

TITLE IX, SEX RATIOS, AND TRENDS IN LEADERSHIP  
ROLES IN AIAW DIVISION I INSTITUTIONS

DISSERTATION

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by

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CHAPTER I  
INTRODUCTION

Since their inception and growth following the First World War, until the dramatic changes occurring in the late 1960's, women's athletics were largely governed by women (Twin, 1974). Recently, however, there has been some indication that women's self-governance in athletics may be giving way to a new trend wherein men are becoming responsible for women's athletic activities. This trend has been observed not only in the administration of athletics but also in its coaching. The purposes of this study were to document this trend, if present, and investigate possible causes for its existence.

There was a time when men administering women's varsity athletics were "as scarce as hen's teeth" according to Dr. Ann Uhlir, Executive Director of the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW). "Now there are very few institutions left where the person with the ultimate authority for women's varsity sports is a woman," according to Uhlir, "and there are increasing numbers of men coaching women's varsity teams with no corresponding increase in the number of women coaching men's teams" (Beck-Rex, 1979).

These statements made by Dr. Uhlir and others involved in intercollegiate athletics suggest a need for determining the role of women in athletic coaching and administration. Margolis (1978) suggested that women's athletic positions were increasingly being

staffed with men. Margolis proposed that factors contributing to this trend were lack of assistant training, lack of coaching emphasis in physical education programs and the relative infancy of the women's athletic movement. Therefore, the current status of the role of women in intercollegiate athletics requires study and clarification.

With the passage and subsequent implementation of Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1972, many new opportunities should have developed for girls and women to be members of varsity athletic teams. Unfortunately, the expected concomitant offering of opportunities for women to occupy leadership positions as athletic coaches and/or administrators may not have happened. In fact, many believe the involvement of women in these capacities has decreased since the enactment of federal legislation.

#### Justification of the Study

While women, as well as men, participated in sports activities since the beginning of the century, there were significant differences in their approaches and emphases. The development of women's and girl's athletic competition ensued from non-competitive "sport days" at the beginning of the century. This stage was followed by heightened participation in sports immediately following World War I. During the 1920's and 1930's, women were admired for skill and talent in athletics but largely in nonstrenuous or graceful sports such as ice skating, swimming and field hockey (Twin, 1979). This structure of low level competition and "play for play's sake" or "sport for sport's sake", was, for the most part, coached and administered by

women. These were the prevailing attitudes until the 1960's.

Conversely, men's athletic programs have had organized, competitive athletics since the early 1900's. Twin (1979:xxxvii) states "Athletics are still largely viewed as an expression of male sexuality and power, a world in which women are intruders but not rightful heirs". Therefore, it is not surprising that organized, competitive athletics have traditionally been male-dominated activities. Athletics, at all levels, were basically for males and by males. This included participation as athletes, coaches and administrators.

The intent of Title IX legislation was to afford girls and women a greater opportunity for participation in athletics. To a large extent this has happened, i.e., women participating in athletics at all levels has increased (Parkhouse, 1980; Steif, 1980; Hogan, 1978a; Gadelman, et al., 1977; Neal, 1977). This has been accompanied by significant increases in funding for women's athletics (Parkhouse, 1980; Steif, 1980, Hogan, 1978b). This increase has enabled institutions which had no programs to initiate programs. Institutions that had programs for women, have also been able to expand these programs. These advances are directly related to implementation of Title IX legislation.

There may have been, however, a more subtle and deleterious effect ensuing from Title IX. The expansion of women intercollegiate athletics has been in terms of the number of programs, number of women athletes involved, and amount of money being spent on such programs. Margolis (1979) has speculated that this expansion has

attracted greater numbers of men to lead such programs - not women. This may be the crux of a serious problem. Several leaders in women's athletics have noted the previously mentioned trend (Hult, Lopiano, Baker). What is needed at this point, however, are data either verifying or refuting this trend. To this end, a study investigating this trend was conducted.

### The Problem

#### Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this investigation was to identify and analyze trends in Title IX's impact and sex ratios of athletic coaches and administrators in AIAW Division I intercollegiate athletic programs.

#### Sub-Problems

1. To determine the number of athletic activities offered for women in 1970-71, 75-76 and 80-81.
2. To determine the percent of women coaches for women's athletics in 1970-71, 75-76 and 80-81.
3. To determine the percent of women as women's athletic administrators (demonstrated as the Institutional Representative to the AIAW) in 1970-71, 75-76 and 80-81.
4. To determine the percent and number of women coaching women's athletics compared to percent and number of total number of coaches of women's athletics in 1970-71, 75-76 and 80-81.
5. To determine the percent and number of women in athletic administration positions compared to percent of total athletic administrators in 1970-71, 75-76 and 80-81.
6. To identify and analyze Title IX cases in athletics.
7. To determine the reasons for the changes in leadership roles of women in athletics.

### Research Procedures

This investigation was divided into four sections: 1) the research of AIAW records, 2) a national survey of all AIAW Division I institutions, 3) personal interviews both at the AIAW National Office and at the 1981 Delegate Assembly, and 4) reviews and abstracts of all court cases involved in the total question of Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1972.

#### Research of AIAW Records

The following information was collected at the AIAW National Archives at the University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland. While the AIAW National Office cooperated fully during the February data collection, it must be noted that information for the years 1970-71 was not available. The first documented year of records was 1971-72, and this period was substituted for the usual 1970-71 time span used on other data collections in this study. Therefore, the following information about AIAW Division I institutions was found in these three different years (1971-72, 1975-76 and 1980-81):

1. The number of athletic activities offered for women at each institution.
2. The number of women coaches for the women's teams at each institution.
3. The number of men coaches for the women's teams at each institution.
4. The percentage of women coaches for the women's teams at each institution.
5. The number and percent of women athletic administrators (defined as the AIAW Institution Representative) at each institution.

### National Survey of Institutions

A national survey was conducted to verify and substantiate the information found through the search of the AIAW records. To this end a questionnaire with cover letter (see Appendix A) was sent to all AIAW institutions with at least one athletic activity on the Division I level during November, 1980. A follow-up letter restating the purpose of the questionnaire was mailed to institutions not responding within one month of the initial mailing (see Appendix A).

Division I classification allows schools electing this competitive level to offer maximum numbers and amounts of scholarships for the given sports. Consequently, it is generally acknowledged that a large percentage of top-level female athletes are recruited by and generally attend colleges with Division I classification. According to Margolis (1978), it is this group of top-level athletes that men are particularly interested in coaching. Therefore, the questionnaire was mailed to institutions offering Division I competition in at least one intercollegiate athletic activity.

### Personal Interviews

Personal interviews were conducted at the AIAW National Office and at the 1981 AIAW Delegate Assembly held in Detroit, Michigan in January, 1981. These interviews were designed to verify findings for questions five through eight of the questionnaire. Questions five through eight of the questionnaire were designed to solicit reasons for changes in athletic staffing. The format of the interview that elicited these responses is presented in the Interview

Guide (Appendix B). While the Interview Guide lists questions regarding numbers of male and female coaches (questions one through four and six), these results were not tabulated. Rather, these initial questions were asked to familiarize the subjects with the survey area and to ease them into the reasons for possible changes.

#### Title IX Court Cases

A review of all U.S. and State Appellate court cases involved in the total question of Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 through December 31, 1980 was conducted. Customary sources of legal research were employed. These sources included a review of federal and state court reporters, the text of Title IX, and law reviews. All cases dealing with Title IX were read. Particularly noteworthy or "landmark" cases were abstracted and placed in Appendix D. All cases were "Shepardized" to ensure accurate and up-to-date information.

#### Organization of the Study

The report of this investigation consists of six chapters. The statement of the problem, justification, research procedures, the organization of the study and the definition of terms are in Chapter I. The research of the AIAW records, located in the University of Maryland Archives, is presented in Chapter II. In Chapter III, the data from the national survey questionnaire are presented. An analysis of data derived from personal interviews is presented in Chapter IV. A review of court cases dealing with Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1972 is presented in Chapter V. The

conclusions, implications and recommendations for further study are provided in Chapter VI. A review of the related literature is integrated within the content of each chapter.

In addition, appendices are provided. They are presented in the following order:

- A. Survey Questionnaire, cover letter and follow-up letter.
- B. Interview Guide
- C. List of Interviewed Subjects
- D. Title IX Case Abstracts
- E. List of Institutions Surveyed
- F. AIAW Regional Divisions
- G. AIAW Charter Members.

#### Definition of Terms

AIAW - Association of Intercollegiate Athletics for Women.

ANOVA - Analysis of Variance is a comparison of means for independent samples in order to make statistical inferences about whether the samples' respective populations are different.

Athletic Administrators - Those persons involved in the leadership duties of intercollegiate athletic department, including:

1. Athletic Director (AD)
2. Assistant/Associate AD for Women
3. Assistant/Associate AD for Finance
4. Assistant Associate AD for Internal Organizations

Athletic Activities - Those competitions that are at the intercollegiate level. This eliminates club or intramural activities.

Coach - Person who is in charge of leading an individual intercollegiate sport.

District - For the purposes of this study, AIAW regions 1, 2 and 3 form the eastern district; regions 4, 5 and 6 form the central district; and regions 7, 8 and 9 form the western district (Appendix F).



Division I - A level of competition within the structure of the AIAW. At this level each member institution is allowed to give the full amount allowed by AIAW scholarship aid to athletes based on athletic ability.

GLM - General Linear Model - A statistical analysis systems' computer encoded data analysis based on probabilistic, polynomial equations, which allow for multiple independent variables.

Intercollegiate Athletics - Athletic programs sponsored and funded by a department of athletics which is a member of the AIAW institutions. This definition includes only varsity athletic teams and not club or intramural sports.

Region - The AIAW has divided the fifty states into nine regions. For purpose of this investigation, a region is one of the nine AIAW regions. It should also be noted that these nine regions were consolidated into three geographic districts (Appendix F).

Shepardize - A process named for Frank Shepard who started printing citations in Chicago in 1873. Shepardization allows a researcher the ability to update court cases in a single listing.

Title IX of the 1972 Education Amendments - The federal statute which prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex against students of education programs and activities receiving federal funds.

CHAPTER II  
RESEARCH OF AIAW RECORDS

This chapter deals with an investigation of records at the National Office of the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW) in Washington, DC. The data presented in this chapter were obtained from the official records of the organization stored in the AIAW national office and its Archives at the University of Maryland. This separate collection of data verified the information gained through a national institution survey which will be reported in Chapter III of this document. This chapter consists of six sections; an historical prospective of the AIAW, the relationship of the AIAW and the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), women's changing role in athletics, the organization of the national records research, the results of the national records research, and a summary. The purpose of the sections preceding the organization of the national records research is to provide background information and an historical context for discussion of the organization and findings of the national records research.

Historical Prospective

What a difference a decade makes! In 1972 the AIAW (Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women) jumped feet first into the national tournament business, sponsoring seven meets for its 400 member colleges. Less than 10 years later, the AIAW offers 30 national championships in 14 sports. And, the membership has more than doubled. The 1979-80 roster listed 972 colleges and universities. (Frank, 1980:14)

Of the 250 AIAW Division I institutions targeted in this investigation, 94 were charter members in 1971-72 (Appendix G). The charter members of the AIAW formed the original governing body for women's athletics under the auspices of the National Association for Girls and Women's Sports (NAGWS). The NAGWS, a division of the (then) American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation (AAHPER), founded an organization for women's collegiate athletics called the Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (CIAW) and later changed the name to the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW). The primary purpose of the early forms of the AIAW was to insure championship meets for women. In 1967, when the CIAW was formed, there were no championship meets for college women.

In the ten years of its existence, the AIAW has grown considerably. According to Dr. Joan Hult, Director of the AIAW Archives of the University of Maryland, the AIAW has established a viable and effective governing body for women's athletics. However, Dr. Hult believes another aspect of the organization, its political activity, has affected its status and may threaten its continued existence. During its ten year history, the AIAW has been a politically active organization. According to Dr. Hult, the AIAW actively lobbied for the passage of Title IX and was instrumental in its passage. With the passage of Title IX, AIAW finally had the needed backing to rectify the inequities that they had fought against for so long.

AIAW Interaction With NCAA

Unfortunately, the legal power and its concomitant financial backing afforded by Title IX have also attracted previously disinterested groups. One of these groups, the NCAA, has recently become interested in women's intercollegiate athletics. To understand the significance of this interest, the background of NCAA and AIAW interaction regarding Title IX and the sponsorship of intercollegiate championship meets for women's athletics is presented.

Before the inception of a governing body for women's athletics, the NCAA was informed by the Division of Girl's and Women's Sports (DGWS) that formation of such a group was imminent. According to AIAW records, in February, 1966, Richard C. Larkins, the President of the National Association of College Directors of Athletics (NACDA), informed the NCAA via a phone call to Charles Neinas, Assistant to the NCAA Director, that the CIAW was to be formed by the DGWS to offer National Championships and govern women athletics (AIAW, 1980a).

On March 8, 1966, Charles Neinas responded to Larkins phone call with the following message:

The NCAA limits its jurisdiction and authority to male student athletes. In fact, the Executive Regulations of this Association prohibit women from participating in National Collegiate Championship events. Also, the NCAA's Constitution and By-Law provisions concerning the recruitment of athletes and conduct of intercollegiate athletics relates to the programs sponsored by our member institutions for male students.

Consequently, a national organization assuming responsibility for women's intercollegiate athletics would not be in conflict with this Association.

Please assure the DGWS that the NCAA stands ready to be of assistance, in an advisory capacity, in formulating policies and procedures for the conduct of intercollegiate athletics for women. We wish the DGWS well in this endeavor (AIAW, 1980a).

So, on March 22, 1966, the DGWS Executive Council approved formation of the CIAW and the next day the AAHPER Board of Directors approved the DGWS sponsorship of women's national championships and the formation of CIAW. For the transition from the CIAW in 1967 to the eventual establishment of the AIAW in 1971, the AIAW records indicate no major interaction with the NCAA (AIAW, 1980a).

However, in 1972 when Title IX of Educational Amendments was introduced and passed in the legislature, conflicts began to emerge. In October, 1973, the NCAA Long Range Planning Committee's report to the NCAA Council recommended to the Executive Committee that it amend the Executive Regulations to permit women to compete in NCAA Championship competition (AIAW, 1980a).

When Title IX was passed, the NCAA realized the potential limitations this legislation would impose on men's athletics and was openly antagonistic towards the legislation (Hogan, 1978b). Even after its passage, the NCAA has continued to support appeals that would limit the effects of Title IX. For example, the NCAA favors the exemption of revenue producing sports from the jurisdiction of Title IX, thereby rendering it powerless (Fields, 1978a; Fields, 1981). In all, there has been little support for women's intercollegiate athletics ensuing from the NCAA. Further, these stances have placed the NCAA in direct opposition to stated objectives offered by the AIAW, and those of Title IX: equality for women in

sports. This opposition is made apparent by William C. Kramer, a lawyer for the NCAA, in his summary of Judge Joiner's decision in the Ann Arbor case. This case decided that the influence of Title IX extends only to educational programs or activities receiving direct federal aid. This decision would exempt all revenue producing sports.

Kramer States:

Judge Joiner is consistent with our position on the law since the beginning...that the scope of Title IX's authority is limited to federally assisted programs and activities (Fields, 1981).

#### Women's Changing Role in Athletics

In light of the foregoing events, it is puzzling to discover that the NCAA is now actively offering championships for women in all three AIAW divisions of competition. Further, if the NCAA provides funding for national championships, as it does for men's athletics, then it seems likely that attendance at and participation in AIAW tournaments, which provide no remuneration, will lose significance. The effect from a possible NCAA take-over or merger with AIAW in governing women's championships is women's loss of power at the administrative level (coaching positions, voting representatives and athletic directors). It may not be an accident that these new tournament offers come at a time when increasing numbers of men coach and direct women's intercollegiate sports (Parkhouse, 1979).

In an AIAW publication "Data Summary: The Diminishing Role of Women in Higher Education and Athletics", it was noted that the Big Ten Conference vividly portrays women's loss of power. In the early 1970's, all women's programs were directly administered by women.

Today, eight have merged departments and all eight have appointed the male as the athletic director. Also, prior to 1972, only six percent of Division I men's and women's athletic programs were merged. In 1979, sixty-four percent of Division I programs were merged. "In virtually every case, these merged departments were headed by male athletic directors. The women have been relegated to the assistant role with little or no decision" (AIAW, 1980b). A study by Parkhouse (1980) reported that almost forty percent of Division I head coaches of women's teams were male, and overall, the number of men in head and assistant coaching positions of women's teams has increased by one hundred thirty-seven percent since the passage of Title IX. Conversely, the number of women has decreased by twenty percent. However, the Parkhouse study was conducted by survey questionnaire only. A further limitation of that study was that it only investigated the coaching position changes.

#### Organization of the National Records Search

The purpose of the present investigation was to identify trends in sex ratios of athletic coaches and administrators in AIAW Division I intercollegiate athletic programs. It was conducted in three separate investigative techniques. The first technique, a search and analysis of the national records of AIAW, was designed to empirically answer the following sub-problems through documents on file:

1. To determine the number of athletic activities offered for women in 1971-72, 75-76 and 80-81.
2. To determine the percent of women coaches for women's athletics in 1971-72, 75-76 and 80-81.

3. To determine the percent of women as women's athletic administrators (demonstrated as the Institutional Representative to the AIAW in 1971-72, 75-76 and 80-81.
4. To determine the percent and number of women coaching women's athletics compared to percent and number to total number of coaches of women's athletics in 1975-76 and 80-81.
5. To determine the percent and number of women in athletic administration positions compared to percent of total athletic administrators in 1976-76 and 80-81.

Through investigation of the AIAW records, it was discovered that the first year (1970-71) used in the survey technique was not a valid year in which to begin a search of the AIAW records. Charter memberships in the AIAW were begun in 1971-72. Consequently, the investigation of records had to begin with the initial year of 1971-72.

The information sought in the search of records at the AIAW Archives at the University of Maryland, addressing the sub-problems one through six of Chapter I, was translated into a set of research topics for the national record search:

1. The number of athletic activities offered for women at each institution.
2. The number of women coaches for the women's teams at each institution.
3. The number of men coaches for women's teams at each institution.
4. The percentage of women coaches for the women's teams at each insitituion.
5. The number and percent of women athletic administrators (defined as the AIAW Institutional Representatives at each institution.



For the years 1971-72, the sex of the coaches was not available in AIAW records. At that time, the application for membership did not require an institution to list the coaches of various sports. There also were few affidavits of eligibility for member institutions. Frank's Guide to Athletics: Women's Edition also was not available in 1971-72. Therefore, in 1971-72, the information gained for the ninety-three charter members of the 250 institutions was the number of sports offered and the sex of the AIAW representative. At that time, nearly every AIAW Institutional Voting Representative was female. Of the 278 total charter members, only seven institutional representatives were male. Of the ninety-three charter institutions involved in the present study, only three had male institutional representatives to the AIAW. This was 3.2 percent of the total. The mean number of women's athletic teams offered by these ninety-three charter institutions was 8.1 teams. When this was compared to the 2.94 teams in the national survey, the immediate realization is that these are different populations.

In 1975-76, the AIAW records continued to be scarce. For the most part, only records for institutions participating in regional or national competition were retained by the AIAW Archives. During this time, the national office was unable to realistically review all incoming information; since only one woman was operating the entire headquarters as late as 1975 (Jackson, 1981).

This investigator did search all available affidavits of eligibility for the year 1976-76 and discovered that the AIAW institutional representative continued to be primarily women. Of

the records searched, 131 or 91 percent of the institutions had a woman for their institutional representative, and only 12 or 9 percent had a man as their institutional representative to AIAW.

