      Hours
   Inventory Procedures
      Date for Taking Inventory
      Defective Items
      Inventory Sheets
      Personnel
      Physical Inventory
      Pricing Method
      Receipts and Shipments During Inventory
   Issuance of Locks and Lockers; Assigning Lockers
   Laundry Service
   Responsibilities of Equipment Manager
   Safety Practices
   Security
   Storage
   Theft
   Towels
   Transfers and Disposition
   Travel
   Unauthorized Equipment
   Uniform Check Out and Return
   Uniform Storage
   Use of Facilities
   Use of Team Equipment

6.4 Property
   Capital Items
   Inventory
   Disposal of Property

6.5 Facilities
   Accidents
   Changes and Repairs
   Committee on Special Use of University Facilities
      Outside Agency Use
   Competition Sites
   Contracts/Fees
   Co-Sponsored Events
   Custodial Services
   Deadlines for Practice and Competition Scheduling
7. FINANCIAL AID TO STUDENT-ATHLETES

7.1 Financial Aid (Grants-in-Aid/Scholarships)
   Aims of Athletic Aid Program
   Agreement
   Availability of Aid
   Campus Employment
   Cancellation
   Categories
   Criteria for Award
   Fee Waivers
   Fifth Year Aid
   Fifth Year Aid (Post-Eligibility)
   Football
   Counters
   Exempted Players
   Graduation
   Graduate Student Fee Waivers
   Grievance/Appeal Policies and Procedures
   Infraction of Athletic Department Rules
   Initial Award
   Institutional Scholarships
   Intersession/Mini-Session Aid
   Limitations
Loan of Course-Related Books and Supplies
Named Scholarships
Non-Athletic Scholarships
Period of Assistance
Post Graduate Eligibility
Renewal
Satisfactory Progress
Special Scholarships
Student Work Program
Summer School Aid
Tuition Waivers
Vacation Period Meal and Housing Arrangements
Voluntary Withdrawal from Aid

7.2 Meals
Campus Food Service
   Dining Hall Regulations
Meals
   Practice and Game Periods
     Pre-School Term, Intersession, Holiday, Vacation
Late Meals
Meal Allowance at Home/Off Campus
Meal Transfers
Meals Procedures
Post-Game Meals
Pre-Game Meals
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Regulations
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Training Tables
   Full Scholarship
   Non-Scholarship
   Partial Scholarship

7.3 Housing
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Awarding Spaces
Continuing Students
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New Students
Off-Campus
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   Game Periods
School Term

8. FISCAL AND BUSINESS OPERATIONS POLICIES AND PROCEDURES

8.1 Business Management - Organization

8.2 Budgets
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Administrative Budgets
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Annual Dues - Membership
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Booster Club Funds
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Cash Deposits
Check Cashing
Coaches Expenses
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  Bank
  Gas
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Entertainment Expenses
Entry Fee Procedures
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Expense Accounts
  Individual (Staff) Travel
  Recruiting
  Team Travel
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Guarantees
Individual Membership
Internal Audit
Institutional Membership
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  Hiring and Payment
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Per Diem
Personal Services Contracts
Petty Cash
Phone Bills
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Restricted Accounts
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  Advances
  Reimbursements
Sports Budgets

8.3 Purchasing
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Capital Equipment
Check Writing
Contracts, Leases, Agreements
Credit Cards
  Bank
  Gas
  Personal Use
  Telephone
Equipment
Emergency Purchases
Items not to be Purchased
Office Supplies
Placement of Orders
Printed Materials
Procedures for Equipment and Commodities
Processing Invoices
Proprietary Purchases
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Selection of Correct Documents
Stores Materials
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8.4 Receiving
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Receiving Reports

8.5 Telephones
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9.1 Athletic Fund Raising
   Purpose
   Objectives
   Audits
   Contributions
   Endowment Program
   Gifts and Conditions of Acceptance
   Gifts-in-Kind
   Individual Sports and Solicitation of Funds
   Logo/Licensing
   Membership Drives
   Other Cash Contributions
   Planning
   Pre and Post Game Functions
   Preseason Kickoffs
   Promotional Events and Sales Procedures
   Scholarship Program
   Seating Program
   Solicitations
   Special Fund Raising Activities
   Trade Outs
   University Foundation
   Unsolicited Donations

9.2 Booster Club
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   Purpose
   Objectives
   Annual Budget
   Articles of Incorporation
   Audits
   Booster Board
   Booster Club Benefit Chart
   Club Member Merchandise
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10.1 Due Process for Student-Athletes

10.2 Employee Grievance Procedures

10.3 Legal Liability

10.4 Insurance
   Athletic Staff Travel Insurance
   Liability Coverage
   Life Insurance - Staff
   Summer Camp Insurance
   Team Trip Insurance
   University Insurance Coverage
   University Vehicle Coverage
   Courtesy Vehicles
   Personal Vehicles

11. MEDICAL POLICIES AND PROCEDURES

11.1 Drug, Alcohol and Narcotics Abuse Program
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11.2 Medical Policies
   Consultants
   Contact Lenses and Eye Glasses
   Coverage of Events by a Physician
   Dental Services
   Emergencies
   General Weight Lifting Policies
   Health Insurance
   Hospitalization and Surgery
   Illness
   Medical Clearance
   Medical Expenses
       Payment for Medical Treatment
       Parents or Guardians
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Policy on Taping
Pregnancy and Participation
Press Releases Regarding Athletic Injuries
Prior Injuries
Release of Medical Information
Reporting for Treatment
Research Projects
Responsibility for Control
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Sickness or Injury Resulting from Participation in PE Classes
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  Pep Squad
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11.4 Insurance
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  Exclusions
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11. Procedural in Case of Loss
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Student Health Insurance
University-Purchased Insurance for Athletes
University-Purchased Insurance for Staff