Upon the advice of Linda Dixon, Administrative Assistant to Ann Uhlir, the AIAW Director, and Cindy Jackson, Administrative Accountant for AIAW, Frank's Guide to Athletics: Women's Edition was used to gain a more complete picture of the women's athletic programs at the target institutions. The guide lists the information relative to the research topics listed earlier in this chapter. Therefore, the investigator used Frank's Guide: Women's Edition, 1975-76 and 1980-81 to obtain the needed information.

#### Limitations

In using the Frank's Guide to determine the number of coaches in the target years of 1975-76 and 1980-81, several limitations were imposed. The main limitations were in determining the sex of the coaches in three separate cases: 1) When the position was listed as open, 2) When only the first initial and last name were provided, and 3) When a unisex name was used.

Another limitation involved in the research of the AIAW records was that in 1971-72 it was impossible to determine the sex of the coaches of women's athletic activities. This information was not recorded. Also in 1971-72, the institutions that were charter members of AIAW were most likely atypical. That is, they were more zealous in terms of women's athletics and, consequently, offered a large number of athletic activities for women early in the growth period.

## Results

The data from the research of the AIAW records and Frank's Guide was analyzed in a 3x4x2 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) with three districts, four enrollment categories, and three years. The General Linear Model (GLM) procedure was used because variances attributable to region or enrollment were first extracted and found to be insignificant. The additional variance accounted for with only years included was, therefore, attributed to the variable years. Years was the variable of interest because of the developmental nature of this investigation and the statistical significance of the variable. The findings from these data analyses are presented by research topics.

### Research Topic One

In 1971-72, 760 athletic activities were offered for women in the charter member institutions included in this study's population. In 1975-76, this number increased to 1364 activities. This increase represents a seventy-nine percent (79%) growth over the five year period. In 1980-81, the number of activities increased to 1742. This is a twenty-seven percent (27%) increase from 1975-76 to 1980-81, and a 129 percent (129%) increase for the decade. These findings are summarized in Table 1 on page 20.

### Research Topics Two and Four

In 1971-72, it was impossible to determine by the methods selected, the number of women coaches at the Division I institutions that were charter members of the AIAW. In 1975-76, 1067 women coached at the Division I institutions selected for investigation in

TABLE I  
 Number and Mean of Athletic Activities Offered  
 at Division I Institutions for Two Years

	District 1	District 2	District 3	Total
1975-76	N = 651 $\bar{X}$ = 6.78	N = 495 $\bar{X}$ = 6.69	N = 218 $\bar{X}$ = 6.23	N = 1364 $\bar{X}$ = 6.65
1980-81	N = 864 $\bar{X}$ = 7.29	N = 611 $\bar{X}$ = 6.79	N = 285 $\bar{X}$ = 6.78	N = 1742 $\bar{X}$ = 6.94

this study. In 1980-81, this number decreased to 989. This decrease represents a seven percent (7%) attrition rate over the five year period. The differences in the number of women coaches in the two different years were analyzed in an ANOVA comparison. The results of the GLM ANOVA are listed in Table 2 on page 22. The difference between number of women coaches was significant only when years were the dependent variable ( $p < .0001$ ). All other variables were not significant. The size effects of the seemingly small attrition of seven percent is compounded by the twenty-seven percent increase in athletic activities over the same time span. Further, it is shown in Table 3 on page 23 that the average number of women coaches at any given institution has decreased considerably. These reductions must be considered in light of the increase in athletic activities for women and in light of the changes in male coaches.

#### Research Topics Three and Five

In 1975-76, the average number of male coaches of women's athletics at any institution was 1.38 coaches. In 1980-81, the mean number of male coaches was 2.65. In District Three, that had 1.66 male coaches in 1975-76, the increase was to 3.54. The differences in the number of male coaches in two different years was also analyzed in an ANOVA comparison. The results of the GLM ANOVA are listed in Table 4 on page 24. The differences between the number of male coaches was only significant when analyzed in terms of the years ( $p < .0001$ ). This increase occurs in concert with a decrease in women coaches. The data for the change in percentages of male coaches is found in Table 5 on page 25.

TABLE 2  
 Analysis of Variance for Percent of Women Coaches

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Districts	2	.6720	.3360	2.712
Enrollments	3	.7966	.2655	2.143
Years	1	4.4010	4.4010	35.521***
Residual	449	55.6253	.1239	
Total	455	61.4949		

\*\*\*p<.0001

TABLE 3

Number and Mean of Female Coaches at Division I  
Institutions for Two Years

	District 1	District 2	District 3	Total
1975-76	N = 498 $\bar{X} = 5.06$	N = 387 $\bar{X} = 5.23$	N = 184 $\bar{X} = 5.25$	N = 1067 $\bar{X} = 5.20$
1980-81	N = 487 $\bar{X} = 4.09$	N = 353 $\bar{X} = 3.92$	N = 149 $\bar{X} = 3.55$	N = 989 $\bar{X} = 3.94$

TABLE 4  
 Analysis of Variance for Percent of Men Coaches

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Districts	2	.3728	.1864	2.689
Enrollments	3	.0606	.0202	.2914
Years	1	4.1225	4.1225	59.487***
Residual	449	31.1334	.0693	
Total	455	35.6894		

\*\*\*P<.0001



TABLE 5

Number and Mean of Male Coaches at Division I  
Institutions for Two Years

	District 1	District 2	District 3	Total
1975-76	N = 138 $\bar{X} = 1.44$	N = 87 $\bar{X} = 1.18$	N = 58 $\bar{X} = 1.66$	N = 283 $\bar{X} = 1.38$
1980-81	N = 296 $\bar{X} = 2.48$	N = 220 $\bar{X} = 2.44$	N = 149 $\bar{X} = 3.54$	N = 665 $\bar{X} = 2.65$

### Summary

The research questions addressed in this chapter are the same as those of the survey and are the research sub-problems of Chapter I. In a sense, Chapters II and III are verification of each other with different data bases. It was felt that the records at the AIAW National Office would produce non-biased answers to the research questions. The data would be a matter of record rather than response.

The chapter consisted of six sections. The first three sections were provided to supply background information and an historical context for the discussion of the organization and findings of the national records research. The final three sections described, reported and summarized the data from the national records search.

This investigation of the records at the AIAW National Office used the years 1971-72, 1975-76 and 1980-81. For 1971-72, it was impossible to determine the sex of the coaches. Therefore, the research questions concerning the number and percent of women coaches for the women's teams were answered for 1975-76 and 1980-81 only. Upon the advice of key personnel in the AIAW office, Frank's Guide to Athletics: Women's Edition 1975-76 and 1980-81, were used to determine numbers and percents to answer the research questions.

The data from this chapter was analyzed in a 3x4x2 Analysis of Variance with three regions, four enrollments and two years. Results were discussed in the order of the research questions. The search of the National Records for the AIAW provide several interesting points. First, there were no statistically significant differences in the measured factors between enrollment sizes. The number of athletic

activities and the number of male and female coaches was not affected by the enrollment size of the institutions. A second finding was that the number of athletic activities increased 129 percent over the decade according to the data at AIAW National Archives. The mean number of teams offered by schools, however, remained fairly constant (6.65 in 1975-76 to 6.94 in 1980-81).

A third finding cited a decrease in the number of women coaches. In 1975-76 there were 1067 women coaches. In 1980-81 there were only 989. The seven percent (7%) attrition rate was accompanied by an additional finding. The related fourth finding was an increase in the number of male coaches for Division I institutions. In 1975-76 the mean number of male coaches at Division I institutions was 1.38. In 1980-81 this average increased to 2.65. In District III the change was from 1.60 to 3.54 coaches. While the number of athletic teams and opportunities for coaching have increased, many of these new positions have been occupied by males. In some areas, the number of men coaching women athletes is greater than the number of women coaching women athletes.

CHAPTER III  
NATIONAL SURVEY

There has been a substantial increase in the number of female athletes since 1973. In 1973 the National Federation of State High School Associations based in Kansas City began compiling figures of female participation in sports. Among the major findings in 1980 were:

The number of high school girls playing basketball more than doubled in seven years to 409,894.

Girl participants in track and field doubled to 382,583.

Girl volleyball players nearly tripled to 265,120.

Girl softball players more than doubled to 184,901, with most of them playing fast-pitch softball.

The running boom swept through the high schools, with the number of girl cross country runners rising from 4,921 in 1973 to 82,124 last school year.

There was a similar boom in girl's soccer, whose participants quintupled to 26,716 last year.

The number stayed relatively even in field hockey, up a fifth to 52,987 (Steif, 1980).

The increase, of course, was not limited to the high schools (Parkhouse, 1979). Theoretically, an increase in opportunities for female athletes should also result in a greater number of women coaches and administrators. However, it is suggested in the literature that, in reality, women are not obtaining these positions (Beck-Rex, 1979; Hogan, 1978b; Margolis, 1978; Neal, 1977; Parkhouse, 1980).

The purpose of this investigation was to identify trends in sex ratios of athletic coaches and administrators in AIAW Division I

intercollegiate athletic programs. The national survey was designed to provide data to partially answer the following sub-problems:

1. To determine the number of athletic activities offered for women in 1970-71, 75-76 and 80-81.
2. To determine the percent of women coaches for women's athletics 1970-71, 75-76 and 80-81.
3. To determine the percent of women as women's athletic administrators (demonstrated as the Institutional Representative to the AIAW) in 1970-71, 75-76 and 80-81.
4. To determine the percent and number of women coaching women's athletics compared to percent and number to total number of coaches of women's athletics in 1970-71, 75-76 and 80-81.
5. To determine the percent and number of women in athletic administration positions compared to percent to total athletic administrators in 1970-71, 75-76 and 80-81.
6. To determine the reasons for the changes in leadership roles of women in athletics.

A survey approach gathered data over a decade which was used to empirically determine a trend in change of gender of coaches and administrators for women's athletic activities. Also in the survey, was a section that dealt with the reasons for such changes. The following is a description of the survey, its development, limitations and results.

#### Construction of the National Survey

The items for this survey were selected to answer the research questions in Chapter I. The general information section of the survey (see Appendix A) was used to determine the enrollment of the institutions, the year the women's programs were established and

the number of athletic activities offered in Division I during 1980-81. This information was used to stratify the institutions for analysis and treatment of the data and for conclusions and recommendations.

The next section of the questionnaire (second section, item 1, Appendix A) was designed to determine the number of athletic activities offered in the target years of 1970-71, 1975-76 and 1980-81. This information was requested for research sub-problem one. Along with the number of athletic activities, the questionnaire also asked how many women coached the women's teams in those years (items two and three, Appendix A). This data was germane to sub-problems two and four.

Next, the survey respondent was asked to circle the sex of the AIAW Institutional Representative in the three separate target years (item four, Appendix A). The data collected from this question answered sub-problems three and five, which was designed to isolate trends in gender change for athletic administrators.

Questions five through eight of the survey were designed to enumerate the reasons for possible changes in leadership roles of women in athletics. These data addressed sub-problem seven in the Problem Statement of Chapter I.

Question nine allowed an open-ended reaction to possible changes in coaching and administration of women's athletics that have occurred since 1970. This question allowed for personal reactions, observations and experiences concerning the survey topic. Since the nature of the question was personally based, an anecdotal data

collection and reporting was warranted.

Following construction of the questionnaire, it was submitted to a panel of experts in areas of higher education administration, athletic administration, and physical education during the fall of 1980. This panel included Dr. John Andes, Higher Education Administration, West Virginia University (WVU); Dr. J. William Douglas, Dean of the School of Physical Education, WVU; Mr. Richard Martin, Athletic Director, WVU; Dr. Janice Stocker, Commissioner of Women's Intercollegiate Athletics, State of Wisconsin. After revisions, the survey questionnaire (Appendix A) and a cover letter (Appendix A) which explained the purpose and use of the questionnaire were mailed to the athletic directors for the 256 institutions listed in the 1980-81 AIAW Directory as having one or more Division I athletic activities for women. In the cover letter, it was mentioned that the writer had received a request for the questionnaire results from the Executive Director of the AIAW, Ann Uhlir (1980). The cover letter also explained that the coding system for returned surveys would be destroyed when results were tallied. This measure would ensure the anonymity of the respondents. Both of these factors were included to enlist the cooperation of the respondents.

Of the 256 athletic directors, six returned the cover letter stating they had no athletic activities in Division I of the AIAW. This discrepancy was probably due to an error in listing in the AIAW Directory. These six institutions were subsequently deleted from the total population, yielding a final population of 250 possible respondents.

The first mailing of the survey questionnaire elicited a response from 114 institutions or a forty-five percent (45%) return. A second mailing, including a reminder letter, (Appendix A) was sent to those who did not respond. This second follow-up letter resulted in twenty-five more responses for a total return from 139 athletic directors or fifty-six percent (56%).

#### Limitations

After compiling results from the survey, several complications were discovered. One problem was that several institutions listed more coaches than the number of teams offered. A possible explanation is that they also listed their assistant coaches when asked how many coaches were male or female. Other schools listed fewer coaches than the number of athletic activities offered; which indicated that some coaches were coaching more than one athletic activity.

A second limitation was with the use of the AIAW Institutional Representative as an indicator of the percent and number of athletic administrators. Even though an Institution Representative was in fact an administrator, in many cases this was their only administrative function at their institution.

#### Data Analysis

The results from the national survey to 250 institutions were tallied and reported by region and in groups stratified by enrollment. For each region, four different enrollment categories were used. Table 6 on page 33 contains the percentage return by enrollment for each region of AIAW. The N is the total number of institutions



TABLE 6

Percent Response by Region and Enrollment

TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES	REGION 1	REGION 2	REGION 3	REGION 4	REGION 5	REGION 6	REGION 7	REGION 8	REGION 9	TOTAL
Enrollment										
N*	5	5	5	5	12	6	4	10	1	53
NR**	60%	100%	80%	100%	75%	83%	100%	33%	0%	74%
	3	6	4	5	9	5	4	3	0	39
15-19,000										
N*	5	4	4	3	9	2	2	2	4	35
NR**	0%	50%	25%	57%	56%	50%	50%	50%	50%	43%
	0	2	1	2	5	1	1	1	2	15
10-14,000										
N*	12	8	4	8	8	4	5	5	0	54
NR**	41%	63%	50%	25%	88%	0%	80%	0%	100%	48%
	5	5	2	2	7	0	4	0	1	26
Less Than 10,000										
N*	32	15	15	22	5	5	2	8	4	108
NR**	56%	73%	47%	32%	60%	80%	100%	63%	50%	55%
	10	11	7	7	3	4	2	4	2	59
TOTAL N*	54	32	28	38	34	17	13	25	9	250
TOTAL NR**	48%	75%	50%	42%	71%	59%	85%	36%	56%	139
	26	24	14	16	24	10	11	9	5	139

\*N = Number of possible responses in that cell.

\*\*NR = Number of actual responses received.

possible for each particular cell, as defined by The 1980-81 National Directory of College Athletics: Women's Edition, which lists the enrollment for each institution. In a few cases, the enrollment listed in the Directory did not correspond to the enrollment the respondent circled on the questionnaire. This discrepancy results in a situation found in Region Nine where no institutions with an enrollment of 10,000 to 14,000 were listed in the guide. Yet, the survey from one respondent listed enrollment in the 10,000 to 14,000 study size. The NR is the total number of institutions that responded for that particular cell.

To ensure a sufficient number of responses in each, all of the nine regions were collapsed into three different districts. Regions One, Two and Three (Eastern U.S.) of the AIAW, were collapsed to form District I. Regions Four, Five and Six (Central U.S.) were collapsed to form District II. Regions Seven, Eight and Nine (Western U.S.) were collapsed to form District III. Appendix F on page 163 contains a graphic presentation of districts and regions accompanied by a list of states in each region and district. The results were collapsed into districts because the rate of return in certain regions was particularly low. The collapsing was by region rather than by enrollment. This was done because collapsing by enrollment would not have contributed to responses in the necessary cells. Further, it was felt that enrollment size might have been a more significant factor impinging on trends and changes in women's athletics (Paterson, 1981).

### Percent Return and Redistricting Regions

The number of institutions by region and enrollment are presented in Table 6 as well as the returns for these regions. The largest number (32) of institutions were in Region One with an enrollment of less than 10,000 students. Region One also had the largest number of Division I institutions for a single region. The percent of responses for this cell, however, was not the highest. In Region Seven, eleven of thirteen institutions responded for an eighty-five percent (85%) return on their questionnaire.

As far as enrollment is concerned, those institutions of 20,000 and above were the highest percent return with seventy-four percent (74%) return. From Table 6, it is apparent that the distribution of responses by individual regions is uneven. The percentage of returns range from thirty-six percent (36%) to eighty-five percent (85%). The percentage response by enrollment is much more regular. With the exception of institutions over 20,000, the response percentages are comparable. The same data appearing in Table 6 is presented in Table 7 (page 36) collapsed into three districts rather than nine regions.

The percent of returns for each district by enrollment are presented in Table 7. A more balanced population return was achieved when the regions were collapsed into three districts. When each of the three sets of regions were combined into districts, the percent of returns were fifty-four, fifty-six and fifty-three percent. The total return remained at fifty-six percent (56%).

TABLE 7

Percent Response by District and Enrollment

TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES	DISTRICT 1 (EASTERN U.S.) (REGIONS 1-2-3)		DISTRICT 2 (MIDDLE U.S.) (REGIONS 4-5-6)		DISTRICT 3 (WESTERN U.S.) (REGIONS 7-8-9)	
Enrollment 20,000	N*	15	N*	23	N*	15
	NR**	12 80%	NR**	19 83%	NR**	7 47%
15-19,000	N*	13	N*	14	N*	8
	NR**	3 23%	NR**	8 57%	NR**	4 50%
10-14,000	N*	24	N*	20	N*	9
	NR**	12 50%	NR**	9 45%	NR**	5 50%
LESS THAN 10,000	N*	62	N*	32	N*	14
	NR**	35 56%	NR**	14 44%	NR**	9 64%
	TOTAL N*	114	N*	89	N*	47
	TOTAL NR**	62 54%	NR**	50 56%	NR**	25 53%

\*N = Number of possible responses in that cell.  
 \*\*NR = Number of actual responses received.

## Results

The data from the National Survey was analyzed in a 3x4x3 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) with three districts, four enrollment categories and three years. The General Linear Model (GLM) procedure was used for computation because variances attributable to region or enrollment were extracted first. The additional variance accounted for with only years included was, therefore, attributed to the variable years. Years was the variable of interest because this investigation was interested in the differences in years to trace trends. Differences between numbers of athletic activities and the sex of their coaches were not significant when the dependent variable was enrollment size. Therefore, subsequent data analyses were computed for total populations rather than stratified by enrollment categories.

Sub-problem one dealt with the number of athletic activities offered for women at the institutions for three different years. This information was necessary as background for a comparison of female and male coaches. Once a baseline of growth was established through the number of activities offered, comparisons of percentage growth in coaching staffs had meaning. Therefore, a discussion of the findings for athletic activities follows.

### Sub-Problem One

Table 8 on page 38 indicates that in 1970-71, 409 athletic activities were offered for women in responding Division I institutions. In 1975-76, this number increased to 759 activities. This

TABLE 8  
 Number and Mean of Athletic Activities Offered by  
 Division I Institutions for Three Years

	District 1	District 2	District 3	Total
1970-71	N = 144 $\bar{X} = 2.18$	N = 184 $\bar{X} = 3.68$	N = 81 $\bar{X} = 3.52$	N = 409 $\bar{X} = 2.94$
1975-76	N = 322 $\bar{X} = 4.88$	N = 324 $\bar{X} = 6.48$	N = 113 $\bar{X} = 4.91$	N = 759 $\bar{X} = 5.46$
1980-81	N = 465 $\bar{X} = 7.05$	N = 370 $\bar{X} = 7.40$	N = 165 $\bar{X} = 7.17$	N = 1000 $\bar{X} = 7.19$

increase represents an eighty-six percent (86%) growth over the five year period. In 1980-81, the number of activities increased to 1000. This is a thirty-two percent (32%) increase from 1975-76 to 1980-81 and a 144 percent increase for the decade. These findings for each of the three districts are graphically illustrated in Figures 1, 2 and 3 on pages 40 through 42. The number of athletic activities (1-13) is presented on the horizontal axis. This is compared with the percentage of respondents offering that number of teams for three different years. A high percentage of schools offering a low number of athletic teams is indicated in all three district graphs during 1970-71. Similarly, in all three districts, the percentage of respondents that offered larger numbers of teams increases through the decade. In looking from left to right on the graphs (greater number of athletic teams), the trends peak for all three years near the middle of the graph. The most recent data (1980-81), which are represented by an unbroken solid line, characteristically peak and end higher than the other two indicating the mentioned trend towards greater numbers of activities for women.

#### Sub-Problem Two and Four

Table 9 on page 44 indicates that in 1970-71, 352 women coached at the Division I institutions that responded to the questionnaire. In 1975-76, this number increased to 567. This increase represents a sixty-one percent (61%) growth over the five year period. In 1980-81, 619 women coached. This is a nine percent (9%) increase from 1975-76 or a seventy-six percent (76%) increase

Figure 1  
Number of Athletic Activities Offered by Institutions  
in District 1 for Three Different Years

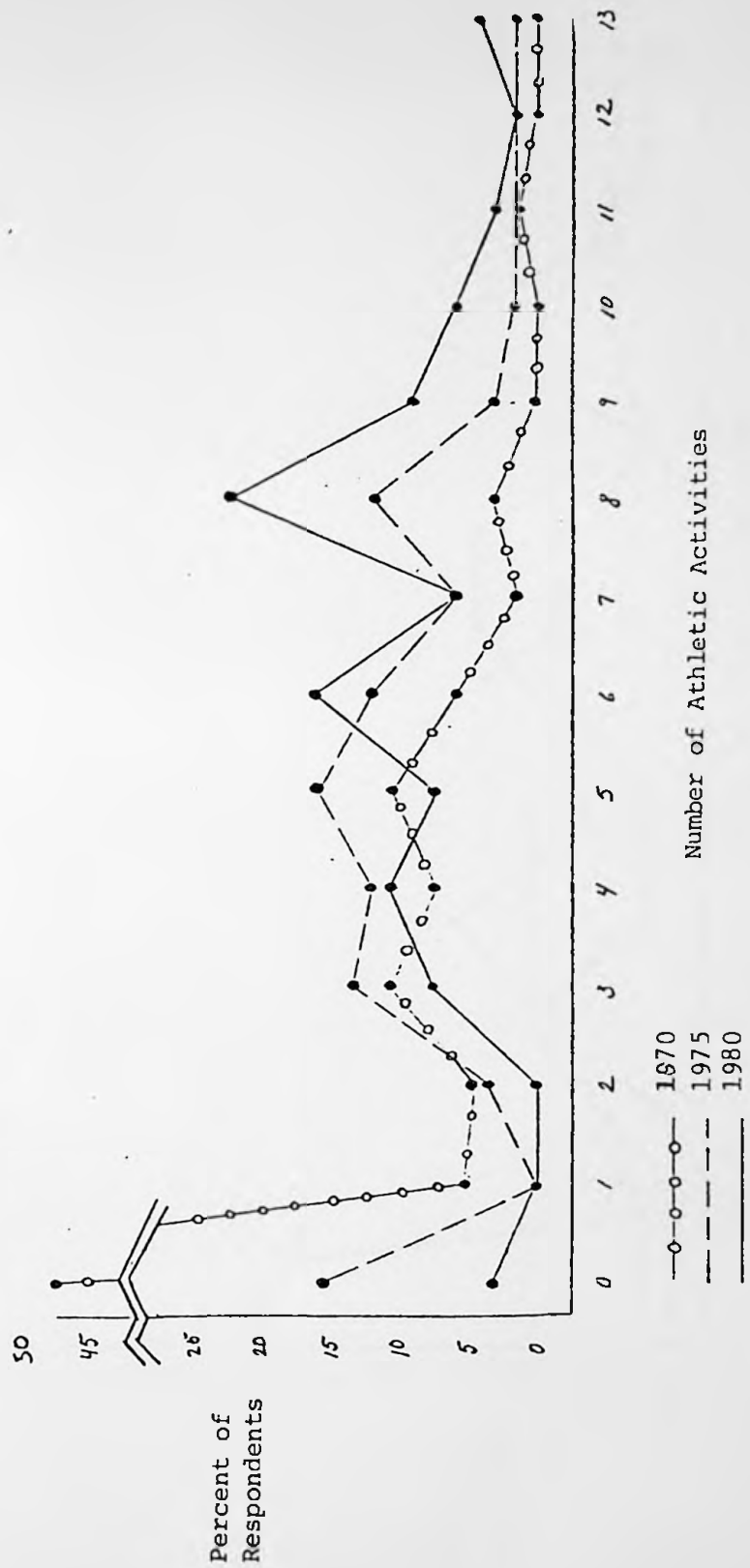




Figure 2  
Number of Athletic Activities Offered by Institutions  
in District 2 for Three Different Years

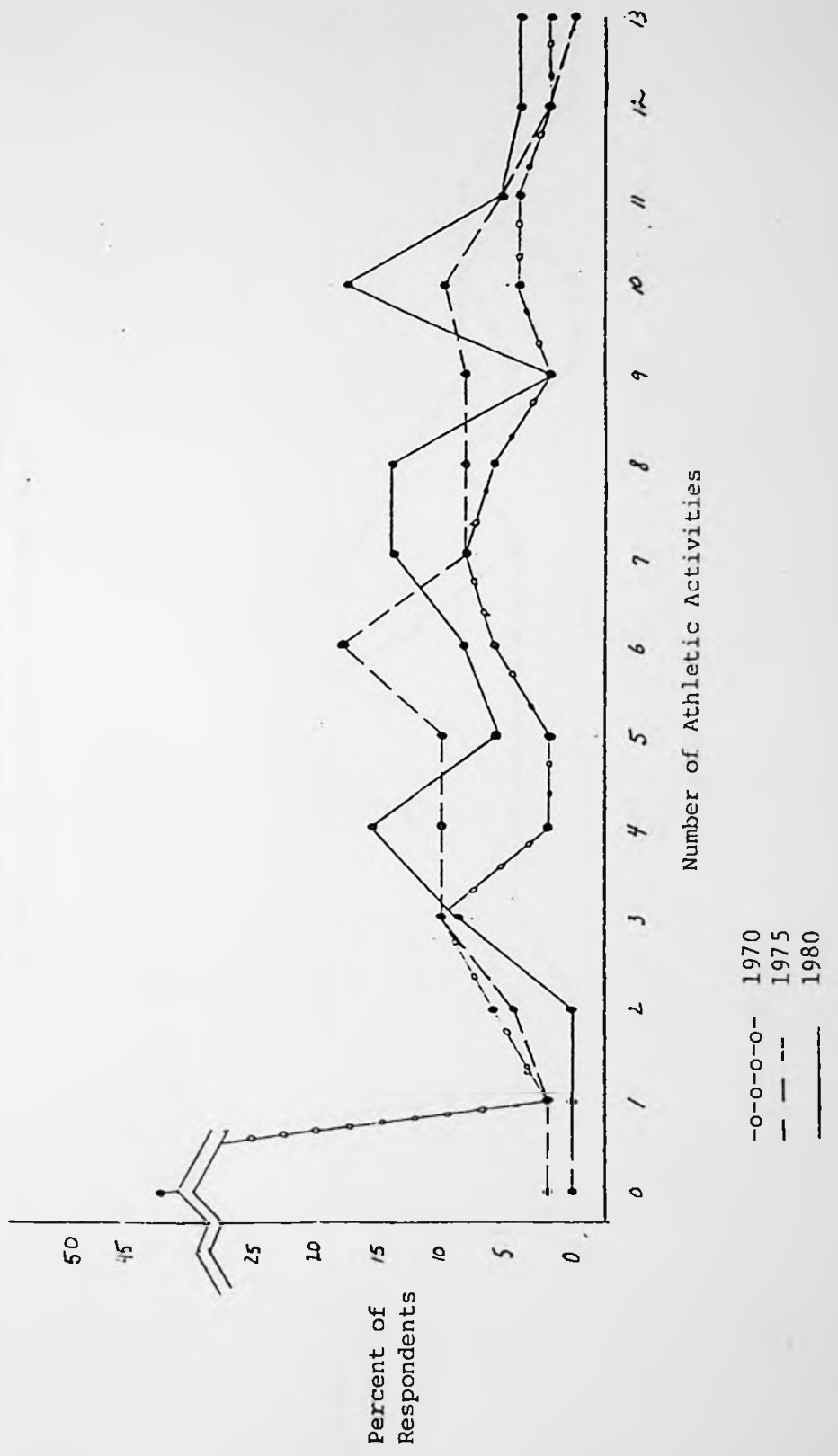
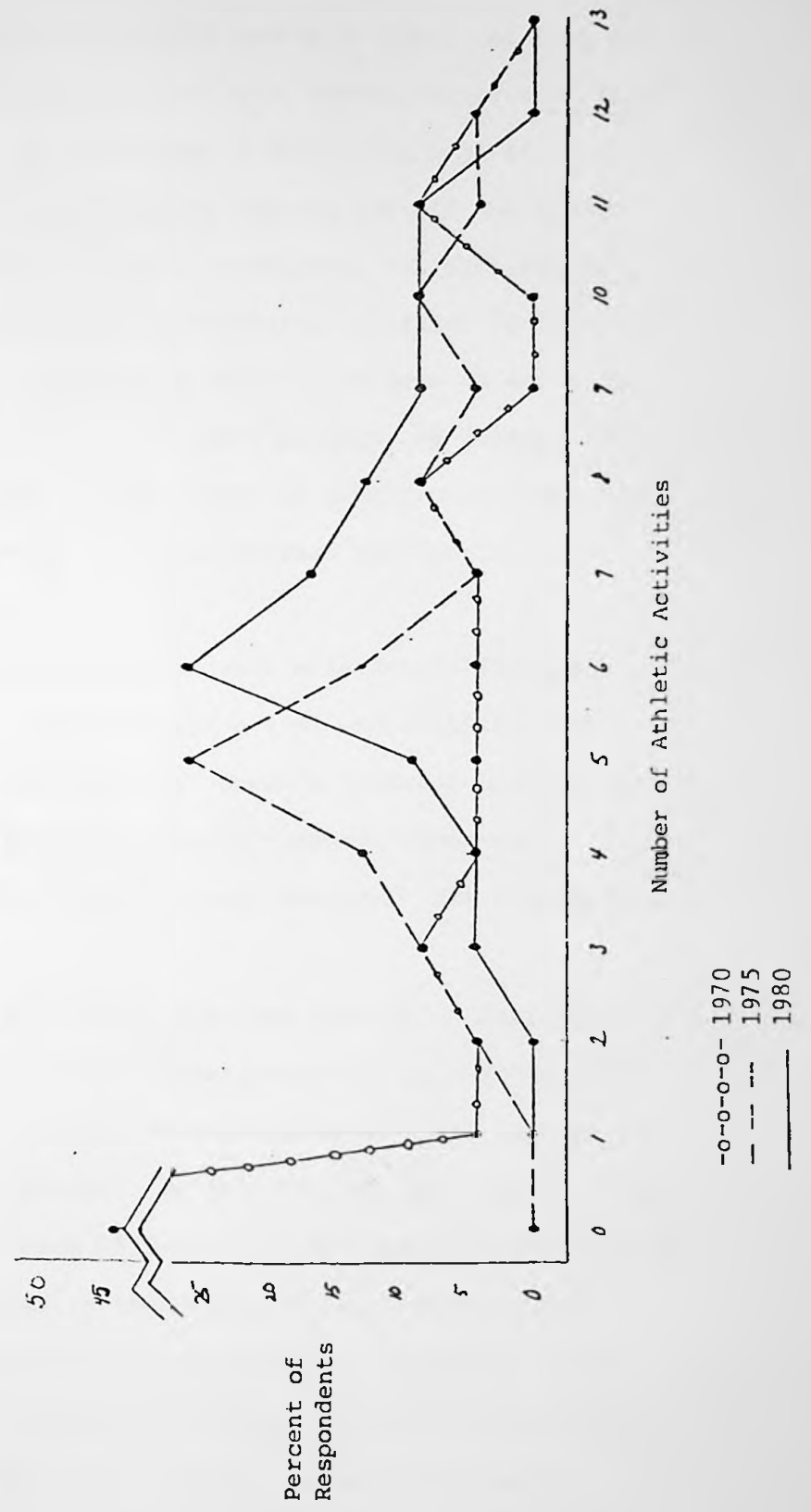


Figure 3  
Number of Athletic Activities Offered by Institutions  
in District 3 for Three Different Years



-o-o-o-o- 1970  
- - - - - 1975  
\_\_\_\_\_ 1980

for the decade. The differences in the number of women coaching in the three different years was analyzed in an ANOVA comparison. The results of the GLM ANOVA are presented in Table 9 on page 44. As indicated in the table, the differences between 1970-71 and 1975-76 were significantly different ( $p < .01$ ). Similarly, the differences between 1975-76 and 1980-81 were significantly different ( $p < .001$ ).

These data are also presented in Table 10 on page 45 and compared graphically in Figures 4, 5 and 6 on pages 46 through 48. Again, the figures compared the percentage of institutions (vertical axis) that had a given number of female coaches (horizontal axis) for three different years.

The graphic presentations for athletic activities (Figures 1 through 3) and for women coaches (Figures 4-6) are similar. One would intuitively expect the growth of women's athletic teams to be accompanied by a similar growth in female coaches. What was surprising was the relative growth of male coaches. The findings for male coaches follow.

In 1970-71, a total of thirty-three men coached at Division I institutions that responded to the questionnaire. In 1975-76, this number increased to 186. This increase represents a 463 percent growth over the five year period. In 1980-81, 441 men coached. This is a 137 percent increase from 1975-76 or a 1163 percent increase for the decade. The differences in the number of male coaches in the three different years were analyzed in an ANOVA comparison. The results of the GLM ANOVA are listed in Table 9 presented on page 44. The differences between 1970-71 and 1975-76 were significantly

TABLE 9

Analysis of Variance for Number of  
Female and Male Coaches

Dependent Variable	Source	df	SS	F
Number of Female Coaches	1970-1975	1	2.225	6.84*
	1975-1980	1	4.482	13.78**
Number of Male Coaches	1970-1975	1	1.366	24.30***
	1975-1980	1	4.085	72.67***
Percent of Female Coaches	1970-1980	2	4.107	36.53***
	1970-1980	2	2.695	24.04***

\*\*\*p&lt;.0001

\*\*p&lt;.001

\*p&lt;.01

TABLE 10  
 Number and Mean of Female Coaches at Division I  
 Institutions for Three Years

	District 1	District 2	District 3	Total
1970-71	N = 151 $\bar{X}$ = 2.29	N = 146 $\bar{X}$ = 2.92	N = 55 $\bar{X}$ = 2.39	N = 352 $\bar{X}$ = 2.53
1975-76	N = 258 $\bar{X}$ = 3.91	N = 220 $\bar{X}$ = 4.40	N = 89 $\bar{X}$ = 3.87	N = 567 $\bar{X}$ = 4.07
1980-81	N = 306 $\bar{X}$ = 4.64	N = 232 $\bar{X}$ = 4.64	N = 81 $\bar{X}$ = 3.52	N = 619 $\bar{X}$ = 4.45

Figure 4  
Number of Female Coaches at Institutions  
in District 1 for Three Different Years