11.5 Training Room
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Policies
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12.1 Personnel Policies
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   Courtesy Cars
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   Dental Insurance
   Disability Benefits
   Liability
   Medical Insurance
   Term Life, Accidental Death and Dismemberment Insurance
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Compensatory Time
Community and Professional Participation
Conduct and Appearance
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Cooperation
Corrective Action
Dismissal of Regular Status Employees
Evaluations
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Leaves of Absence
   Annual Leave
   Emergency Leave
   Funeral Leave
   Jury Duty
   Maternity Leave
   Personal Leave
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Moving Expenses
Outside Employment and Promotional Activities
Overtime
Position Classification/Compensation
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Sexual Harassment Policy
Special Event Attendance
Staff Assignments
Staff Meeting Policy
Student Employment
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Terminating Employees
   Causes for Suspension, Dismissal
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Vacations
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Workman's Compensation

12.3 Personnel Procedures
   Applications for Employment
   Appointments
   Check Out Procedures
   Daily Schedule
   Grievance Procedures
   Hiring Procedures
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      Faculty and Exempt
      Staff
      Students/Student-Athletes
      Temporary and Part Time
   Job Audits
   Job Descriptions
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   Mail
   Missing/Stolen Items
   Monthly Employee Reports - Classified
   Monthly Employee Reports - Faculty and Exempt
   New Employees
   Notification of Absence
   Office Hours
   Office Procedures
   Office Space
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Registration of Personal Vehicles
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Payroll Deductions
Physical Examinations
Reporting Accidents/On the Job Injuries
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12.4 University Staff Handbook

13. RECRUITING POLICIES AND PROCEDURES

13.1 Recruiting Policies
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Adherence to Rules and Regulations
Inducements Prohibited
Local Transportation for the Coach
Non-Paid Campus Visits for Prospective Student-Athletes
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Lodging/Phone Calls
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Visitation

13.2 Recruiting Procedures
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Review of Academic Records
Review of NCAA Rules and Regulations with Prospective
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Consequences of Becoming a Prospect
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14.1 Policies for Scheduling Athletic Contests
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Class Absences
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Criteria
Guarantees
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Responsibility
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14.2 Procedures for Scheduling Athletic Contests
Additions and Cancellations/Scheduling Changes
Announcements and Releases
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Deadlines for Completion of Schedules
Personnel to Receive Schedules

14.3 Procedure for Scheduling Practices
Academic Considerations
Scrimmages, Practices Held Off-Campus

14.4 Procedures for Scheduling Clinics

15. SPORTS INFORMATION POLICIES AND PROCEDURES

15.1 Sports Information Office
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15.2 Sports Information Policies
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Cooperation
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  Contacts
  Guides
  Luncheons
  Needs
  Passes
  Relations
  Releases
Phone Calls
Photo Policy
Press Box/Coaches Booths
Posters
Promotions/Marketing
Public Relations
Publications
  Brochures
  Media Guides
  Programs
  Recruiting Brochures
  Others
Publicity
Schedule Cards
Special News Releases
Stationary
Television and Radio Programs

15.3 Sports Information Procedures
  Basic Services
  Complaints
  Photography (ordering and development)
  Printing Schedule
  Record Keeping
  Reporting Procedures for Athletic Events
    Away
    Home
  Staffing
  Statistics
  Useful Publications
  Weekly Update

16. STUDENT-ATHLETE INFORMATION AND RESPONSIBILITIES

16.1 Varsity Student-Athlete Manual
  Academic Advisement and Counseling Services
  Academic Policies and Procedures
    Academic Standards
    Admissions
    Class Absences
Class Attendance
Computing GPA
Conditioning Classes
Continuing Education Classes
Correspondence Classes
Course Credit by Examination and Independent Study
Drop-Add Procedures
Incomplete Policy
Normal Progress
Physical Education Credits
Probation
Satisfactory Progress
Study Hall
Summer School
Suspension Policy
Tracking
University Eligibility Standards
Annual All-Athlete Meeting
NCAA, Conference and Institutional Forms
Appeal Procedures
Athletes Cars
Athletes Quitting
Athletic Contests, Home and Away
Athletic Department Policy on Counseling
Awards
Books
Captains
Code of Ethics
   Appearance
   Conduct
Conflict of Interest
Definition of Student-Athlete
Dental Care
Disciplinary Action
Dismissal from the Team
Eligibility
   Certification
   NCAA Student-Athlete Statement
Employment
   Summer/Vacation Time
Equipment and Uniform Check Out System
Expectations from Staff and Coaches
Eye Glasses and Contact Lenses
Financial Aid and Scholarships
   Procedure for Cancellation/Termination
   Procedure for Gradation
   Procedure for New Awards
   Procedure for Renewal
Types Available
   Academic Scholarships
   Grants-in-Aid
17. TICKET POLICIES AND PROCEDURES

17.1 Ticket Office
   Purpose
   Objectives

17.2 Ticket Office Policies and Procedures
   Accounting
   Billing
Cash Handling Policies
Check Cashing
Contract Agreements
Credentials
Discount-Group Rates
Distribution of Passes
Distribution of Tickets
General Ticket Policy
Mail Orders
Pass Lists
Passes
Personal Tickets
Player Tickets
Policies - Stadium and Arena
Post Season Tournament Ticket Policies
Pricing Policy
Printing Schedule
Processing of Tickets
Promotional Ticket Policy
Refunds and Exchanges
Requests for Better Seats
Requisition and Reconciliation of Complimentary Tickets
Respectibility and Policy
Security at Games
Selling Complimentary Tickets
Ticket Information
Ticket Office Functions
Ticket Office Security
Ticket Procedures
Trade-Out Agreements
Will Call