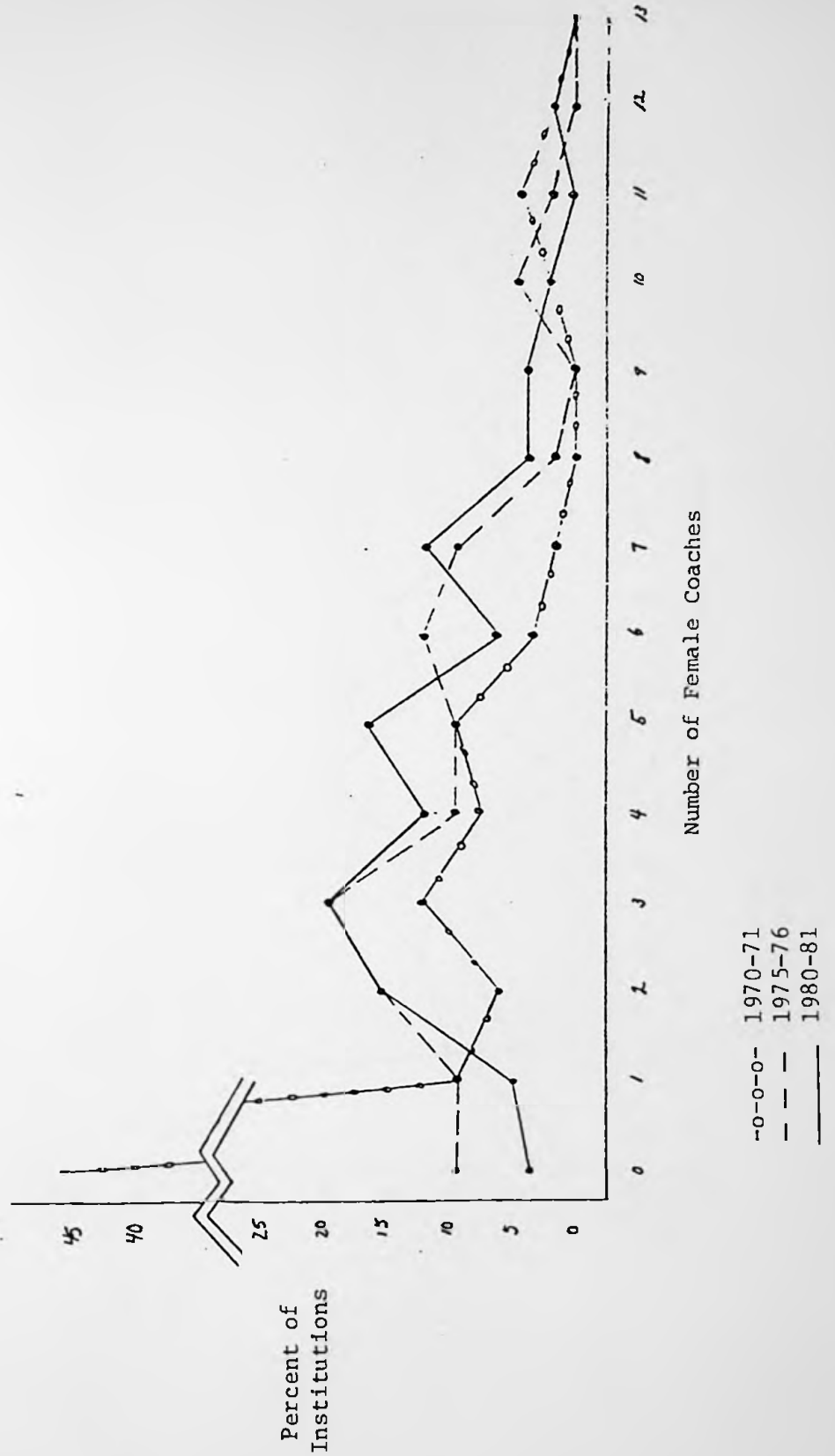
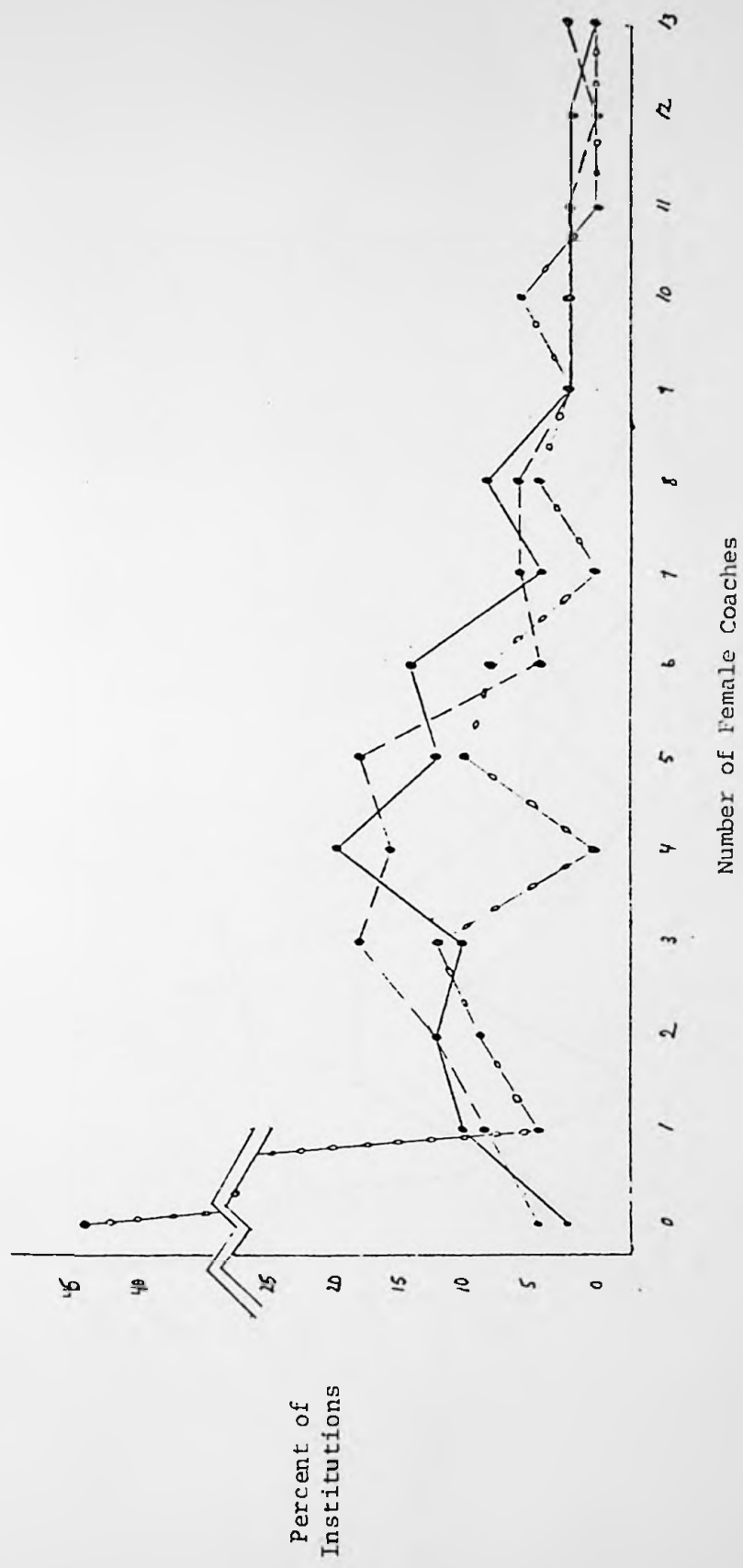
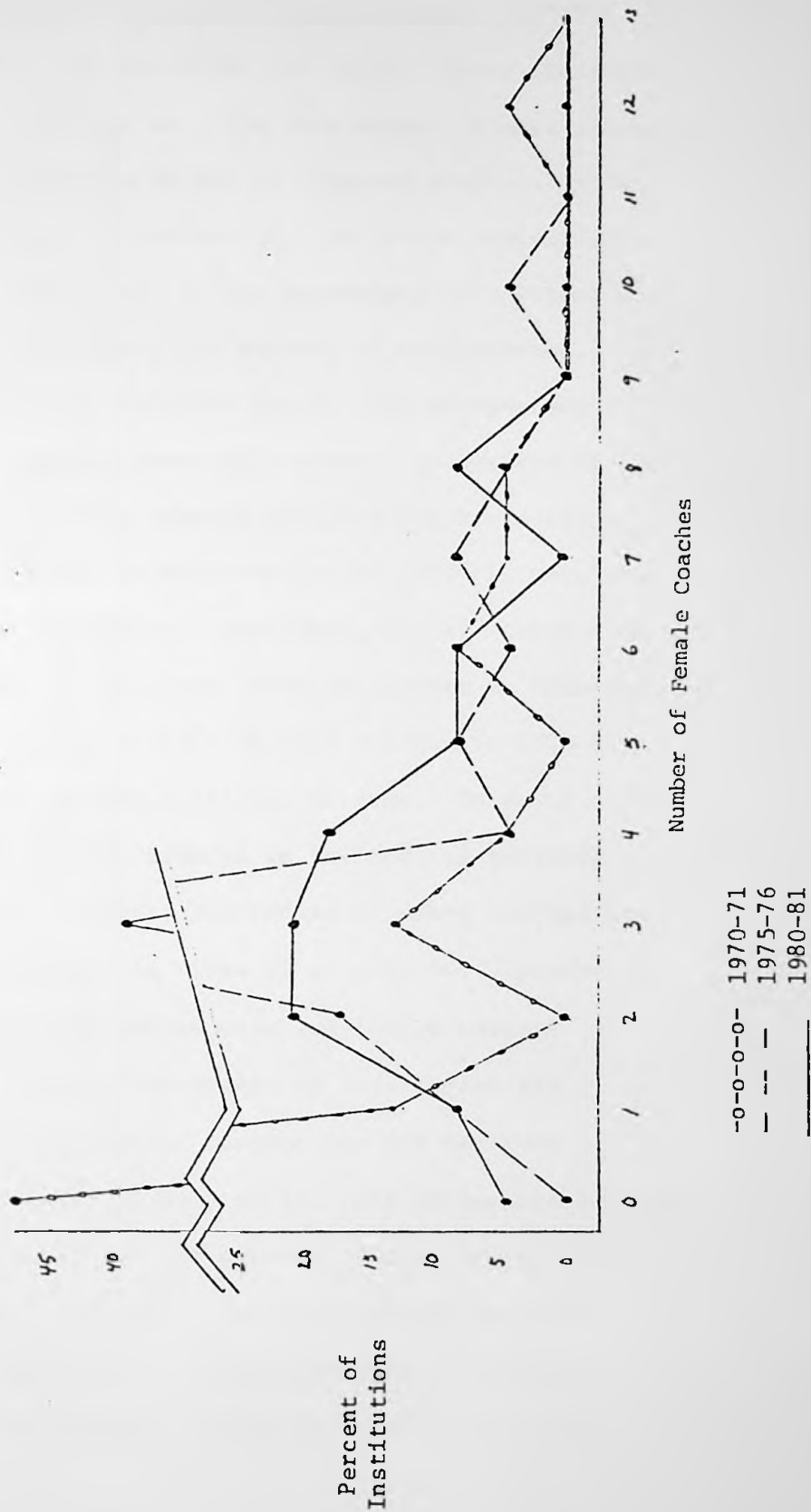


Figure 5  
Number of Female Coaches at Institutions  
in District 2 for Three Different Years



-o-o-o- 1970-71  
- - - 1975-76  
\_\_\_\_\_ 1980-81

Figure 6  
 Number of Female Coaches at Institutions  
 in District 3 for Three Different Years





different ( $p < .0001$ ). Similarly, the differences between 1975-76 and 1980-81 were significantly different ( $p < .0001$ ). These findings are presented in Table 9 on page 44. The mean number of male coaches is presented in Table 11 on page 50 and is compared graphically in Figures 7 through 9 on pages 51 through 53. As in the preceding sets of figures, the vertical axis is the percentage of institutions and the horizontal axis represents the numbers of male coaches. This comparison was for three different years. The extreme end points of these graphs suggests observable changes in numbers of male coaches. Where most of the schools in all three districts (Figures 7 through 9) reported no male coaches in 1970-71, very few reported no male coaches in 1980-81. Similarly, for all three districts a general increase in the number of male coaches is observed from 1970-80, with the largest numbers of male coaches in 1980-81.

The number of female coaches continued to grow. In an absolute sense, this is true, and can be observed in the results tabulated from the National Survey. However, the ratios of women coaches are declining. These are presented in Table 12 on page 54. However, a relative comparison of the percent of male and female coaches indicates an observable trend. The change in this percentage differential between male and female coaches for the ten year interval is presented in Table 13 on page 55. The difference between the percent of female coaches and the percent of male coaches has systematically decreased. In 1980-81, the two figures are 16.8 percent apart. These figures point to the previously mentioned trend in coaching women's athletics. Men are coaching women's

TABLE 11  
 Number and Mean of Male Coaches at Division I  
 Institutions for Three Different Years

	District 1	District 2	District 3	Total
1970-71	N = 11 $\bar{X} = .17$	N = 12 $\bar{X} = .24$	N = 10 $\bar{X} = .43$	N = 33 $\bar{X} = .24$
1975-76	N = 81 $\bar{X} = 1.23$	N = 60 $\bar{X} = 1.2$	N = 45 $\bar{X} = 1.96$	N = 186 $\bar{X} = 1.34$
1980-81	N = 200 $\bar{X} = 3.03$	N = 115 $\bar{X} = 2.3$	N = 126 $\bar{X} = 5.48$	N = 441 $\bar{X} = 3.17$

Figure 7

Number of Male Coaches at Institutions in  
District 1 for Three Different Years

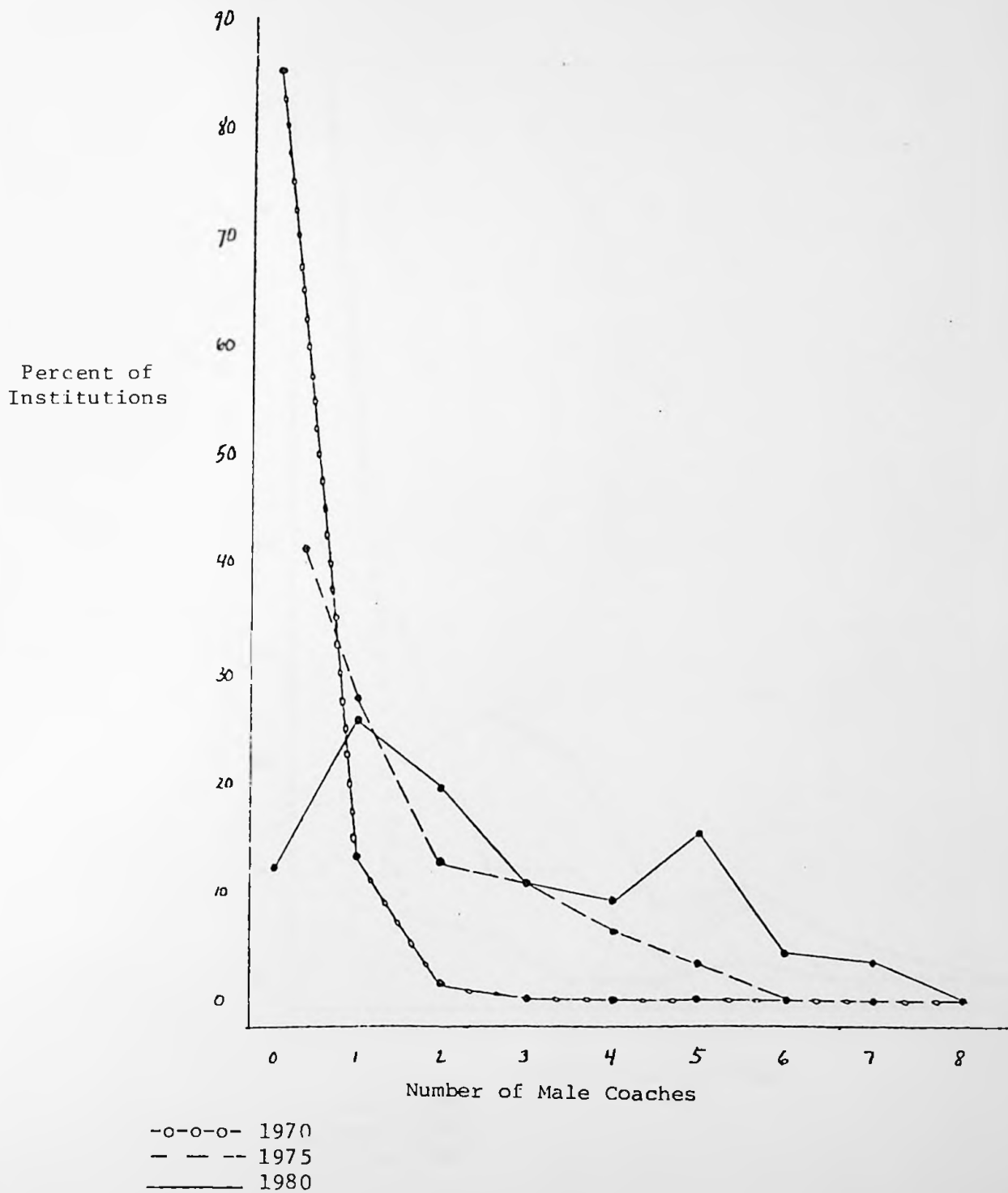


Figure 8

Number of Male Coaches at Institutions in District 2 for Three Different Years

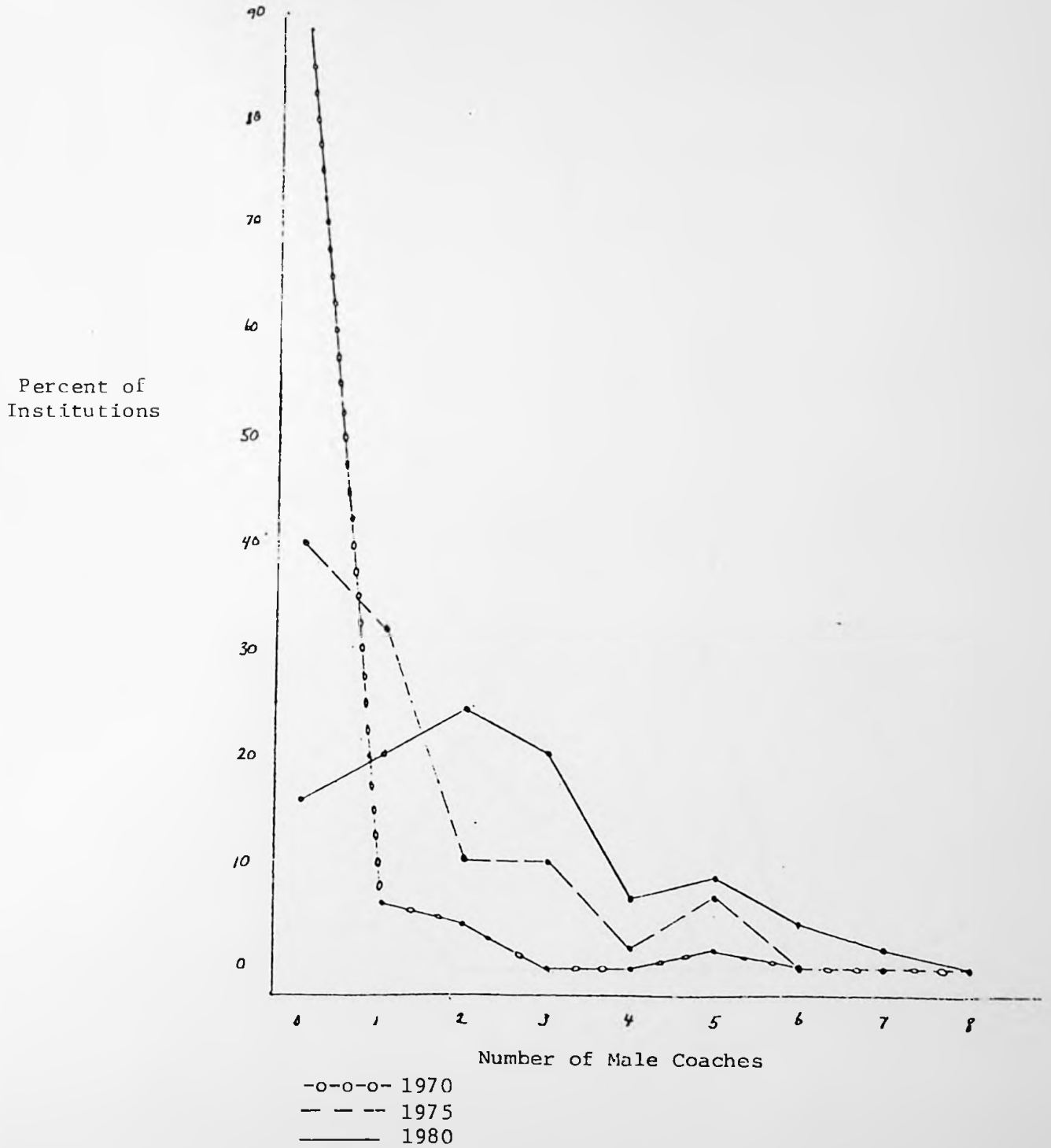


Figure 9

Number of Male Coaches at Institutions in  
District 3 for Three Different Years

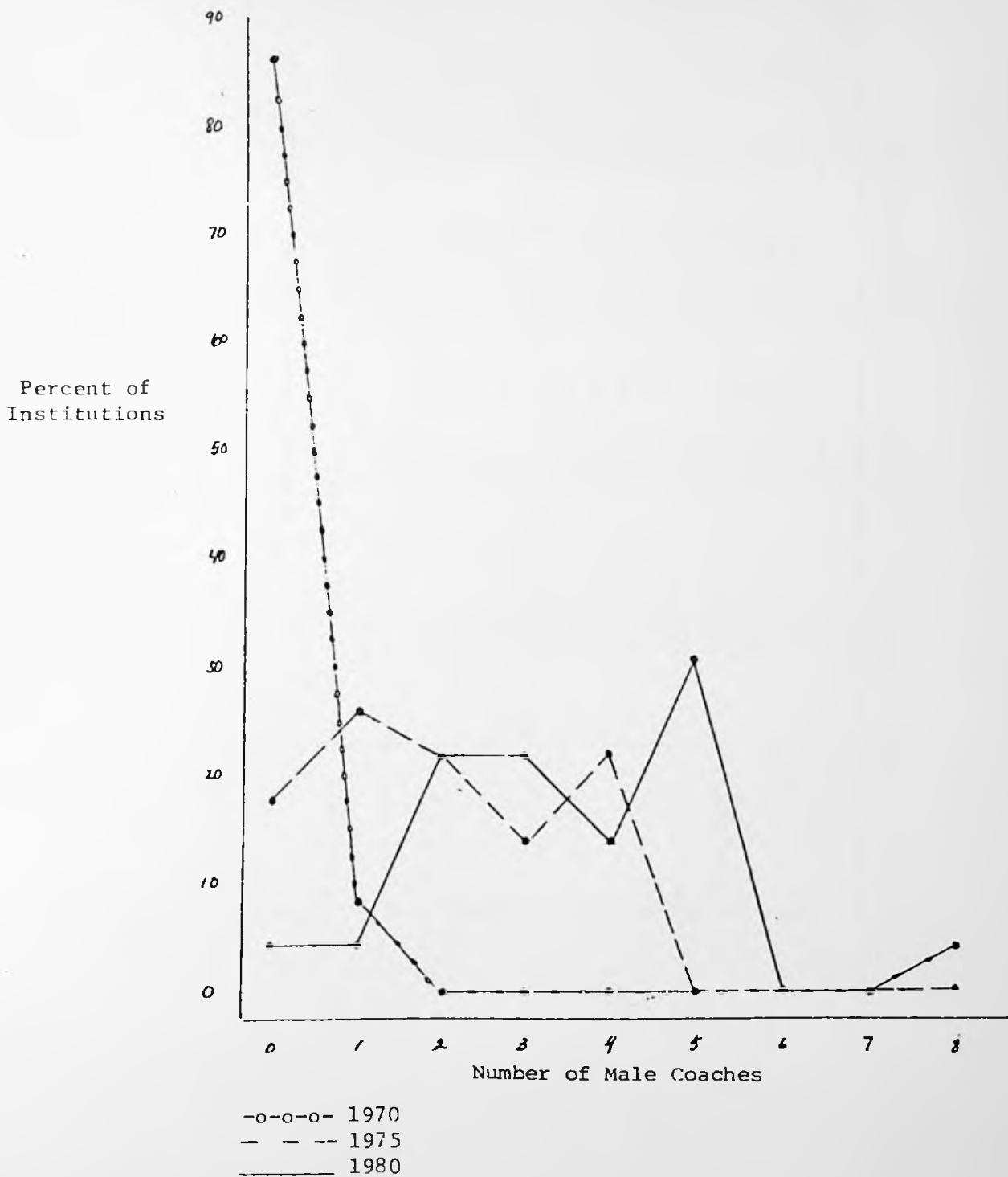


TABLE 12

Ratio of the Number of Coaches to the  
Number of Women's Teams\*

District	Enrollment (thousands)	Percent Female Coaches		Percent Male Coaches	
		1970	1975	1970	1975
District 1	+20	124	71	63	35
	15-19	80	80	63	40
	10-15	75	54	51	39
	10	94	68	73	24
District 2	+20	85	80	68	33
	15-19	61	64	59	33
	10-15	95	81	73	24
	10	80	64	57	37
District 3	+20	86	60	42	54
	15-19	4	57	52	50
	10-15	0	64	47	53
	10	91	68	54	45

\*Numbers do not equal 100 because some institutions listed more coaches than athletic activities and some listed more sports than coaches.