17.3 Ticket Pricing Policies
All Sports except Basketball and Football
Basketball
Football

17.4 Tickets
Athletic Department Employees
  Administrators
  Clerical/Secretarial
  Coaches (Head Coach, Assistants, Part Time, Volunteers)
  Support Staff
Complimentary Ticket Policy
  Another Sport
  Athletes
  Coaches
  Limits
  Own Sport
  Part Time Help
  Procedures
Prospects
Non-Paid Visit
Paid Visit
PR Tickets
Basketball
Football
Other Sports
Recruiting – High School Athletes
Student-Athletes
Away Games
Home Games
Visiting High School Coaches and Administrators
Faculty/Staff Tickets
General Public
Scholarship Donors
Season Tickets
Students

18. TRAVEL POLICIES AND PROCEDURES

18.1 Travel Policies
Advances
Allowable Expenses
Allowable Travel Time
Authorized Personnel
Available Transportation and Usage Procedures
Conference Travel
Convoys
Dress Code
Entertainment
Expense Accounts
Expense Allowances
Expense Reimbursements
Gas
Individual Transportation
  Athletic Business
  Recruiting
  Speaking
In-State Travel
Insurance
Lodging and Per Diem
Miscellaneous Expenses
Mode of Travel
  Bus
  Chartered Air
  Chartered Bus
  Commercial Aid
  Courtesy Cars
  Departmental Vans
  Mini-Buses
Personal Cars
Public Transportation
Rental Cars
University Vehicles
  Airplanes
  Automobiles
  Buses
  Vans
Vans
Non-Allowable Expenses/Non-Reimbursable Expenses
Out-of-State Travel
Personal Automobile Mileage
Post Season Travel
Receipts
State and University Travel Guidelines
Student Drivers
Student Expenses
Subsistence Allowance
Team Travel
Tips/Gratuities

18.2 Travel Procedures
  Accident Reports
  Arrangements and Reservations
  Combined Out-of-State and In-State Travel
  Combined Travel and Entertainment
  Credit Cards
  Employee Travel Guidelines
  Expense Accounts
  Expense Allowances
  Itineraries
  Local Recruitment
  Lodging
    Fractional Days
    In-State
    Out-of-State
  Planning
  Recruiting Accounting
  Returning Vans and Keys
  Team Excuses
  Team Travel Procedures
  Travel Claim
  Trip Procedures
  Trip Roster

19. MISCELLANEOUS POLICIES AND PROCEDURES

19.1 Acknowledgements and Gifts

19.2 Audio Visual
Equipment
Films

19.3 Band

19.4 Camps and Clinics
   Costs/Rental Fees
   Department Clinics and Camps
   Independent Clinics and Camps
   Insurance
   Obtaining Approval
   Summer Camp Policy
   Summer Camp Program

19.5 Campus Evacuation Plan

19.6 Cheerleaders/Spirit Groups
   Policies and Procedures for Varsity Cheerleaders
   and Mascot

19.7 Computers

19.8 Counseling

19.9 Fraternities and School Activities

19.10 Important Campus Resources

19.11 Marketing and Promotions

19.12 Scouting

19.13 Speakers Bureau

20. APPENDICES

20.1 Job Descriptions

20.2 Departmental Forms

20.3 Subject Index
Summary

As Micheal Cleary noted, "there are slight variances from one institution to the next" and the above model for a policies and procedures manual was intended to provide an athletic director with a useful guide or tool for revision or development of a policies and procedures manual tailored to fit his/her particular institution. The comprehensive model was intended to provide a reference and a place to begin; the outline provides a "structured model (which) would help to standardize the industry and add consistency among universities" as well (Cleary, Appendix III).

Organizational characteristics vary from one athletic department to another, just as administrative styles vary. While some athletic directors may wish to utilize a very detailed policies and procedures manual, others may wish greater flexibility and less structure. The athletic director may wish to utilize the policies and procedures manual model above as a guide to which they make modifications to suit unique organizational and individual needs.

Policies and procedures manuals should be dated, indicating the date of initial printing as well as dates of subsequent revisions. The title page of a policies and procedures manual should indicate the title of the work, the date of printing or publication, the name of the institution and the name(s) of the author(s). The manual should include a table of contents, numbered pages, and appendices which provide job descriptions, institutional forms and a subject index, if desired.
CHAPTER 4

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Introduction

Intercollegiate athletics over the last few years has been marked by abuses involving allegations of drug use, gambling and point shaving, questionable academic preparedness and low graduation rates among student-athletes. The National Collegiate Athletic Association and administrators at many institutions of higher learning developed formalized plans to combat the problems.

In the Fall of 1983, the Department of Intercollegiate Athletics at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas was in the midst of financial crisis. One outcome of a citizen's commission review was that the Board of Regents mandated that a policies and procedures manual concerning intercollegiate athletic operations be developed. The UNLV example sparked the author's interest in both the circumstances which create a call for formalization of policies and procedures and the manner in which operations are formalized in intercollegiate athletics.

The theoretical base of the study focused on the manner in which organizations formalized and that which provided the impetus to do so. Formalization was defined by Pugh, Hickson, Hinnings and Turner as "the extent to which rules, procedures, instructions and communications are written" (75). In business and industry, the most common method of formalizing responsibilities and functions of various of units is
through the establishment of an organization manual (Carlisle 346). Thus, the literature review outlined the circumstances in which formalization occurred in business and industry in the early 1900's with the advent of bureaucracy and the subsequent development of scientific management. The ideology of classical management theory was discussed.

The ideological underpinnings of intercollegiate athletics were examined through a review of current literature. The question was posed: was there an ideological shift in the perceived need for formalization of policies and procedures for athletic administrators? Clearly, the answer was yes. Public attention on abuses in athletics served to focus institutional concern on ways to curb the abuses, the result of which was increased formalization.