TABLE 13

Percent to Total of Female and Male Coaches in  
Division I Institutions for Three Years

	1970-71	1975-76	1980-81
Female Coaches	352	567	619
Male Coaches	33	186	441
Percent of Female Coaches	91.4	75.3	58.4
Percent of Male Coaches	8.6	24.7	41.6

athletics in greater numbers.

This trend was especially apparent in District 3. An ANOVA with the three districts as dependent variables isolated District 3 as significantly different than Districts 1 and 2 for the number of male coaches ( $p .005$ ) and number of women coaches ( $p < .05$ ). The results of the ANOVA are subsequently presented in Table 14 on page 57. This is followed by a presentation of percentage differences in male and female coaches for Division I institutions in District 3 (Table 15 on page 58). In District 3 at the present time, more males are coaching women's teams than are females.

#### Sub-Problems Three and Five

Question number four of the National Survey was not tabulated using the SAS program. In question four, respondents were asked whether the AIAW Institutional Representative was male or female in the target years of 1970-71, 1975-76 and 1980-81. Upon close inspection of the raw data, nearly all institutional representatives to the AIAW were, and continue to be, female. Data from the National Survey show that in 1970-71, 10.1 percent of the representatives were male. In 1975-76, 11.1 percent of the representatives were male, 1980-81, 9.4 percent were male. For the three surveyed years, women representatives were dominant. However, as to be mentioned in more detail in the AIAW National Office Interviews in Chapter IV, a recent shift, not assessed in the National Survey, from female to male institutional representatives has been observed.



Another method of analysis was needed to address sub-problem number three. The number of women as athletic administrators was a difficult question to answer. An inspection of the AIAW voting representative as a measure of program administration, showed that women continue to administer their own programs. However, the interviews with these same delegates appeared to contradict such an interpretation. In other words, the choice of the AIAW voting representative as an indication for athletic administration was in error. Whether or not the voting representative was female or not was insignificant. It was frequently the case that a female represented a given institution, but did not have governing administrative power in the position of athletic director at the institution she represented. Similarly, even if a female voting representative was also a women's athletic director at a given institution, there was no guarantee that the athletic director had real decision making power.

#### Sub-Problem Seven

Questions five through eight of the national survey were multiple choice questions that sought answers to sub-problem seven. In survey questions five through eight, respondents were asked to indicate reasons for the changes in leadership roles of women in athletics. Table 16 on page 60 presents a summary of responses.

Through question five it was asked if any coaching positions for women's teams had shifted from male to female. If this was the case, respondents were asked to indicate the primary reasons. The most frequent reason offered by the 53 responding was under the

TABLE 14  
Analysis of Variance for Number of Male and  
Female Coaches in Three Districts

Dependent Variable	Source	df	SS	F
Number of Women	Districts 1-3	1	1.364	4.19*
Number of Men	Districts 1-3	1	.487	8.67**

\*\*p<.005

\*p<.05

TABLE 15

Percent to Total of Female and Male Coaches  
in District 3 Division I Institutions for Three Years

	1970-71	1975-76	1980-81
Female Coaches	55	89	81
Male Coaches	10	45	126
Total Coaches	65	134	307
Percent of Female Coaches	84.6	66.4	39.1
Percent of Male Coaches	15.4	33.6	60.9

TABLE 16  
Reasons for Athletic Personnel Shift

	A Student Need	B HEW Action	C Legal Action	D \$ Increase	E ED.	F Exp.	G Chg. to Athl.	H Other	Total Respondents
Question 5 Shift from male to female coaches Institutions Responding - 53	2	0	0	2	18	40	4	1	67
Question 6 Shift from female to male coaches Institutions Responding - 95	5	0	0	7	22	67	1	7	109
Question 7 Shift from male to female adm. Institutions Responding - 31	3	3	0	3	12	17	3	0	41
Question 8 Shift from female to male adm. Institutions Responding - 21	1	0	0	0	3	8	1	1	23

Key: A. Student need  
 B. HEW action (real or threat)  
 C. Legal action (real or threat)  
 D. Increase in \$ for the position  
 E. Best qualified in education  
 F. Best qualified in experience  
 G. Change from intramural or club sport to athletics  
 H. Other

category of the best qualified in terms of experience. Forty respondents of 139 surveys cited this reason. Only fifty-three of the 139 institutions responding supplied an answer to question five. See Table 16 on page 60 for a presentation of this data.

In question six, respondents were asked if any women's teams coaching positions shifted from female to male. If this was the case, respondents were asked to indicate the primary reasons. Reasons for this shift were offered by 95 of 139 respondents. Most of these respondents stated the reason was either the best qualified coach in terms of experience (sixty-seven responses) or the best qualified in terms of education (twenty-two responses).

In question seven, respondents were asked if any administrative position from the list provided, or others, had shifted from male to female. Subjects were asked to indicate the primary reasons. Again, the two main reasons provided were the best qualified person in terms of experience (seventeen responses) and the best qualified person in terms of education (twelve responses). The number of changes noted was fewer for administrators than for coaches (thirty-one).

In question eight, subjects were asked if any administrative position from the list provided, or others had shifted from female to male. Subjects were asked to indicate the primary reasons. Only twenty-one of the 139 institutions noted an administrative shift from female to male. Those institutions that did, stated the best qualified person in terms of experience as their reason.

### Research Question Nine

In question nine of the National Survey (Appendix A), an open-ended reaction was included to allow for possible changes in coaching and administration of women's athletics that have occurred since 1970. Ninety of the 139 athletic directors responded to this question. An informal discussion of the anecdotal findings follows. Many of the responses elicited from this question were similar to responses gained through the interview technique. This finding was not surprising and, in fact, supports the interviews and increases the validity of findings for both collections of data.

There was a prevailing preference for hiring women to coach women. However, they were not always able to do so. In fact, several respondents expressed their concern at the high number of women being replaced by males. It was also noted that when winning becomes a priority, a coach with successful experience was desired. It was necessary to hire the most qualified person. This frequently meant hiring men, according to the respondents. It was also mentioned that the demand for quality women coaches exceeds the supply of qualified women available.

Another aspect mentioned was that athletic departments must make the most effective use of present staff. When new women's teams were added, a coach of an existing team was assigned to the new team; this coach was frequently male. One respondent noted that there may not be actual replacement of women by men, but rather, as additional women's sports were instituted, the new coaches were male. In one instance, an institution added seven new sports since 1970.

All seven were assigned a male coach. Although respondents agreed that the increase in women's athletic opportunities was long overdue and a good thing, they see the advancement for women coaches and administrators that began to grow in the early 1970's, declining in the late 1970's.

Merger with men's intercollegiate programs was seen as a negative aspect by the majority of the respondents that addressed the issue. Most women athletic directors in the course of answering question nine felt that they had lost power through the merger. One respondent noted that rather than reporting to the Vice President of Student Services, the women's athletic director must now report to the men's athletic director. While a percentage comparison of athletic directors that did and did not lose significant power is not available, several occurrences of this change were reported.

The findings generated by this question were not empirically stated and, consequently, not statistically significant. However, the fact that they parallel other means of data collection used should be noted.

#### Summary

Several points and trends regarding the research problems were presented in the discussion of the National Survey. A synopsis of these findings is presented. First, there appears to be no differences between enrollment categories for the purposes of this study. That is, the number of athletic activities offered by a school and its number of male and female coaches were not related to the size

of the institution. A second finding was that the number of athletic teams offered for women increased 144 percent over the decade of this study. The mean number of teams offered by schools in this study increased from 2.94 in 1970 to 7.19 teams in 1980-81.

A third major finding cited an accompanying increase in the number of women coaching these teams. An increase of 76 percent during the decade was established, with the mean number of female coaches increasing from 2.53 in 1970-71 to 4.45 in 1980-81. A related fourth finding was an increase in the number of male coaches of 1136 percent, with a mean of .23 males coaches for each institution in 1970-71 increasing to 3.17 in 1980-81. The numbers of male and female coaches do not show some of the more subtle differences. Only when changes in percentage composition are investigated does the trend become apparent. Percentages of women coaching women's teams has dropped from 91.4 in 1970-71 to 58.4 in 1980-81. And, conversely, the percentage of men coaching women's teams has risen from 8.6 in 1970-71 to 41.6 in 1980-81.

A fifth major finding, garnered from narrative comments to open-ended survey items pointed to the fact that even though the voting representative to the AIAW was female, governance of women's athletics at the institution may be the responsibility of a male. Even when the voting representative is also the women's athletic director, the position was, at times, powerless. It was therefore concluded that the voting representative was an ineffective measure of administrative power.



A sixth and final finding concerned reasons for the gender shifts in coaching and administrating athletics. The large majority of respondents cited desire for experienced coaches as a major reason for changing from one sex to another in coaching. The second most common rationale was the education level of the candidates. The personnel shifts in coaching were largely female positions changing to male. Very few changes in administrative postitions were noted.

In all, there was ample evidence answering the primary questions of this investigation: 1) There are more opportunities for women to participate in athletic activities. 2) Increasing numbers of men are coaching these new teams and in some cases, older teams.

## CHAPTER IV

## INTERVIEWS

As stated in Chapter I, the primary purpose of this investigation was to identify trends in sex ratios of athletic coaches and administrators in AIAW Division I intercollegiate athletic programs. To this end, the survey reported in Chapter III was administered. As stated in sub-problem seven, it was also important to determine the reasons for the changes in leadership roles of women in athletics. This chapter reports the attitudes, opinions and reactions of leadership reduction from the survey population as to hypothesized causes for possible gender shifts in athletic leadership.

Rational and Procedures for Personal Interviews

Changes in governance procedures and personnel for athletics due to Title IX should cause changes in reportable, definable measures such as numbers of male and female athletic directors and coaches. These changes in personnel may also cause a shift in attitudes of personnel. To better assess these attitudes and to collect possible reasons for personnel changes, interviews were conducted with delegates attending the Delegate Assembly of The Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW), which met in Detroit, Michigan during January of 1981. The interviewed delegates were drawn from a group of delegates willing to be interviewed. Also, interviews were conducted at the AIAW National Office in Washington, DC (Appendix C lists the interviewed subjects).

Interviews were conducted individually, and the conversations were tape recorded for later analysis. If the delegate was not the athletic director that received the previous survey, background for the interview was developed through the questions in the interview guide (Appendix B). If the subject interviewed had previously answered the mailed questionnaire (November, 1980), less development of background was necessary. A brief description of the survey and its purposes was brought to the subjects' attention. Without exception, their recall was sufficient to continue discussion and determine reasons for possible personnel shifts in coaching and administration of women's athletics.

In addition to explanations, personal opinions and observations of hiring trends, the subjects were asked to comment on their personal reactions to observable trends and in that they projected as outcomes for trends in hiring. The tapes were analyzed using content analysis techniques to identify the frequency of predominant themes.

#### Discussion of the Interviews at the AIAW Delegate Assembly

A total of twenty-one interviews was conducted. This number was felt to be sufficient because responses became repetitive and offered no additional insights. Initially, it must be stated that not one of the interviewed subjects (N = 21) argued against the contention that coaching and administrative positions are being filled by increasing numbers of males. While this statement is anecdotal, the fact that there is unanimous agreement behind it is noteworthy.

### Availability of Women

One recurrent topic that occurred during the interviews concerned the small number of women available that could be hired for the vacant positions. There were several factors impinging on this finding that could be collected under two different groups. The first reason dealt with the hypothesis that women were not interested in these positions. The interviewed subjects volunteered several explanations for this. The second hypothesis suggested was that women were not sufficiently qualified. As with the first hypothesis, there were several explanations suggested for this lack of qualification. Both hypotheses are subsequently discussed.

Women's Interest. Through interviews with many athletic directors, it was observed that there are several reasons why women are not interested in applying for coaching and administration positions in athletics. The most frequently cited reason for lack of women's interest, one which nearly every interviewee mentioned and agreed to, was that coaching and athletic administration necessitate a way of life. Many women were not eager to "live" their job (Leshinsky).<sup>1</sup> There was general agreement among interviewed subjects that coaching and administrating women's athletics were taxing, full-time jobs. Further, the interview results suggest subjects were currently feeling additional pressures for job performance as a

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<sup>1</sup>Note that the references in this chapter are from those interviewed and are not dated, since all interviews were conducted at the same conference. Complete bibliographic reference for each interviewed subject can be found in Appendix C.

result of new attention and financial backing for women's inter-collegiate athletics. This is not to say that women working in athletics are working harder at the job per se, but additional sociological factors must also be considered. Beyond that, many women are forced to live two lives.

An Associated Press release from Washington, D.C. on January 8, 1981, and printed in the Detroit Free Press, quoted one poll as saying that 50 percent of Americans subscribe to the adage, "A woman's place is in the home." Two-thirds disapprove of families in which the wife is the breadwinner and dad stays home with the kids. According to this article, "Virtually all Americans now think it takes as much intelligence and drive to bring up children as to run a corporation; however, half say a working woman should bear full responsibility for running the house, too." This complex mix of factors appears to be forcing women out of considering Division I athletic coaching, where competition and pressures are keenest. It may be too difficult to handle two full-time jobs. Christine Hoyles, Women's Athletic Director at Western Michigan University, feels that as coaching positions have become contractual positions, women are no longer interested in such positions. According to Hoyles, women are more interested in a tenure track position; which includes a teaching assignment. This fact relates to the previous point that women were perceived by interviewed subjects as not interested in or not allowed to be interested in such a strong commitment to their job outside their home. This commitment is to live your job and be successful. The more you win, the more you are expected to win. Many women pre-

viously involved in coaching athletic teams participated on a part-time basis. They coached club or intramural sports and were not involved in "must win", high level athletics. It was suggested that these women may be leaving the coaching ranks and are seemingly being replaced by men.

Women's Qualification. In contrast to the results of question six on the questionnaire which cite lack of women's education, none of the interviewed subjects felt that lack of education was a reason for the low availability of qualified female applicants for coaching and administrative positions. In agreement with the questionnaire results, it is suggested in the literature that female physical education majors need more courses in coaching (Margolis, 1979; Hogan, 1978a). Interviewed subjects did agree with the comment that women need more coaching experience (Baker, Saunders, Frailey, Kelly, Stocker). According to Stocker, there have been relatively few opportunities for women as assistant coaches. Consequently, women are unable to rise through the ranks to head coaching positions. Stocker suggests that as women's athletics continue to grow, more institutions should employ female assistant coaches to provide these opportunities for women.

Saunders has another perspective relevant to the issue of experience. She feels that quality athletes in many sports are coming from age group programs, academies and such organizations as the United States Volleyball Association (USVBA) rather than from the high schools. Such feeder programs have traditionally been coached by males. Therefore, these males not only have had coaching

experience, but in many cases, have had experience coaching the elite female athletes and are, thus, more qualified by experience for Division I intercollegiate coaching positions.

From the interviews, it appears that hiring male coaches has become more prevalent in some women's sports than in others (Baker, Saunders, Dolan, Gelish, Poolman). Baker pointed out that it is also more difficult to find women that are qualified to coach a higher skill level team than to find someone to coach a first or second year team. A difficult decision for athletic directors centered on whether or not a female should be hired for their women's program. Frequently, the issue was the pressure to have a national caliber team with national or international caliber athletes competing for their institution versus the promotion of women coaches in women's athletics.

From discussions with the AIAW delegates, it appeared that two factors are responsible for a relatively small pool of women to fill positions of athletic coaches. First, women themselves must be committed enough to athletics to assume full-time positions at the same career risk faced by coaches of men's intercollegiate athletics. Related to this risk is a career commitment. Secondly, women must seek training in athletics as assistant coaches and as assistants in leadership roles. These two factors are related. Women currently in leadership and coaching positions must have sufficient commitment to train the new generations of coaches and athletic directors; and there must be aspiring leaders to be trained.

### Availability of Men

A corollary to the lack of women available for coaching and leadership was the interviewed subjects' perception of an abundance of well trained, interested men desiring careers in women's athletics. Rather than viewing prospective male coaches and administrators as "stop gap" measures, the subjects interviewed, as well as the literature, suggested that men are increasingly pursuing positions in women's athletics (Margolis, 1978). Previously, men might have coached an auxillary team of women in the same sport they coached for men (i.e., track, cross country, swimming, diving). Now men unaffiliated with a men's team were cited by the subjects in consideration for coaching positions with women's teams. The interviewees suggested several reasons why this shift has occurred.

A significant change in women's athletics is a new level of prestige. Highly skilled female athletes have brought recognition to women's sports. The subjects felt that the previous stigma men may have felt coaching women's teams is now lessened. As mentioned earlier, it is often men that have coached these skilled athletes, either in age group (AAU) clubs or even in high school settings. Another mentioned cause for this increased prestige was a heightened level of competition. Through the leadership of the AIAW, women have had a chance to compete at national championships. AIAW has recently completed arrangements for additional television coverage of these national championships (TV Committee Report, 1981 Delegate Assembly), and subjects felt these factors have induced men to coach women willingly.



Therefore, with the advent of many more women's teams, along with reallocation of athletic budgets to accommodate additional women's teams necessitated by Title IX have had serious effects on the numbers and quality of men's athletic offerings. In fact, in some cases, cut-backs in men's athletics may be responsible for men moving into the job market for coaching and administration of women's teams. In a related sense, some institutions consolidate or originate a women's team with a similar men's team (i.e., swimming, track and field or cross country) that was previously there (Frailey). In nearly every case the existing team is coached by a male.

#### Administration of Women's Athletics

It is difficult to provide empirical information regarding trends in employment. First, it must be noted that the national survey was mailed to the administrator that was listed as the athletic director by the AIAW directory. This person presumably completed the mailed questionnaire. The interview subjects at the National AIAW Delegate Assembly in Detroit were selected from the different institutional representative designated by these institutions. Since the AIAW representatives are not necessarily the institution's athletic director for women, it was impossible to interview athletic directors not in attendance. This predicament was especially troublesome and prevalent when the administrative head of women's athletics was male.

The overwhelming majority of AIAW representatives were females. Thus, by using the representative as the indicator of athletic

administrator, it was often misleading as was discovered in the interviews. For many women, being the AIAW Representative was nearly their only administrative duty.

Secondly, even if women have the titled position of athletic director for women's athletics, or its semantic equivalent, it should not be assumed that the job is all the title implies. This second reason, variability in job descriptions for women's athletic director, was beyond the scope of the initial survey, and was therefore investigated through personal interview.

The assessment from personal interviews was that the survey may not address possible changes in the job description of the women's athletic director. According to Marilyn Baker, President-elect of the AIAW, many women, herself included, have lost administrative and governance power through recent changes in organization of athletic administration. While the titles of their positions have not changed, these women experience loss in decision prerogative, ability to ultimately control budget and finances, and power of initiative in their own programs. Dr. Pruitt of Ohio University states that as a result of these administrative changes, she had "lost job satisfaction". As with others, even though her job title remains unchanged, her job description and ultimate responsibility and authority have been significantly altered.

An alternate trend involves coalescing men's and women's athletic departments and former separate athletic directors sharing particular duties across both women's and men's programs. In the case of Mary Ellen Cloninger of the University of Wyoming, this type

of merger resulted in the loss of her title of Women's Athletic Director, and dramatic changes in her job responsibilities, as she is now responsible for various aspects of athletics in both men's and women's programs. According to Cloninger, this is a step forward for their women's athletic program and presumably for women's athletics in general. As Cloninger states, "...it (program integration) is more beneficial for women for her to contribute in all areas, than it is to make specific decisions in only a small area (women's athletics)". As Cloninger and others point out, in the end result it is the members of an organization, how they interact and how they make decisions, that makes the organization run smoothly. This interaction is much more a factor than any organization scheme at a particular institution.

Isolating trends in administrative organization of women's athletics was difficult. Even when the problem of potential mismatch between survey respondents and institution delegates interviewed in Detroit is considered, there remain intangible, yet salient factors untouched by the survey results. Changes in athletic director's job responsibilities was cited as an example. Whether this is a harmful or beneficial trend is not clear.

#### Discussion of the Interviews at the AIAW National Office

In addition to the interviews with the representatives at the AIAW national convention in Detroit, a second set of interviews was conducted. These discussions were with personnel at AIAW's national office and archives. The interviews again centered on personal

reaction to and explanation of perceived changes in governance of women's athletics. These issues, which were previously reported in interviews with voting representatives, deal with survey questions five through eight. These questions addressed sub-problem seven in Chapter I, which sought to determine the reasons for changes in leadership roles for women in athletics.

Personnel at the National office were selected as interview subjects for several reasons. It was felt that personnel receiving input from across the country would have a broader perception of the organization and its changes. Similarly, they would have access to important details of changes concerning specific institutions that may have been overlooked through random selection of interview subjects and through stratifying populations for the study. They would also be more aware of any current information about changes in government, athletics and education, that may affect changes in governance and procedure in women's athletics.

Ms. Cindy Jackson, administrative accountant for the AIAW in Washington, DC receives applications for membership forms for each member institution yearly. Among other information required by this form, the institution is asked to list the athletic director for women and the voting representative to the AIAW. According to Ms. Jackson, it is interesting to note the number of changes now occurring in these designated positions. Since January of 1981, when the NCAA voted to offer national championships for women, Ms. Jackson reports a decided shift towards male representation for voting representatives for women. Among other reasons, she suggests that this

shift may be the result of a desire for male governance of women's athletics at the university level, as well as governance of women's athletics at the national level.

Considering the previous factors and the history of women's athletics, Ms. Jackson offered 1975-76 as the peak years for women governing women's athletics. Previous to that year, women's programs were in a building phase primarily engineered by females. Since 1975-76, men's names have appeared in increasing numbers on membership applications. According to Ms. Jackson, this change has increased dramatically since January of 1981. "I receive ten to fifteen requests each month to change the names of the voting representative." Most changes ask for a female's position to be changed to a male representative."

Ms. Linda Dixon, Administrative Assistant in the AIAW National Office and Dr. Ann Uhlir, the Executive Director of the AIAW, agree that there seems to be more men involved in the coaching and administration of women's athletics. They attribute much of the change in personnel from female to male at the institution level to a following from the national level. The men's organization (NCAA) at the national level has taken an interest in women's athletic activities. Its lead is being followed at the institution level. Also, according to Dr. Joan Hult of the AIAW archives, when men's and women's programs merge, they are nearly always headed by a man.

#### Summary

As stated in the chapter introduction, a synthesis of attitudes,

opinions and reactions to the surveyed issues was necessary. An interview format, followed by a subjective analysis was appropriate for reporting information. Several complimentary themes found in the interviews were discussed and substantiated with pertinent quotations. The interviewed subjects strongly felt that a real reason why women are not being hired is because they are not available, both through lack of interest and lack of training and experience. Further, highly qualified men, eager to coach newly prestigious women's teams are trained and available for hire. Better working conditions due to enactment of Title IX was ironically cited as a major cause for this new prestige and, ultimately, the cause for men desiring positions in women's athletics. Finally, there was hope expressed that the pendulum may swing back. As more women compete and assist in women's athletics, they may also go on to coach; providing there are unfilled job openings.

## CHAPTER V

## TITLE IX: DEVELOPMENT AND COURT CASES

Sex discrimination generally has been regarded as less oppressive than racial discrimination. This has been evidenced in both legislative and judicial attitudes. Justice Douglas wrote an opinion which declared racial discrimination to be unconstitutional (Defunis v. Odegaard). However, two days later, he stated that individual states could constitutionally provide protective legislation for women. Thus, within a two day period, Justice Douglas declared racial discrimination unconstitutional and upheld discrimination based on sex. While the intent of protective legislation was to proscribe more rigorous employment for women, its effects have limited women's opportunities in employment. In fact, sex bias in employment has been readily apparent. In 1970, the sex bias in employment was stronger than the racial bias. A national, non-educational survey of median income in 1970 showed: white men - \$7,396; black men - \$3,777; white women - \$4,279; black women - \$3,194. This same survey also showed that both black and white women with some college education earned less than black men with eight years of education (Martin, 1976).

Attitudes in Athletics

Prior to the 1970's, the athletic organization for women was almost non-existent. Limited competition was on a club basis and rules were strict to "protect" women from too much exertion (Twin, 1979). There appears to be parallel reasoning with Justice Douglas

on this point. As a consequence of this protective attitude, few women have had an opportunity for participation in intercollegiate athletics. Coaches for these women were generally from physical education staff, who also were teaching a full course assignment. Equipment and facilities were inadequate and by no means comparable to those of most male athletic teams. For many years, this situation existed without much question (Geadelmann, 1977).

The first to question the male domination of athletics were the female athletes. Soon there came strong support from parents and others but it was not until the U.S. Congress finally passed Title IX that women began to find opportunities in athletics opening up to them. "Women are slowly achieving parity in sports. Not because it is morally and educationally right, but because it is required by law and regulation" (Hanford, 1977). McCune (1976) has posed a similar stance:

One of the Hallmarks of humanistic society is equality of opportunity for all citizens; most of us accept this idea as the most fundamental right of American citizens. We seldom give serious thought, however, to how equal our citizens really are and to how our schools influence the equality of opportunity to all.

Perhaps as a result of our country's long history of egalitarianism, passage of a somewhat obscure educational amendment dealing with equality caused little public or even Congressional stirrings. Few, if any, realized the far reaching influence of the amendment when the 92nd Congress passed it (Cox, 1977).



1972 Educational Amendments, Title IX

In 1972, in one of its final acts, the 92nd Congress passed Title IX of the Educational Amendments. At that time, little publicity, fanfare or disagreement was given to the amendment. So on June 23, 1972, Title IX of the Educational Amendments became law. Section 901 (a) of this law provides:

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

As one might guess from the wording of the amendment, its generality affects all educational activities and has had far reaching effects on their policies and procedures. However, the one area that has been most radically affected is the sports arena. "Apart from the pressures of the organized male athletic hierarchy (sic) that finds it difficult to give a woman a sporting chance, the sports issue is one of the most complex to deal with" (Sandler, 1977). Due to this complexity and the need to resolve it, a discussion of Title IX as it relates to athletics is presented. In particular, issues affecting intercollegiate athletics receive primary emphasis. Many of the court cases to be cited in this chapter were initiated by plaintiffs from the secondary school level. This was particularly true in the issue of contact and non-contact sports. These case findings were generalized to the intercollegiate level and presented along with intercollegiate level cases.

### Implementation of Title IX

Implementation of this law has been slow. In 1972, when Title IX became a law, it was virtually without enforcement. It was not until 1974, when the Department of Health, Education and Welfare was instructed by Congress to provide implementation guidelines (regulations) that administrators began to take the law seriously. Ultimately in Section 844 of Educational Amendments of 1974, Congress backed the Title IX amendment with the following provision:

The Secretary (of HEW) shall prepare and publish ... proposed regulations implementing the provisions of Title IX of the Education Amendment of 1972 relating to the prohibition of sex discrimination in federally assisted education programs which shall include with respect to intercollegiate athletic activities reasonable provisions considering the nature of particular sports.

The regulations implementing Title IX were to become effective July 21, 1975. The regulation established a three year transition period (not a grace or waiting period) which gave institutions time to comply with its equal athletic opportunity requirements. That transition period expired on July 21, 1978.

During the three year transition period most institutions began their struggle toward compliance. In areas of gross noncompliance and where it was relatively easy to comply, institutions began to do so. These initial steps were typified by such measures as equal use of facilities and equal coaching salaries. The areas in which compliance remained difficult were those that involved larger financial backing; such as adding new sports for women. Unfortunately, Title IX affected schools at a time when budgets for men's programs

were less than adequate. The federal government mandated that schools institute new programs for women, but did not give them financial backing for such programs. Consequently, in many cases, the money came from the men's programs. This is not to propose that implementation of Title IX should not draw from the men's athletic financial base. Rather, it is among the reasons that some men have been bitter about the passage and implementation of Title IX.

#### Legal Issues Associated With Title IX

Title IX has been interpreted to cover diverse aspects of sexual inequality. Separate-but-equal, private right of action, revenue producing sports and employment practices are issues pertinent to athletics, particularly intercollegiate athletics. These issues, as well as legal evidence determining Title IX's effect upon these issues, are subsequently presented.

#### Title IX and Separate-But-Equal

Several reasons for the complexity of applying Title IX to athletics have been isolated. Probably the most salient was the fact that men and women (on the average and at this point in history) are not equal in strength, power, flexibility, agility and speed (Twin, 1979). This realization increased the difficulties of how equal opportunity intentions of Title IX were best satisfied.

The courts have very clearly determined that separate-but-equal was inherently unequal in racial cases. In several cases in the early 1950's (Sweatt v. Painter, McLaurin v. Oklahoma State Regents) and especially in the landmark case of Brown v Board of Education of

Topeka, the courts said one must look at the "effect" of segregation.

The courts have not been as clear whether separate-but-equal was equal or not in sex cases. So far courts have ruled that women could not participate with men on contact sport teams, such as boxing, football, rugby, ice hockey, basketball and wrestling (Darrin v. Gould, Ritacco v. Norwin School District, Carnes v. Tennessee).

In non-contact sports cases, all of the cases involving sex discrimination have been brought to court by public secondary school students against their schools or interscholastic athletic associations. "Litigation on the college level in this area has been virtually nonexistent" (Gedelman, 1977). Therefore, documentation of court action dealt with secondary school cases. This required some extrapolation, but the discussions regarding female participation were valid for secondary and post-secondary institutions. The cases were grouped into two patterns: offering a single sport for one sex with no reciprocal offering for the other sex, and offering two separate sex sports.

Separate, single sport offerings. The first pattern occurred when one athletic team in a non-contact sport existed and was open to only one sex. The courts have consistently found violation of equal protection in instances of a single sport offered for a single sex (Reed v. Nebraska, Haas v. South Bend Community Schools, Lopez v. State Board of Education New York, Harbert v. State Board of Education New York, Gilpin v. Kansas State HSAA, Bednar v. Nebraska, Morris v. Michigan Board of Education).

If an institution had one sex-segregated team and athletic

opportunities for the other sex had previously been restricted, then the restricted sex must subsequently be allowed to try out for the formerly segregated teams (Bednar v. Nebraska, Gomes v. Rhode Island). This right to "try out", however, did not guarantee girls' participation, but more likely a dubious "right" to fail. It was proposed that institutions have a professional obligation to promote the athletic abilities of all students (Iowa Law Review, 1975). They must include programs for women. Creation of women's teams was most likely the best way to meet the over-all equal athletic opportunity requirement of the Title IX regulations. Such programs represented a desirable alternative to either excluding women entirely, or effectively excluding them by requiring them to meet standards established for male athletes (Iowa Law Review, 1975).

One example of this first pattern merits special mention in this discussion. The case of Gomes v. Rhode Island was a case involving sex discrimination against a male high school student. In Gomes it was decided that:

A separate and exclusive high school female athletic team may be established only where males previously had and presumably continue to have adequate athletic opportunities to participate in that sport.

Donald Gomes was allowed to try out and participate on the previously all girls volleyball team at Rogers High School in Rhode Island.

Separate, co-occurring sport offerings. The second pattern of cases in non-contact sports was somewhat more complex than the first. This example occurred when separate sex athletic teams existed in a

given sport, such as co-occurring men's and women's track and field teams, and where no co-ed track and field team existed. A number of cases establish the practice of women's non-participation in men's athletics when a separate women's team existed for a given non-contact sport (Bucha v. Illinois HSAA, Ritacco v. Norwin School District, Ruman v. Eskew, Hollander v. C.N. Interscholastic Athletic Conference and Brenden v. Independent School District). The clearly defined practice derived from these judgments was that women are not allowed to compete on men's non-contact sport teams when a separate women's team for that sport existed. The complexity and disparity arose when one considered the discrimination against a highly skilled female athlete (perhaps a female high jumper clearing 5'10" in high school competition). The female athlete that could have successfully competed with male athletes was considered by some to be discriminated against (Brenden v. Independent School District).

However, as noted in Bucha v. Illinois HSAA, at the Olympic Games, the pinnacle of all sporting contests, the men's times in each event were consistently better than the women's. It was also shown that the two boy swimmers sent to the state championship contest were better than those ever recorded by either plaintiff (Appendix D). The notion of separate-but-equal was substantiated in Bucha v.

Illinois:

All of these facts lend substantial credence to the fears expressed by women coaches and athletes in defendants' affidavits that unrestricted athletic competition between the sexes would consistently lead to male domination of interscholastic sports and actually result in a decrease in female participation in such events. The court finds that such opinions have a rational basis, in fact, and

are constitutionally sufficient reason for prohibiting athletic interscholastic competition between boys and girls in Illinois.

The justification for the separate-but equal doctrine being upheld for sex-related issues when that same doctrine was found inherently unequal for racial issues was fundamental to this discussion. In the athletic realm, the reasoning drawn from the Bucha v. Illinois decision was that separate-but-equal was essential if girls and women were to have a chance for competitive athletic experiences. Otherwise, if the female athlete was competing with male athletes for limited team positions or opportunities, she would, for the most part, not participate. Consequently, by the time she reached college, she would exhibit a serious deficiency in competitive skill (Iowa Law Review, 1975).

It was apparent that separate-but-equal athletic teams would neither automatically deny equal protection nor guarantee equality of athletic opportunities. There were two camps of agreement resulting from this imperfect solution. One group proposed separate is equal. This assertion was conditioned by the proviso that as long as there were opportunities for females to participate in a particular sport there was equality. However, whether such participation by females was comparable in terms of quality of competition, environment in which competition was held, expenditures for the competition were difficult questions to answer (Iowa Law Review, 1975).

The second group in favor of mixed competition had several good points. Separate girls teams can, in fact, never be equal to boys teams. The girls' team will be less skilled and so the boys team

will ultimately enjoy the "prestige" factor. The exceptional female in the preceding situation is not afforded equal treatment with the male athletes of the same ability in sex-separated teams. Attempts to remedy this inequity have had limited success. One organizational model allowed for two different teams. The first was to be based on skill, regardless of sex. The second team was to be all female. This method has been accepted to a limited extent in Michigan. The predictable result was an all male first team and an all female second team. The end result, of course, was separate and unequal teams (first vs. second teams). The positive benefits afforded exceptional females' participation in athletics of high skill and prestige (Iowa Law Review, 1975). This arrangement has been promulgated by a Michigan statute which allows girls to try out for boys interscholastic athletic teams in all non-contact sports, notwithstanding the existence of a separate girls' team in that sport (MI Comp Laws ANN 340.379, as amended by 1976 Pub Act No 138).

#### Title IX and Private Right of Action

Cannon v. University of Chicago was the landmark case for private right of action under Title IX for a person refused admission to higher education. In this case, Cannon was allowed to go to court with her claim. A private right of action is a direct remedy in a court of law for one who has been harmed. Before the Cannon decision, the lower courts had concluded that Congress intended the remedy under Title IX to be only a procedure set up by HEW. The Cannon Case pointed out that there are two procedures available to



follow in a Title IX, sex discrimination case: 1) an HEW investigation, hearing and possible cut off of federal funds, and 2) a bypass of HEW, where the individual seeks relief directly from the court.

In Alexander v. Yale, the private right of action under Title IX for alleged sexual harassment was again upheld. HEW has further urged here, as in Cannon, that private right of action would promote Title IX's purpose. It was obviously significant that the enforcing agency urged recognition of private suit rights.

The USCA pocket part included a section which elaborated on this point. It delineated the purpose of Title IX and the activities allowed under Title IX as they relate to this issue of private right of action:

1. Purpose

Through enactment of this chapter (Title IX) Congress sought to avoid use of federal resources to support discriminatory practices and to provide individual citizens effective protection against practices (Cannon v. University of Chicago).

2. Activities within section

Female student who allegedly received poor grade in her major field of study due to her rejection of her male professor's sexual demands was within class. This chapter was designed to protect and thus was entitled to bring private action under this chapter against university seeking redress for sex discrimination (Alexander v. Yale University).

### Title IX and Revenue Producing Sports

The Title IX statute provides that "No person...shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subject to discrimination under any educational

program or activity receiving federal financial assistance..."

(emphasis author). The question then arises, whether athletic programs more intended to be included in this statement. After Congress learned that HEW intended to include athletic programs under the Title IX umbrella, it considered and rejected several amendments that would have exempted some or all athletic activities from Title IX requirements. The statute, however, continued to read "programs or activities," and therefore included all athletic programs.