The ideology which brought about the perceived need for formalization in intercollegiate athletics was then compared to that which provided the impetus for formalization in scientific management and management theory development in the 1930's. Similarities and differences existed in the reasons for and resulting formalization of the two enterprises during two distinct time periods.

The developmental focus of the study, based upon the need identified through the theoretical framework, focused on whether policies and procedures manuals were utilized by NCAA Division I member institutions and, if so, what was contained in them. Manuals were collected from Division I institutions and content analyzed. The final phase of the developmental aspect of the study was the construction of a model for a policies and procedures manual. The model was
based upon the analysis of the data from the manuals collected, the review of literature both in intercollegiate athletics and business and industry, and the experience of the author.

Summary

Theoretical Aspects

The theoretical aspects of the study, as outlined in the review of literature, revealed the following:

1) Weber's bureaucracy possessed "purely technical superiority" over other forms of organization (214). Weber's bureaucracy also removed the restrictions of the feudal order on workers; gave workers the opportunity for a "career"; separated the social order from the world of business; and relieved the choke of patriarchal domination from the worker. Bureaucracy leveled social and economic differences.

2) Taylor sought to replace management by "initiative and incentive" with scientific management at a time when industry was characterized by labor unrest and economic hardship. Taylor's scientific management sought to eliminate "soldiering" and lead to prosperity for both employer and employee. Prosperity could then alleviate social ills such as poverty and suffering. Taylor believed that poor management in his time led to antagonistic relationships between workers and management and low productivity.

3) Classical organizational theory resulted in increased formalization of organizations. Bureaucracy involved written
documents, "the files", and organizational rules and procedures
derived from organizational goals. Scientific management called
for formalization with regard to "the office of the planner"
wherein charts, records, plans and organizational documents
were filed.

4) Formalization came about in the 1900's as a response to both
social and economic conditions. For Weber, it provided fair
and equitable ordering of organizations for workers; for Taylor
it increased industrial efficiency and provided prosperity for all.

5) The scandals which have befallen intercollegiate athletics
created a call for accountability which resulted in formalization.
The President's Commission was formed; Proposition 48 demanded
higher academic standards for entering freshmen; the NCAA mandated
degree progress for student-athletes; the NCAA instituted drug-
testing; many institutions instituted their own drug-testing
programs; on campuses across the nation, presidents became more
involved in supervising athletics; and there was a trend toward
the establishment of policies and procedures manuals for athletic
management.

6) The concept of policies and procedures manuals had its
genesis in business, where policies constitute the overall
strategy of the firm while procedures assign appropriate
responsibility to each unit in the organization and sequence
the activities involved (Carlisle 346).

7) Athletics is big business. Financial rewards are great and
create pressure and an "educational dichotomy" (Goodwin 1).
Departments of intercollegiate athletics are usually separate units on college campuses which rely on success and are differentiated from the rest of the institution by virtue of goals, operations procedures and financial base. The "role" of athletics on college campuses was questioned because of "scandals" which created a cry for accountability, which in turn resulted in increased formalization. On some campuses the crisis was financial; on some, it was a question of institutional control; on others, it was disparate academic and athletic objectives.

8) Classical management theory supported the notion that increasing formalization in athletics was a result of too much freedom which caused "erratic and organizationally irrelevant" behavior.

Developmental Aspects

The developmental aspects of the study, as outlined in Chapter Three, revealed the following:

1) Policies and procedures manuals were utilized by intercollegiate athletic departments: of the 283 NCAA Division I institutions surveyed, 210 responded to the study (indicating a relatively high level of interest) (74%) and of the 210 respondents, 91 (43%) utilized policies and procedures manuals.

2) 119 of the 210 institutions did not utilize policies and procedures manuals (57%).

3) 53 of 91 institutions (58%) who responded that they utilized a policies and procedures manual sent one for use in the study.

4) 17 of 91 respondents (19%) utilizing a policies and procedures
manual were unwilling to provide one for use in the study while 21 of 91 respondents (18%) were in the process of revision and unable to provide a manual for use in the study.

5) Manuals varied greatly with regard to format. The shortest manual was 5 pages; the longest was 112 pages and the average length was 49 pages (for manuals with pages numbered).

6) A total of 3,720 items appeared in the tables of contents of the 53 policies and procedures manuals utilized in the study. The list of items and frequency count for each item appears in Appendix XI.

7) Content analysis revealed that the 3,720 items which appeared in the tables of contents of the policies and procedures manuals utilized in the study fell into the following 19 general categories: Academic Policies and Procedures; Administration and Organization of the Athletic Program; Awards for Athletic Participation and Achievement; Equipment, Property and Facilities; Financial Aid to Student-Athletes; Fiscal and Business Operations Policies and Procedures; Introduction, Legal Review; Medical Policies and Procedures; Miscellaneous Policies and Procedures; Personnel Policies and Procedures; Philosophy and Objectives of the Athletic Program; Recruiting Policies and Procedures; Scheduling Policies and Procedures; Sports Information Policies and Procedures; Student-Athlete Information and Responsibilities; Ticket Policies and Procedures; and Travel Policies and Procedures. The comprehensive model for a policies and procedures manual, based upon information generated from the data, appears in
Chapter Three.

Conclusions

A review of the current literature in intercollegiate athletics revealed an ideological shift in athletics in America which resulted in the perceived need for formalization of policies and procedures in athletic administration. The combination of scandals which received national media attention created questions concerning the role of athletics on college campuses and concern over the manner in which intercollegiate athletics was managed. Whether the "integrity crisis" in athletics was real or perceived, it was clear that one outcome was formalization in the areas of drug-testing, and academic requirements for both entering freshmen and participating student-athletes, while administrators focused on institutional control of athletic enterprises.