It was HEW's opinion that even a revenue producing inter-collegiate program was an educational program and an integral part of an undergraduate education. It must, therefore have complied with Title IX (Federal Register, Vol 43). Broadly speaking, the athletic department may have received benefits from federal funding even if it is not through direct means. For instance, if a federal grant was given to a Biology Department, it could have benefited the athletic program by freeing university funds for the athletic program.

The NCAA and other groups believe that if a university athletic department was completely self-supporting, having received neither federal nor university funds or assistance, it would theoretically be exempt from Title IX. It is unlikely that any secondary schools have had, or currently have such a profitable athletic program. In fact, only a few universities have operated their athletic programs totally independent of the university (Cox, 1979).

HEW has cited one court case, Board of Public Instruction v. Finch, as a guide to interpreting the particular program provision of Title IX. This was a racial case, and was dealing with Title VI.

However, the case was consistent with the idea that a discriminatory school program can affect discriminatory practices elsewhere in the school system.

Thus far, the issue of athletic exemption has not been to the Supreme Court, and legal evidence is necessarily tangential. However, NCAA has been a significant force and it remains a question of time before the courts are asked to rule on this issue. It seems likely that Title IX applies to intercollegiate athletic programs and that its sanctions apply to programs that benefit, directly or indirectly, from federal financial assistance to the institution, and therefore, are under its control.

Another, more limited aspect of athletic exemption from Title IX has been the attempt to reserve individual sports from its effects. In particular, sports producing large revenues such as college football and basketball, have sought to be exempt from Title IX. The reasoning here has been that since these sports were self-supporting and required no federal or institutional support, then they should be exempt.

A particular sport that has served as an example of individual sport exemption is college football. As was the case with athletics in general, few football programs have managed to become financially independent (Cox, 1979). However, even though the number of football programs Title IX exemption would actually benefit is small, the ramifications of such an exemption would be far reaching.

Congress and the HEW seemed to agree that intercollegiate football should not be exempt from the Title IX legislation. The

courts, however, have not ruled on this issue. In its Newsletter (February, 1980), the NCAA contended that the HEW has regulatory authority only over those programs or activities that have received direct federal financial assistance. In another article, Thompson (1979) stated that the HEW regulations have overreached the Act of Title IX in three areas:

1. The regulations defining federal financial assistance was contrary to Congressional intent.
2. Regulations extended coverage to all programs - institution wide was beyond the scope of the act.
3. HEW's employment regulation was totally unauthorized.

Ultimately, the question of the nature and extent of HEW's authority in these three areas and others should be resolved by the courts. It has already become clear that the courts are in agreement with Thompson's objections to Title IX and employment regulations (Junior College District of St. Louis v. Califano, U.S. Department of Education Seattle University v. HEW, Islesboro v. Califano).

Despite the consistently inclusive interpretation, Congress and HEW have given Title IX's authority, exemptions based on sports lack of financial dependence persist. As late as 1979, the NCAA was lobbying for football exemption. Congress and the HEW have stood firm on this issue. On December 4, 1979 a HEW Fact Sheet was released which boldly clarifies what the Title IX regulation requires of institutions of Higher Education.

Consistent with the requirements of the regulation, HEW will determine whether a school's athletic program is in compliance with Title IX by assessing three basic factors of the program:

1. Financial assistance -- scholarships and grants-in-aid provided on the basis of athletic ability.
2. Athletic benefits and opportunities -- equipment and supplies, travel, compensation of coaches, facilities, housing, publicity and other aspects of a program.
3. Accommodation of student interests and abilities -- the third section of the policy sets out how schools can meet the requirement of the regulation to "effectively accommodate the interest and abilities of both sexes."

The issue of inclusion of athletics under Title IX regulation has recently been reopened to scrutiny. On February 23, 1981, U.S. District Judge Charles W. Joiner ruled that "the reach of Title IX extends only to those educational programs or activities which receive direct federal financial assistance." Joiner's ruling came in a lawsuit filed by Arthur Othen, who demanded that a women's golf team be instituted at Pioneer High School in Ann Arbor, Michigan (Othen v. Ann Arbor Public Schools).

If upheld on appeal, the decision would be a major limitation on the effects of Title IX. Don Canham, Athletic Director at the University of Michigan in Ann Arbor, called the decision a landmark. However, there was much disagreement. Jean King (Othen's lawyer) was quoted "I don't think you call a decision at the district level 'landmark'. It's a first, and it's of great concern to a lot of people. It is a matter of interpreting what Congress intended."

Bart Barnes of the Washington Post reported:

While the case involved only high school athletics, affirmation at the appellate level would be a major victory for the nation's major collegiate superpowers, who have long argued that their programs are self-supporting through ticket sales and

contributions and therefore, should not be subject to Title IX.

#### Title IX and Employment Practices

The courts have consistently ruled that the intent of Title IX was not to cover employees of institutions, except in those cases of student employment. The wording of the statute itself clearly says:

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

Three cases, Junior College District of St. Louis v. Califano, U.S. Department of Education v. Seattle University v. HEW and Isleboro v. Califano, all concluded that Title IX does not give HEW authority to regulate employment practices of college and university employees. The court said that the infection theory (sex discrimination in one group of persons could spread to another group of persons) was not valid because a nexus between the discriminated against employees and its effect on students must first have been shown and has not been shown (Junior College District of St. Louis v. Califano). The key word in the statement of Title IX remains "participation." This has been interpreted to mean students rather than employees.

Another case, Romeo Community Schools v. HEW, also rendered that employment cannot be covered under Title IX. This case further specified that HEW's general authority under Title IX was "program specific." The wording of the statute again clearly mentioned "any educational program or activity receiving federal financial assistance."

According to these cases, it was clear that the Department of Health, Education and Welfare (now the Department of Education) did not have authority under Education Amendments of 1972 (20 USCS 1961) to regulate employment discrimination, as it did not apply to sex discrimination against employees of educational institutions, but rather prohibited discrimination against students who were the intended beneficiaries of federal financial assistance to education (USCS, pocket supplement, 1980). Federal legislation has been available to help female coaches combat sex discrimination in employment and training opportunities. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1974, Executive Order 11246, and the Equal Pay Act of 1964, have both been used to seek employee relief.

In light of the foregoing evidence, regulatory powers of Title IX regarding employment practices appeared to be limited or nonexistent. However, the Department of Education has not given up. The latest petition from the Department of Education insisted the court should decide whether the regulations applied only to employees whose salaries were paid through federal funds, or if the Department had the right to investigate the treatment of any and all employees of a school which received federal assistance. The fifth circuit said in Dougherty v. Pat Harris that some regulation of employment practices was justified if the employees' salary was defrayed in whole or part by federal funds. The case specifically noted professors doing U.S. government funded research.

The fifth circuit decision in Dougherty v. Pat Harris would parallel the issue brought before the Department of Education by the

NCAA regarding the exemption of intercollegiate athletics of particularly intercollegiate football. Football would be classed a non-federally funded activity and thus exempt from Title IX regulations much the same as employees being paid part or wholly by the federal government being included.

The Department of Education has not been content to let the U.S. Supreme Court decide the legality of Title IX employment regulations on the basis of only one case (Seattle University v. HEW). Two local school boards and the Department have asked the justices to consider two additional challenges to the long litigated rules (School Law Review, 1981). The petitions now before the High Court are Hufstедler v. Dougherty County School System and the combined cases of North Haven Board of Education v. Hufstедler and Trumbull Board of Education v. U.S. Department of Education. A list of court cases grouped by the previous headings of this chapter are provided in Table 17 on pages 97 through 102. A brief description of each case mentioned in the text of this chapter is included.

#### Summary

When the regulations implementing Title IX were to become effective in 1975, many issues rose to the surface. Among these issues was the question of sex-segregated teams. Is separate-but-equal inherently unequal as in racial cases? Or, was separate-but-equal the best possible alternate for athletics? The question has continued to surface in the courts and has remained unresolved. Many difficult questions are presently involved in this issue and will



TABLE 17

## COURT CASES ON TITLE IX AND ATHLETICS

CASE	DATE	NATURE OF CASE	RULING
Trent vs Ferritt 391 F. Supp. 171	1975	Male student sued under Title IX that he did not have to cut his hair since girls did not have to.	First case filed under Title IX in favor of the school. They were not in conflict with Title IX. It's purpose is not to erase differences in sex (long hair), only to provide equal participation.
DRESS/HAIR			
PRIVATE RIGHT OF ACTION			
Alexander vs Yale 459 F. Supp. 1	1977	Was Alexander able to go directly to court rather than through HEW with her claim?	Yes. Upheld private right of action, cited Cannon case.
Cannon vs. University of Chicago 559 F. 2d. 1063	1977	Cannon was denied admission to medical school. Could she go directly to court with her claim of sex discrimination under Title IX?	Yes. Plaintiff has 2 courses of action under Title IX. HEW investigation or directly to court.
Cape vs Tennessee Sec. Sch. AA, 425 F. Supp. 732 reversed 563 F. 2d. 793	1976	Female high school basketball player claims that six player rule is a deprivation of her rights to equal protection. Claimed right to relief under Title IX.	Private right of action granted only when plaintiff first exhausts administrative remedies available under Title IX.

## COURT CASES ON TITLE IX AND ATHLETICS (CONTINUED)

CASE	DATE	NATURE OF CASE	RULING
<u>PRIVATE RIGHT OF ACTION (CONT.)</u>			
Jones vs Oklahoma Sec. Sch. Act, Ass. 453 F. Supp. 150	1977	Female high school student had not begun the process of administrative remedy.	The private right of action case can be used but only after administrative remedies are exhausted.
<u>EMPLOYMENT</u>			
Brunswick School Board vs Califano 449 F. Supp. 866 Affirmed 593 F. 2d. 424	1978	Female employee was pregnant. She sued that pregnancy regulations violated Title IX.	The court ruled that Congress did not intend Title IX to cover employment practices.
Dougherty vs Pat Harris 622 F. 2d. 736	1980	Female teacher whose salary is less than a male in the same program.	Employee is subject to discrimination and HEW may remedy by regulation under Title IX.
Isleboro vs Califano 593 F. 2d. 424	1979	Teachers employed as recipients of specialized federal funding for a special activity or research.	Title IX does not cover employees. Except in those cases where teachers are engaged in special research being funded by the U.S. government.
Jr. College District of St. Louis vs Califano 597 F. 2d. 119	1979	Employee brought suit that she had been discriminated against. Plaintiff sued HEW, stating it had no jurisdiction to regulate employment.	The Court found that Title IX's prohibition of sex discrimination applied only to "participants or beneficiaries" and not to employees.

## COURT CASES ON TITLE IX AND ATHLETICS (CONTINUED)

CASE	DATE	NATURE OF CASE	RULING
		EMPLOYMENT (CONT.)	
McCarthy vs Burkholder 448 F. Supp. 41	1978	Female wanted sick leave for maternity leaves and be allowed pay during maternity leave. Sued under Title IX.	Title IX cannot prohibit school from denying sick leave for maternity leaves. Title IX does not cover employees.
Romeo Community Schools vs. HEW 438 F. Supp. 1021	1977	Employee alleged sex discrimination in the system's pregnancy leave regulations. HEW cited Romeo for non-compliance with Title IX.	The Court upheld Romeo's contention that Title IX is a prohibition against sex discrimination against student beneficiaries only.
Seattle University vs U.S. Department of HEW 621 F.2d. 992	1980	HEW tried to use Title IX against Seattle charging sex discrimination in employment practices (nurses salaries).	No, quotes the 3 cases above. The infection theory is not valid until a nexus between the discriminated against employees and its effect on students is shown.
University of Toledo vs U.S. Department of HEW 464 F. Supp. 693	1979	Authority of HEW to regulate employment practices.	The HEW had no authority to regulate employment practices and the university was entitled to injunction against further investigation of employment practices at issue.

## COURT CASES ON TITLE IX AND ATHLETICS (CONTINUED)

CASE	DATE	NATURE OF CASE	RULING
SEPARATE-BUT-EQUAL NON CONTACT			
Bednar vs Nebraska SSAA 531 F.2d 922	1976	Female student want to be on boys cross country team.	In favor of girls. She is allowed to be on boys cross country team.
Brenden vs Independent School District 447 F.2d. 1292	1973	Exceptional female athletes wanted to be on boys teams. No teams for girls.	Yes, in favor of the girls. Court implied they prefer separate team for girls but these two girls had exceptional ability.
Bucha vs Illinois High School Association 351 F. Supp. 69	1972	Class action. Girls wanted to be on boys swim team - they objected to restrictions applicable to girls and not boys sports programs. NOTE: Class action suits are generally unsuccessful cases (Gadelman, 1977).	In favor of defendants. A girls team existed. The differing regulations were upheld on the basis of physiological differences between boys and girls that were quoted from Brenden. In favor of separate-but-equal concept.
Gilpin vs Kansas State High School Activities Association 377 F. Supp. 1233	1974	Female high school student prevented from participation on boys cross country team.	Court ruled in favor of the girl. Rule prohibiting mixed competition between boys and girls was not justifiable.

## COURT CASES ON TITLE IX AND ATHLETICS (CONTINUED)

CASE	DATE	NATURE OF CASE	RULING
SEPARATE-BUT-EQUAL NON CONTACT (CONT.)			
Gomes vs Rhode Island 469 F. Supp. 659	1979	Male high school student wants to be on girls volleyball team.	Either the school should provide volleyball for boys or allow boys on the girls team.
Haas vs South Bend 289 N.E. 2d. 495	1972	Haas, a female student, wanted to play golf on the boys team. There was no golf team for girls.	Yes. In favor of the girl.
Lopez vs State Board of Education, New York		Girls were prohibited from participation on boys golf team.	Never went to court. The threat of court hearing persuaded the Board of Education, New York to change the law.
Morris vs Michigan Board of Education 472 F.2d. 1207	1973	Girls wanted to play on boys tennis team.	Subsequent to the injunction, Michigan legislature passed a bill allowing females to participate in all non-contact sports. Even if a girls team exists in that sport.
Reed vs Nebraska Activity Association 341 F. Supp. 258	1972	Reed, a female student, wanted to play golf on the boys golf team. There was no golf team for girls.	Yes, she may play. She has the right to play.

## COURT CASES ON TITLE IX AND ATHLETICS (CONTINUED)

CASE	DATE	NATURE OF CASE	RULING
SEPARATE-BUT-EQUAL NON CONTACT (CONT.)			
Ritacco vs Norwin School District 361 F. Supp. 930	1973	Class action suit. Girls wanted to try out for boys tennis team rather than the girls team.	Rule did not unfairly discriminate 'separate-but-equal' in the realm of sports competition is justifiable.
SEPARATE-BUT-EQUAL CONTACT			
Carnes vs Tennessee SSAA 415 F. Supp. 569	1976	Female high school student seeks injunction against TSSA rule prohibiting mixed participation in contact sports.	Rule in favor of girl. Court questioned if baseball is contact sport. Stated that to deny Carnes participation would result in an irretrievable loss to her.
Derris vs Gould 540 P.2d. 882	1975	Class action suit. Contact sport (football). Two girls (sisters) wanted to participate on boys team.	In favor of girls. Said the WTAA rule discriminated on the basis of sex.

continue to be so. 1) Which sports are contact sports? In the case of Carnes v. Tennessee, 1976, the court questioned if baseball was a contact sport. A female high school student sought an injunction against a TSAA rule which prohibited mixed participation in contact sports. The court ruled in favor of the student. The court stated that to deny Carnes participation in baseball would result in "irretrievable loss to her". 2) What should be done with the outstanding female athlete that can try out and make the male team even though a reciprocal team is offered for women? 3) On the other hand, what about a male student desiring to try out for a female team (Gomes v. Rhode Island)? Gomes, a male high school student, wanted to try out for the girls' volleyball team. The court ruled in favor of Gomes and stated that the school should either provide volleyball for boys or allow boys on the girls' team.

The second major issue in Title IX was private right of action. HEW was originally granted authority to set up a review procedure for Title IX cases, and therefore provided some remedy for plaintiffs. However, in the Cannon v. University of Chicago case, Cannon was allowed to go directly to court with her claim of sex discrimination. This set a precedent which was later followed in the Alexander v. Yale case. Due to the court's action on these two separate occasions, it was noted that HEW supported the concept of private right of action in Title IX cases. It was felt that if the regulating body was in favor of two separate courses of action then the court would uphold it. Thus, for now, a plaintiff, having suffered discrimination has two courses of action: 1) an HEW investigation, hearing,

and possible termination of federal funds, and 2) a bypass of HEW and direct access to courts for relief.

A third major issue surrounding Title IX, particularly as it affects intercollegiate athletics, was that of whether Title IX was "program specific" or related to the entire University. This question has not directly reached the Supreme Court as of yet. However, the Department of Education believes that Title IX was not intended to be a "program specific" mandate. Though intercollegiate athletics may possibly not be directly funded by federal monies, the athletics were seen as part of the university and should, therefore, have been affected by Title IX.

The final issue discussed is that of Title IX and its regulation of employment practices. The issue has not been decided. In 1979, the U.S. Supreme Court justices refused to review decisions of the 1st, 6th and 8th Circuits, which held that the Education Department had no power under Title IX to regulate school employment practices (School Law News, Jan. 30, 1981). The 9th Circuit handed down a similar ruling regarding the Seattle University in June, 1980 and the 5th Circuit followed in July with Dougherty v. Pat Harris. In all, there appeared to be a consensus in the circuit courts that Title IX had no regulatory power in employment practices.

A recent move by the Education Department seemed to this investigator to be incongruous with this established position of nonexemption of specific parts of funded institutions. When reviewing cases concerning the effects of Title IX on employment, the Education Department favors exemptions for employees not funded by



federal monies. In other words, the Department of Education argued that if an employee was paid directly by federal money, the Title IX should cover that employment. However, employees paid by university monies should not be subject to Title IX influence. On several occasions, HEW has attempted to include employment under Title IX. In four separate cases, the HEW lost their case and three U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals have taken the position that employment is not covered by Title IX. These decisions were affirmed by the U.S. Supreme Court. In light of the consistency of the circuit court decisions, Title IX would appear to have no influence on employment practices. However, in a recent decision in the case of Dougherty v. Pat Harris, (Aug., 1981) the Fifth Circuit Court of Appeals decided that some regulation of employment practices was justified if the employee's salary is defrayed in whole or part by federal funds.

This decision was in accordance with the Department of Education's employment practice via Title IX. The apparent lack of consistency on the part of HEW must again be pointed out. It was dubious whether the intent of, and more specifically, the wording of Title IX addressed employment. Further, if the Department of Education was successful in including employment, then the Department should follow its own precedent and implement the statute without exemption, as it did in denying exemption of revenue sports.

CHAPTER VI  
CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS  
FOR FURTHER STUDY

Summary of Findings

Introduction

With the passage and subsequent implementation of Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1972, numerous opportunities have developed for girls' and women's participation in varsity athletic activities. Unfortunately, the expected concomitant offering of opportunities for women to occupy leadership positions as athletic coaches and administrators has not come to fruition.

The intent of Title IX legislation was to afford girls and women a greater opportunity for participation in educational programs, including athletics. Certainly, this intent has been realized. However, a more subtle and deleterious effect has resulted from Title IX's impact on women's athletics. With the expansion of women's intercollegiate athletics in the number of programs, number of women athletes involved, and amount of money being spent on such programs, increasing number of men rather than women are being attracted to lead such programs. This is the crux of a serious problem.

Several leaders in women's athletics have noted the previously mentioned trend. What was needed, were data either verifying or refuting these claims. The purpose of this investigation was to identify trends in sex ratios of athletic coaches and administrators

in AIAW Division I intercollegiate athletic programs.