The ideology which brought about the perceived need for formalization in intercollegiate athletics held similarities as well as differences to that which provided the impetus for formalization in scientific management in the 1930's. In the case of industry in the 1930's, formalization took much the same form as formalization in current intercollegiate athletic enterprises. Organizational charts, planning, organizational goals, policies and procedures were defined for both. While Weber sought an organization which possessed purely technical superiority over existing forms, clearly that was not the driving force behind formalization in athletics. Technical superiority, however, may be an outcome of formalization in athletics. Weber sought to level social and economic differences and alleviate the
injustices of an existing social order; it would not appear that those motives existed as an impetus for formalization in athletics. Taylor sought to improve efficiency; certainly the development of policies and procedures manuals in intercollegiate athletics, on one level, is also aimed at improving efficiency. Taylor also envisioned financial implications of a new form of management, resulting in increased prosperity for both managers and workers. The financial implications of formalization in athletics, although they may result in prosperity, may be motivated more by financial accountability and balanced budgets rather than by a vision of increased prosperity for all.

In two vastly different enterprises, industry and intercollegiate athletics, in two divergent periods of time, the 1930's and the 1980's, formalization occurred. It may be that formalization occurs in times of real or perceived crisis in organizations, whether that crisis is created by social or economic motives, or scandal which generates a cry for accountability.

The research indicated that there was a trend toward the development of policies and procedures manuals for intercollegiate athletic operations nationally. Increasingly, athletic directors, faced with multimillion dollar budgets and the demands of success, were running their athletic departments like corporate enterprises, where the bottom line was of paramount importance. Faced with the demands of athletic success, the pressures to win and the somewhat divergent goals of academic and athletic units, college athletic administrators had begun to formalize policies and procedures for control of their operations.
The policy and procedure manual provides an athletic administrator with a useful management tool. While there was great diversity among manuals collected for the study with regard to detail and length, common themes emerged. There were, however, few comprehensive manuals. The model contained in Chapter Three provides a thorough list of topics for policy and procedure manual development by athletic administrators desiring to revise or update an existing manual or create a new one.

Recommendations

Athletic administrators of Division I intercollegiate athletic programs need to develop comprehensive policies and procedures manuals for their departments. Manuals should be thorough but allow for flexibility; provide documented work rules and policies; create a feeling of pride and belonging among employees; provide a personal reference for employees; clarify the roles of employees in the department; provide an effective, updated communication tool to reduce the time administrators spend with routine questions and concerns; reflect the most recent date of revision; and contain job descriptions and departmental forms. Manuals should be revised regularly and distributed in a well-organized manner. Finally, and most importantly, manuals should be subject to legal review by university counsel prior to distribution.

Recommendations for Further Study

Some questions which would provide interesting study include:

1) Is there a correlation between athletic success and administrative organization in the form of policies and
procedures manuals?

2) Is there a relationship between incidence and/or frequency of NCAA violations and the use of policies and procedures manuals by athletic directors? Do institutions without manuals have more frequent rule transgressions and do rule transgressions discovered by the NCAA result in institutional formalization in the form of policies and procedures manuals?

3) How does the structure-function approach to organizations apply to the design of athletic departments particularly in light of the differences between the goals of academics and athletics?

4) How does Merton's concept of latent functions and dysfunctions apply to athletics and would application of his theoretical framework provide useful insights into intercollegiate athletics?

5) How does Etzioni's compliance theory relate to intercollegiate athletics? Does intercollegiate athletics fit into Etzioni's category of normative organizations?
APPENDIX I

Letter from Dr. Bradley Rothermel

Permission granted by Dr. Rothermel for use of this letter or portions thereof in the study on December 21, 1987.
February 5, 1986

Professor Anthony Saville
Department of Educational Administration and Higher Education
University of Nevada, Las Vegas

Dear Professor Saville:

The purpose of this correspondence is to provide for you a recapitulation of selected aspects of our conversation which transpired in my office on February 3, 1986 and which pertained to the development, by Ms. Sheila Strike-Bolla, Co-Head Women’s Basketball Coach, of a policies and procedures manual for the Department of Intercollegiate Athletics at this institution based upon the model developed in her doctoral dissertation.

As was articulated at the aforementioned meeting, as Director of the Department of Intercollegiate Athletics at this institution, I recognize that this department is in serious need of having the aforementioned material developed. Not only could it prove to be an invaluable tool in the administration of the intercollegiate athletic program, but, additionally, it was identified as a requirement for preparation by the Board of Regents in its five year plan that was developed during the 1983-84 academic year.

Without a doubt, I am highly confident that Sheila possesses all of the characteristics which are necessary to assist her in the completion of this type of project.

Additionally, it is my feeling that a carefully developed model for a policies and procedures manual could function as a prototype which might be utilized by other NCAA Division I institutions as a guide to the effective administration of those institutions’ intercollegiate athletic programs.

Also, as was articulated during the aforementioned meeting, I would be available to assist in whatever manner would be deemed appropriate in the completion of policies and procedures manual and, also, to function as a member of
Sheila’s doctoral committee if that is deemed either appropriate and/or permissible.

Hopefully, the information which is contained for discussion in this correspondence is self-explanatory. If, however, you deem that I should be able to provide for you any additional, pertinent information, please contact me.

Sincerely,

Bradley L. Rothermel, Ph. D.
Director, Department of Intercollegiate Athletics
University of Nevada, Las Vegas

BLR/bd
APPENDIX II

Letter from Dr. Robert Maxson

Permission granted by Dr. Maxson for use of this letter or portions thereof in the study on December 21/87.
January 21, 1988

Professor Anthony Saville
Department of Educational Administration
and Higher Education
University of Nevada, Las Vegas
4505 South Maryland Parkway
Las Vegas, Nevada 89154

Dear Professor Saville:

As a result of my meeting on July 21, 1986 with Sheila Strike-Bolla, I am writing to confirm to you my position regarding the proposed development of a model for a policies and procedures manual for the Department of Intercollegiate Athletics at UNLV. I feel this project is a worthy one and one which will fulfill a current need in our athletic department.

The development of a policies and procedures manual has been mandated by the Regents of the University of Nevada System. Title 4, Chapter 10, Page 27, Section 17, Item 7 of the Regents Handbook reads, "Each institution shall develop and utilize a policy and procedures manual concerning intercollegiate athletic operations."

Ms. Strike-Bolla's project has my approval.

Sincerely,

Robert C. Maxson
President

RCM:msw
APPENDIX III

Letter from Dr. Michael Cleary

Permission granted by Dr. Cleary for use of this letter or portions thereof in the study on July 10, 1986.
July 25, 1986

Dr. Anthony Saville
Department of Higher Education
UNIVERSITY OF NEVADA, LAS VEGAS
4505 Maryland Parkway
Las Vegas, Nevada  89154

Dear Dr. Saville:

We have been in contact with Sheila Strike-Bolla regarding her doctoral dissertation at UNLV.

Her idea to compile a comprehensive outline for a Division I policies and procedures manual could indeed be beneficial to intercollegiate athletics. Though certainly there are slight variances from one institution to the next, a structured model would help to standardize the industry and add consistency among universities.

Concerning the potential use for the results, NACDA would be most happy to keep Sheila's model on file and distribute to requesting members. New athletic directors or those wishing to revamp their current manuals, from time to time ask us for a standard model.

We enthusiastically support Sheila's research.

Sincerely,

Michael J. Cleary
Executive Director

MJC;ds

cc: Sheila Strike-Bolla
APPENDIX IV

Letter to Athletic Directors
February 25/86

Division I Directors of Intercollegiate Athletics

Dear Sir,

The purpose of this correspondence is to solicit your assistance in the compilation of research materials for my doctoral studies. I am attempting to write a policies and procedures manual for the Department of Intercollegiate Athletics at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas. I wish to review as many Division I manuals as possible in an attempt to ascertain commonalities among manuals currently utilized by Division I member institutions.

I am writing to request that you complete the enclosed postcard which will indicate whether or not you currently utilize a policies and procedures manual for your department and whether or not you would be able to send a copy to me for review.

I would be most appreciative of your efforts to return the enclosed, self-addressed, stamped postcard at your earliest possible convenience. Also, I would be most grateful for a copy of your manual. If possible, please mail a copy to me at the following address:

Sheila Strike-Bolla
Doctoral Student
University of Nevada, Las Vegas

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Sheila Strike-Bolla
Doctoral Student
University of Nevada, Las Vegas

Approved by:

Anthony Saville
Professor, Educational Administration and Higher Education, UNLV

Bradley Rothermel
Director, Department of Intercollegiate Athletics, UNLV
APPENDIX V

Follow-up Letter to Athletic Directors
April 21, 1986

Dear Sir:

In early March, I forwarded to your office the attached correspondence related to my doctoral research. If your response has crossed paths with this letter in the mail, please disregard this note. If, however, I have inadvertently made a mailing error or my letter for some reason did not reach your desk, I would appreciate your attention to the following.

Thank you.

Sheila Strike-Bolla
Doctoral Student
University of Nevada, Las Vegas
APPENDIX VI

Postcard to Athletic Directors
to:

Sheila Strike-Bolla  
Department of Intercollegiate Athletics  
University of Nevada, Las Vegas  
4505 Maryland Parkway  
Las Vegas, NV 89154

Name of Institution:
________________________________________

Name of Athletic Director:
________________________________________

We have a policies and procedures manual for the Department of Intercollegiate Athletics:
Yes _________ No _________

A copy of our manual will be mailed to you:
Yes _________ No _________
APPENDIX VII

List of 283 Division I Colleges and Universities Surveyed
APPENDIX VII

LIST OF 283 DIVISION I COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES SURVEYED

Akron, University of
Alabama State University
Alabama, University of, at Birmingham
Alabama, University of, at Tuscaloosa
Alcorn State University
American University
Appalachian State University
Arizona State University
Arizona, University of
Arkansas State University
Arkansas, University of, Fayetteville
Arkansas, University of, Little Rock
Auburn University
Augusta College
Austin Peay State University

Ball State University
Baptist College
Baylor University
Bethune-Cookman College
Boise State University
Boston College
Boston University
Bowling Green State University
Bradley University
Brigham Young University
Brooklyn College
Brown University
Bucknell University
Butler University

California State University, Fresno
California State University, Fullerton
California State University, Long Beach
California, University of, Berkeley
California, University of, Irvine
California, University of, Los Angeles
California, University of, Santa Barbara
Campbell University
Canisius College
Centenary College
Central Florida, University of
Central Michigan University
Chicago State University
Cincinnati, University of
Citadel, The
Clemson University
Cleveland State University
Colgate University
Colorado State University
Colorado, University of
Columbia University - Barnard College
Connecticut, University of
Coppin State College
Cornell University
Creighton University

Dartmouth College
Davidson College
Dayton, University of
Delaware State College
Delaware, University of
DePaul University
Detroit, University of
Drake University
Drexel University
Duke University
Duquesne University

East Carolina University
East Tennessee State University
Eastern Illinois University
Eastern Kentucky University
Eastern Michigan University
Eastern Washington University
Evansville, University of

Fairfield University
Farleigh Dickinson University, Teaneck
Florida A&M University
Florida State University
Florida, University of
Fordham University
Furman University

George Mason University
George Washington University
Georgetown University
Georgia Institute of Technology
Georgia Southern College
Georgia State University
Georgia, University of
Gonzaga University
Grambling State University
Hardin-Simmons University
Hartford, University of
Harvard University
Hawaii, University of
Hofstra University
Holy Cross College
Houston Baptist University
Houston, University of
Howard University

Idaho State University
Idaho, University of
Illinois State University
Illinois, University of, Champaign
Illinois, University of, Chicago
Indiana State University, Terre Haute
Indiana University, Bloomington
Iona College
Iowa State University
Iowa, University of

Jackson State University
Jacksonville University
James Madison University

Kansas State University
Kansas, University of
Kent State University
Kentucky, University of

Lafayette College
Lamar University
La Salle University
Lehigh University
Long Island University - Brooklyn Center
Louisiana State University
Louisiana Tech University
Louisville, University of
Loyola College (Maryland)
Loyola Marymount University
Loyola University (Illinois)

Maine, University of, Orono
Manhattan College
Marist College
Marquette University
Marshall University
Maryland, University of, College Park
Maryland, University of, Eastern Shore
Massachusetts, University of, Amherst
McNeese State University
Memphis State University
Mercer University
Miami, University of (Florida)
Miami University (Ohio)
Michigan State University
Michigan, University of
Middle Tennessee State University
Minnesota, University of, Twin Cities
Mississippi State University
Mississippi, University of
Mississippi Valley State University
Missouri, University of, Columbia
Monmouth College (New Jersey)
Montana State University
Montana, University of
Morehead State University
Morgan State University
Murray State University
Nebraska, University of, Lincoln
Nevada, University of, Reno
New Hampshire, University of
New Mexico State University
New Mexico, University of
New Orleans, University
Niagara University
Nicholls State University
North Carolina A&T State University
North Carolina State University
North Carolina, University of, Chapel Hill
North Carolina, University of, Charlotte
North Carolina, University of, Wilmington
North Texas State University
Northeast Louisiana University
Northeastern University
Northern Arizona University
Northern Illinois University
Northern Iowa, University of
Northwestern State University (Louisiana)
Northwestern University
Notre Dame, University of

Ohio State University
Ohio University
Oklahoma State University
Oklahoma, University of
Old Dominion University
Oral Roberts University
Oregon State University
Oregon, University of
Pacific, University of the
Pan American University
Pennsylvania State University
Pennsylvania, University of
Pepperdine University
Pittsburgh, University of
Portland, University of
Prairie View A&M University
Princeton University
Providence College
Purdue University

Radford University
Rhode Island, University of
Rice University
Richmond, University of
Rider College
Robert Morris College
Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey

St. Bonaventure University
St. Francis College (New York)
St. Francis College (Pennsylvania)
St. John's University (New York)
St. Joseph's University (Pennsylvania)
St. Louis University
St. Mary's College (California)
St. Peter's College
Samford University
San Diego State University
San Diego, University of
San Francisco, University of
San Jose State University
Santa Clara, University of
Seton Hall University
Siena College
South Alabama, University of
South Carolina State College
South Carolina, University of
South Florida, University of
Southeastern Louisiana University
Southern California, University of
Southern Illinois University, Carbondale
Southern Methodist University
Southern Mississippi, University of
Southern University, Baton Rouge
Southwest Missouri State University
Southwest Texas State University
Southwestern Louisiana, University of
Stanford University
Stetson University
Syracuse University

Temple University
Tennessee State University
Tennessee Technological University
Tennessee, University of, Chattanooga
Tennessee, University of, Knoxville
Texas A&M University
Texas Christian University
Texas Southern University
Texas Tech University
Texas, University of, Arlington
Texas, University of, Austin
Texas, University of, El Paso
Texas, University of, San Antonio
Toledo, University of
Towson State University
Tulane University
Tulsa, University of

U.S. Air Force Academy
U.S. International University
U.S. Military Academy
U.S. Naval Academy
Utah State University
Utah, University of
Utica College

Valparaiso University
Vanderbilt University
Vermont, University of
Villanova University
Virginia Commonwealth University
Virginia Military Institute
Virginia Polytechnic Institute
Virginia, University of

Wagner College
Wake Forest University
Washington State University
Washington University
Weber State College
West Texas State University
West Virginia University
Western Carolina University
Western Illinois University
Western Kentucky University
Western Michigan University
Wichita State University
William and Mary, College of
Wisconsin, University of, Green Bay
Wisconsin, University of, Madison
Wyoming, University of

Xavier University

Yale University
Youngstown State University
APPENDIX VIII

List of Colleges and Universities Whose Policies and Procedures Manuals Were Utilized in the Study
APPENDIX VIII

LIST OF COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES WHOSE POLICIES AND PROCEDURES MANUALS WERE UTILIZED IN THE STUDY

Appalachian State University
Arizona, University of
Boston University
Bradley University
California, University of at Berkeley
California, University of at Los Angeles
California, University of at Santa Barbara
Campbell University
Central Michigan University
Chicago State University
Columbia University
Georgia Technological University
Grambling State University
Harvard University
Hawaii, University of
Hofstra University
Houston Baptist University
Idaho State University
Illinois, University of
Illinois State University
Kansas State University
Kansas, University of
Kentucky, University of
Louisville, University of
Manhattan College
Montana State University
Nevada, University of at Reno
New Mexico, University of
Nichols State University
North Carolina, University of at Chapel Hill
North Carolina, University of at Wilmington
Northern Arizona University
Northern Iowa, University of
Northwestern University
Ohio State University
Ohio University
Oklahoma, University of
Old Dominion University
Pennsylvania, The University of
Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey
St. John's University
St. Mary's University
St. Peter's College
San Diego State University
San Diego, University of
South Alabama, University of
Stetson University
Tennessee Technological University
Toledo, University of
Washington State University
Western Carolina University
Western Kentucky University
Wichita State University
APPENDIX IX

Bibliography of Policies and Procedures
Manuals Utilized in the Study
APPENDIX IX

BIBLIOGRAPHY OF POLICIES AND PROCEDURES MANUALS UTILIZED IN THE STUDY


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San Diego, University of. *Policy Manual, Department of Athletics and Recreation.* San Diego, California, October, 1981.


Toledo, University of. *Department of Intercollegiate Athletics.* Toledo, Ohio, October, 1985.

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Wichita State University, Intercollegiate Athletic Association Inc.. *Policy Manual.* Wichita, Kansas, 1983.
APPENDIX X

List of Comments Received
APPENDIX X
LIST OF COMMENTS RECEIVED

Being compiled.
In progress – can't give a definite date.
One is being written at this time.
In progress of making one.
We have started a manual and it should be completed in the near future.
Outdated. Presently under complete revision. Not available until after revision.
Enclosed.
We're presently developing the first one for the department.
Our policies and procedures are outlined and controlled by State Board of Regents (all schools in state except Tennessee).
Not at this time.
It is being completely revised-completed at end of this academic year.
Our manual is currently in the process of revision.
Be pleased to discuss.
Our manual is under extensive revision – please contact us next year if you want one then.
In the process of developing one.
We are in process of putting one together.
Our manual is in the process of revision and we should have it ready sometime this summer at which time we could mail you a copy.
Dates back to 50's and 60's. We are in the process of rewriting our articles – target date 2-1-86.
We are in the process of rewriting ours.
Our manual is not up to date and needs to be revised.
Am putting one together.
But working on one.
We have plans to produce manual in near future.
It is being revised; none available at this time.
Great project! It is surely needed here.
Our departmental manual has not recently been updated but at least will provide an organizational sample.
Needs updates but may help you.
We are currently in the process of totally redoing our P&P manual.
We are in the process of developing a new manual for the 86-87 academic year.
In the process of completing – 2nd year as director.
We are attempting to write a manual at this time.
We are in the process of revising manual – will send copy on 7-1-86.
We are developing a manual.
We are currently writing a new policy and procedures manual for our department.
At this time we have no extra copies available.
We are awaiting approval of our manual by the Athletic Committee. Will mail A.S.A.P.
Will send when revision is completed. But we should have one. Good luck with your manual.
Happy to send one but it won't be complete before the end of the summer.
It's being revised.
We are in the process of developing a policy manual - letter attached.
Being updated. I can mail a present copy.
We would be interested in your results and your manual. Has not been approved by Board of Trustees.
I will send it later. We are revising present one.
We are in the process of preparing our manual.
We are in the process of compiling a P&P manual.
Student manual.
We would like to request a copy of the final results if possible.

Good Luck*

Manual is incomplete.
We are currently writing a manual.
I am currently writing one. I assumed duties July 1, 1985.
Recently consolidated men's and women's programs - revising P&P manuals.
Not at this time - manual being revised and updated.
One is currently being developed.
We are in the process of developing a procedures manual.
We are also in process of preparing manual.
Our manual is currently being revised. Old manuals are not available.
Please send a copy of your completed project and handbook.
$10 a copy.
We are presently completing one.
Letter attached - obtain a copy from our publisher.
We are in the process of rewriting our manual.
Would like to develop one for our athletic department.
Currently being updated for '86-'87 academic year.
Almost completed; not for distribution yet. Sorry*
We are in the process of organizing a manual.
We charge a $10 fee for copying and mailing.
APPENDIX XI

Detailed Content Analysis of All Items
From the Fifty-Three Policies and Procedures Manuals Utilized in the Study
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Academic Eligibility for Athletes (1) - see Eligibility
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   Academic Counseling for Athletes (1)
   Recommended Athletic Eligibility Check Procedures (1)
   University Eligibility Standards (1)
Academic Progress and Eligibility for Competition (1)
Academic Services (3)
   Procedures (1) - see Scholarships
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   Summary of Services offered by Academic Services (2)
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   Academic Advisory Program (1)
   Coaches Responsibility (1)
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   Academic Progress Report (1)
   Admission - Policies and Procedures (1)
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Administration Responsibilities (1)
Administrative Control (4)
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  Athletic Council (1)
  Athletic Director (1)
  Athletic Liaison Committee (1)
  Board of Regents (2)
  Board of Regents Intercollegiate Athletic Subcommittee (1)
  Board of Trustees (1)
  Committee on Athletics and Recreation (1)
  Dean of the University (1)
  Director of Athletics (2)
  Faculty or University Representative for Athletics (2)
  Financial Aids Committee (1)
  Governing Authorities (1)
  Policy Formulation (1)
  President (3)
  Regents (1)
  Vice President for Administration and Finance (1)
  Vice President for Finance (1)

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  Drugs (1)
  Duties (2)
  General (2)
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  NCAA Athlete Statement (1)
  NCAA Letters of Intent (1)
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  Athletic Financial Information (1) - see Athletic Financial Information
  Athletic Housing (1) - see Housing
  Athletic Public Relations (1) - see Public Relations
  Athletic Ticket Office (1) - see Tickets
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  Academic Policies (1) - see Academic Policies
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  Recruiting Guidelines (1) - see Recruiting Guidelines
  Scheduling of Facilities (1) - see Scheduling of Facilities

Scholarship Policies (1) - see Scholarship Policies
Student and Game Night Promotions (1) - see Student and Game Night Promotions
Secretarial Assignments (1)
University Intercollegiate Foundation (1) - see University Intercollegiate Foundation
Health and Insurance (1) - see Medical
Home Game Management (1)
Policies and Procedures for Hiring Personnel (1)
Termination Policies and Procedures (1)
Administrative Responsibilities (1) - see Job Descriptions
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