### Procedures

The seven sub-problems of this investigation were addressed in four different investigative procedures: 1) a search of the AIAW national records; 2) a national survey of Division I institutions; 3) personal interviews with administrators at Division I institutions; and 4) a summary of legislative proceedings dealing with Title IX and athletics.

AIAW record search. The first procedure used was a search of the AIAW records at the AIAW National Office in Washington, DC and the AIAW Archives at the University of Maryland, College Park, MD. It sought answers to sub-problems 1 through 5 and 7. The first target year, 1971-72 produced little data since it was the founding year for the AIAW. Information for years 1975-76 and 1980-81 was assembled and programmed into the Statistical Analysis System (SAS) computer program.

National survey. The second investigative method used was a National Survey of all AIAW Division I institutions. The survey sought to verify the same sub-problems as did the search of AIAW records. However, it also included: 1) a section with questions dealing with the reasons for the changes in leadership roles of women in athletics, and 2) an open-ended question regarding their overall reaction to changes in coaching and administration of women's athletics since 1970. The information provided from the surveys was also encoded into the SAS computer program.

Interviews. The third investigative procedure involved interviews with delegates to the 1981 AIAW Delegate Assembly held in Detroit, MI in January of 1981 and with personnel at the AIAW National Office in Washington, DC. The purpose of the interview was to determine the delegates' reactions to an observed shift toward male personnel in the coaching and administration of women's athletics.

Review of Title IX court cases. The final investigation was a review of all legislative proceedings that have dealt with Title IX and athletics. The court decisions that have set particular precedence in the realm of athletics were summarized and discussed.

A summary of this study's findings is presented in the order of the sub-problems. Each sub-problem is discussed in terms of all four investigative procedures.

#### Sub-Problem One

The first sub-problem was to determine the number of athletic activities offered for women in 1970-71, 1975-76 and 1980-81. Through the research of AIAW records, it was discovered that there were 760 athletic activities in 1970-71, 1364 in 1975-76 and 1742 in 1980-81. There was an overall increase of 129 percent in the number of activities offered over the entire decade. It was mentioned that the charter member records were not characteristic of all Division I institutions in this survey. In a broader sense, the records available at the AIAW National Office may be biased. It is also possible that these same schools may have larger programs due to the

initiative of faculty and staff. Further, larger programs have statistical advantages by nature of their greater pool of athletic talent. Since appearance at regional and national competition requires additional paperwork, more complete records for these schools may exist.

The National Survey corresponds to this finding. However, it may show a truer sampling of institutions. Of those schools responding to the questionnaire, there was a total of 409 athletic activities with a mean of 2.94 in 1970-71. In 1975-76 there was a total of 759 athletic activities with a mean of 5.46. This is a growth of eighty-six percent (86%) from 1970-71. In 1980-81, there were a total of one thousand athletic activities with a mean of 7.19. This shows a growth of 144 percent for the decade. The growth is larger than that of just the charter AIAW members for reasons given earlier.

#### Sub-Problems Two and Four

Sub-problems two and four were to determine the number and percent of women coaches for women's athletic activities in 1970-71, 1975-76 and 1980-81. Through the research of AIAW records, it was impossible to determine the sex of coaches in 1970-71. In 1975-76, however, there were 1,067 women coaches which was seventy-nine percent (79%). According to AIAW records, in 1980-81 there were 989 women coaches which was 59.8 percent. This shows a seven percent (7%) decrease in the total number of women coaching women's athletic activities. Although this is only a slight decrease, it must be

observed in relation to the large increase in the number of activities offered for women. Since there is a large increase of the number of athletic activities for women and a slight decrease in the number of female coaches, there must also have been an increase in the number of male coaches. From the national records research there were 283 men coaches in 1975-76 which was twenty-one percent (21%). In 1980-81 there were 665 men coaches which was 40.2 percent. This shows a 139 percent increase in the number of men coaches.

From the questionnaire these percentages were even more evident since its findings were over the full decade from 1970-1980. In 1970-71 352 coaches were women which was 91.4 percent, and only thirty-three coaches were men for 8.6 percent. In 1975-76 567 coaches were women which was 75.3 percent and 186 coaches were men which was 24.7 percent. From this data, it shows a sixty-one percent (61%) growth in the number of women coaches and 46.4 percent growth in the number of men coaches.

The questionnaire results show 619 women coaches in 1980-81 and 441 men coaches for the same year. That is, 58.4 percent of the coaches were women and 41.6 percent of the coaches were men. So, for the decade of 1970-1980, the percent of women coaches went from 91.4 to 75.3 to 58.4 percent and the percent of men coaches went from 8.6 to 24.7 to 41.6 percent.

#### Sub-Problems Three and Five

Sub-problems three and five were to determine the number and percent of women as women's athletic administrators (demonstrated

as the Institutional Representative to the AIAW) in 1970-71, 1975-76 and 1980-81.

Through use of the AIAW records and the National Survey, it was determined that the AIAW Institutional Representatives have been and continue to be women. Data from the National Survey show that in 1970-71 10.1 percent of the representatives were male; in 1975-76, 11.1 percent of the representatives were male; and 1980-81, 9.4 percent. It was through the interview investigative techniques that the researcher realized that the AIAW institutional representative was not necessarily a good indication of the women's athletic administrator. In several cases, the institutional representative was the only administrative duty assigned to that person. Also, through interviews at the AIAW National Office, it was learned that since the 1981 AIAW Delegate Assembly and the 1981 NCAA National meetings in January, the office has received increased requests for changes of institutional representatives. The passage of the NCAA governance plan, which provided the means for including women's athletic programs within the NCAA, has apparently boosted these requests to approximately ten to fifteen requests per month to change the institutional representative from a woman to a man.

#### Sub-Problem Six

Sub-problem six was to identify and analyze Title IX cases in athletics. An underlying cause for observed trends in coaching and administering women's athletics was the passage of Title IX and the implementation of its regulations. Due to the courts' interpretations

of Title IX, increased funding was made available for added athletic activities for girls and women. As a result of the court decisions more money was made available for the coaching of the new activities. Finally, because more money and teams required additional coaching and, further, because the courts have decided that Title IX does not regulate employment (i.e., coaches and administrators), the impact of Title IX on women's athletics has been profound.

The cases were grouped under four topics: private right of action, employment, separate-but-equal and revenue producing sports. The findings in each of these areas were not always conclusive. In the area of Title IX and private right of action, it is quite evident that the private right of action is applicable. Employment is most often not included under Title IX. Revenue producing sports are now to be included in the Title IX guidelines. And for now separate-but-equal is a fair way for athletic departments to operate.

#### Sub-Problem Seven

Sub-problem seven was to determine the reasons for the changes in leadership roles of women in athletics. This was done through two separate investigative procedures. The first was the use of open-ended questions on the questionnaire and the second method was interviews with delegates to the AIAW Delegate Assembly in January, 1981. Through the use of both of these methods, one notices that leaders in women's athletics are aware of the trend of men being hired to lead women's athletic programs. The responses from the questionnaire indicated that many people felt lack of education and lack of



experience were reasons to not employ women as coaches and administrators. The interviewed subjects did not agree with the lack of education. In some cases they did agree with the lack of experience as a reason for not hiring women. Both the interview and the questionnaire results agree that administrators must hire the best qualified person for the job.

### Conclusions

The increase in number of men coaching women's intercollegiate Division I athletic activities is increasing more rapidly than the number of women coaching these activities and disproportionately greater than the increase in activities. This trend is best exemplified in the western district of this study. Those institutions in District 3 have a larger percent of men coaching women's teams now than do District 1 or 2. This may mean that the trend may continue to increase throughout the U.S. since the California area has been generally accepted as a trend setter in most areas of our society.

Another conclusion from this investigation involves the effects of Title IX legislation. This legislation has been instrumental in increasing opportunities for girls and women to participate in athletic programs. However, Title IX has not helped women to obtain employment opportunities in coaching and administration of these new athletic programs.

Also apparent in this study was that even though a person has a particular title (i.e., Institutional Representative, Athletic Director), it does not necessarily mean that they have the position's

accompanying power and authority. Therefore, it is difficult to determine exactly who holds the leadership responsibility in women's athletics and their administration.

#### Implications and Recommendations

This investigation has reported evidence that men are assuming the leadership roles of women's athletics at the institution level. There is also evidence that men at the national, governing level are now interested in leading women's athletic programs. Representative Patricia Schroeder (Denver, CO), speaking at the AIAW Delegate Convention in Washington, DC in January, 1980, said "First they tried to eat the sheep, now they've seen the light and want to herd them." She was referring to unsuccessful attempts by the NCAA to kill or weaken Title IX and to the then-pending NCAA plan to sponsor women's championships (Scannell, 1980). That plan has now been realized. Figure 11 on page 115 is a primary example of the NCAA's plan to take over the governing of women's athletics on the national level. They have gone so far as to change their seal to include a woman and a man.

One implication of this influx of men into the governing of women's athletics is how it will affect women athletes. It may become difficult for women athletes to aspire to be coaches and administrators of athletics. The lack of female role models as both coaches and administrators will affect these young women. The cyclic nature of this trend is evident. If young women have no role models in coaching positions, it is unlikely that there will be a continuing

Figure 10

Recently Adopted Changes in The NCAA Seal



NCAA logo



NCAA seal

## *A new NCAA look*

The NCAA has adopted a new seal, picturing both a man and woman, in conjunction with the inclusion of women throughout the NCAA structure.

The seal was created to acknowledge the passage of the NCAA governance plan, which provided the means for including women's athletic programs within the NCAA.

Ken Burdett of the House of Usher, a Kansas City firm, created the seal, which replaces the original one adopted in 1950.

Along with the new seal, the NCAA has adopted a new logo in an effort to make the NCAA letters more readable. The small, interlocking letters will

be replaced with capital letters that are not interlocked.

The original logo was created in 1968 as a result of requests from member institutions for uniform patches. The seal had been used on uniforms prior to 1968, but the NCAA created the logo because it was more easily identified from a distance.

Because of an ever-increasing number of uses for the logo, it was determined that a more readable logo was needed. It is hoped the noninterlocking, capital letters will be more readily identifiable at a distance and will meet the diverse needs of the NCAA logo.

John Muller, a Kansas City graphic artist, created the new logo.

supply of female coaches.

In all, it appears that there is a great deal of frustration associated with hiring decisions in women's athletics. Women are hard pressed in a seemingly "no win" conflict. Certainly, there is an overall desire for high quality athletic performance and competition. The choice, then, is whether to hire a highly qualified male coach or a less qualified female coach. An ideal solution might be a highly qualified female coach, but as the interviewed subjects suggest, she is not as available as her male counterpart. This conflict, coupled with an impending struggle with NCAA coalescence, and inflexible, proscriptive roles for women in society lead many women in athletics to resignation and bitterness. Roslyn Beck, Athletic Director at Long Island University, comments on the frustration felt by many women and speaks for many in "It's a male oriented society. Men hire men; women are up against the wall."

One of the findings of this study was women's preference for more qualified, experienced coaches. This preference took priority over the desire to hire women to coach women. When the foregoing tendency was considered in light of recent changes toward male coaches and administrators, some positive, concrete methods of confronting this trend must be established. If it is desirable to have women as coaches and role models for younger, female athletes, women must insure that training for these prospective coaches takes place.

One way to foster the training and development of prospective female coaches is the development of a model training program. This program could address competencies of coaches, training activities,

and possible issuance of certification for qualified individuals completing the training. The model program should be planned and explained so that interested organizations (AIAW, AAU, NCAA, and organizations representing separate sports) could derive a picture of what qualities and competencies are desired of a coach. Further, institutions of higher education must be able to design an athletic coaching program that is in compliance with or sanctioned by the organization governing women's intercollegiate athletics. Therefore, the model plan must be adaptable to these school's needs. Finally, the the model must serve as a guide to individual coaches that will at least, in part, supervise the training during internship of prospective coaches.

Aside from the actual training of prospective coaches, this model plan also serves a second purpose. It will create an awareness that coaching opportunities for women do exist. Even at the grade school and junior high school level, young girls should know that women are able to coach athletics and coach them well. Certainly a greater number of female coaches would help. Also the existence of a theoretical grounding and background structure for female's training as coaches is desirable.

The AIAW passed a resolution in January, 1981 dedicating itself to stimulation and development of quality leadership for women's intercollegiate athletics.

Resolution #2 - Leadership Opportunities for Women

---

Whereas, AIAW is dedicated to the stimulation and development of quality leadership for women's inter-collegiate athletic programs and the provision of support for increased opportunities for women in inter-collegiate athletics as participants and professions; and

Whereas, the voting representatives to the AIAW are seriously concerned that the merger of men's and women's athletic departments into single administrative units has been a significant factor in the diminution of coaching opportunities for women in women's intercollegiate athletic programs at AIAW member institutions and the accelerating rate of displacement of women in leadership and administrative positions in women's athletic programs; and

Whereas, the diminution of professional opportunities for women in collegiate athletic programs has not been accompanied by a significant increase of professional opportunities for women in men's athletic programs;

Therefore be it resolved, that the AIAW go on record as urging Chief Executive Officers of collegiate institutions to provide active leadership in the implementation of the principles of affirmative action in the evaluation, selection, hiring and promotion of women for positions of administrators and coaches in collegiate athletics programs and to publicly dedicate themselves and their institutions to the achievement of equality of professional opportunity for women in such programs (AIAW, 1981).

This resolution, however, fails to develop a specific plan of action.

This plan is essential and should be implemented soon.

A second implication involves the effects from court action in Title IX cases. It appears likely that women will receive little relief from the courts if employment discrimination suits are filed under the auspices of Title IX. The precedence pointed out in the abstracted cases failed to support any aid from Title IX. Rather, grievances regarding employment will more profitably be petitioned through Title VII. Title VII makes it an unlawful employment practice for an employer to discriminate against employees. Title IX has had a

significant effect on schools offering additional sports for women. However, the legislation does not stipulate nor regulate who should coach or administer these additional sports.

Complicating any implications based on Title IX litigation, is an obvious lack of consistency in the court rulings regarding the effects of Title IX on the issues of exemption, employment and separate-but-equal. In the issue of exemption of certain aspects of athletics, the courts have generally ruled that Title IX is inclusive. Yet, in the Joiner case, the judge ruled that Title IX is program specific. Therefore, only activities and programs receiving federal funds are affected by Title IX. Similarly, in employment the courts have generally ruled that Title IX has no jurisdiction in this area. Recently, however, the U.S. Department of Education and certain public school districts have petitioned for new rulings in this area. The contention is that employees paid directly through federal funds should be covered by Title IX. The parallel with program specificity and exemption has not been overlooked. Finally, the issue of separate-but-equal is fraught with complexity. Certainly, this issue is yet to be resolved. Several of the abstracted cases reinforce the established practice of maintaining sex-separate teams. Yet, if the issue is considered more broadly, there is conflicting precedence in racially oriented cases where separate-but-equal has been judged inherently unequal. In all, the courts have successfully delineated the initial parameters of Title IX's influence, but have, as yet, failed to provide a consistent interpretation of its ramifications.

As stated in the conclusions of this chapter, women's loss of

power in their own athletic arena is no longer speculation. Already, in District 3 of this study, more men are coaching Division I women's athletics than are women. This trend has a counterpart in the administration of women's athletics. Although the percentages of men as directors of women's athletics is not as alarming as coaching percentages, the tide is turning. A confrontation with men's athletics in the form of the NCAA appears eminent. A realistic appraisal of relative bases of power indicates the AIAW is at a serious disadvantage. It appears that the most favorable alternative to AIAW's lack of significance and possible extinction is an equitable merger with the NCAA. For this merger, the AIAW should delimit its requirements and needs for a prospective merger. With a coalesced membership presenting a unified set of requirements, the AIAW stands a better chance of seeing these needs reflected in an eventual merger.

Several female and male coaches of women's athletics, as well as women's athletic directors of both sexes, have risen in support of an NCAA leadership for women's athletics. This support is not the same as an AIAW-led approach to merger with the NCAA. In fact, small factions independently joining the NCAA leadership for women seriously undermines the eventual success of a merger. The obvious implication is an immediate AIAW task force investigating the issues related to a successful merger with the NCAA.

Another implication that can be drawn from this study is the need for inservice training of coaches. This need was mentioned in the preceding discussion of development of a model training program



for coaches of women's athletics. Related to this program, is the active promotion of coaching courses, sequences and certification at colleges and universities. Further, following affirmative action guidelines, preference for women as students in these programs can be established. A related issue is that of requiring certification for coaches of high school athletics. These certification programs, sanctioned by state departments of education, could also promote females as participants.

This study should be replicated in five or ten years to determine possible changes that may occur. Subsequent changes in the status of women as coaches and leaders in women's athletics should be documented.

A further recommendation resulting from this study is to limit and change the definition of administrators for women's athletics. A subsequent study may try to ascertain a job description for administrators of women's athletics. Specific job-related duties and behaviors could be listed and respondents asked to check those for which they are responsible. Duties may include budgetary responsibilities, hiring, scheduling and scholarship issues, among others.

Another recommendation for a replication of this study is to change the population. It is possible that greatly different results would be obtained from Division 3 schools with less competitive emphasis. Several factors characteristic of Division 3 athletics may affect the results. Among these factors are: 1) the presence of volunteer coaches; 2) less intense competition, 3) less pressure

for athletes and coaches; 4) seasonal rather than year long coaching commitments; and 5) absence of scholarship athletes. The effect of single and multiple factors from this list would seemingly cause changes in the study's results.

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APPENDIX A  
SURVEY MATERIALS

November 25, 1980

Virginia  
University

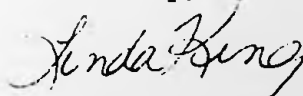
Dear

As part of my Doctoral Dissertation in Higher Education Administration, I am conducting a survey of AIAW Division I institutions to obtain information concerning the employment trends of males and females in the coaching and administration of women's intercollegiate athletic programs. The purpose of the investigation is to document, for the benefit of the AIAW, those coaching and administrative changes that have occurred in Division I intercollegiate athletics since 1970.

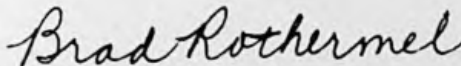
If you consent to participate in this investigation, please use the enclosed envelope to return the questionnaire by December 10, 1980. For the purpose of this investigation, definition of an athletic activity is competition on the intercollegiate level. This eliminates club or intramural activities. If you would like to obtain a copy of the results, simply circle the number in the upper right hand corner of the questionnaire. The anonymity of your institution will be protected by the destruction of the numbering system after the data is tabulated.

Thank you for your time and cooperation.

Sincerely,



Linda King  
Cross Country,  
Track & Field Coach



Dr. Brad Rothermel  
Associate Athletic Director

LK:tlc

Enclosure

General Information

1. Circle the enrollment category of your institution:  
Less than 10,000; 10,000-14,999; 15,000-19,999; 20,000 +
2. Year Women's Intercollegiate Program was established:  
\_\_\_\_\_
3. Number of Women's athletic activities in AIAW Division I in 1980:  
\_\_\_\_\_

Please indicate the following:

1. Number of athletic teams offered for women in:  
1970-71 \_\_\_\_\_  
1975-76 \_\_\_\_\_  
1980-81 \_\_\_\_\_
2. Number of women coaching the women's teams in:  
1970-71 \_\_\_\_\_  
1975-76 \_\_\_\_\_  
1980-81 \_\_\_\_\_
3. Number of men coaching the women's teams in:  
1970-71 \_\_\_\_\_  
1975-76 \_\_\_\_\_  
1980-81 \_\_\_\_\_
4. Circle the sex of the AIAW Institutional Representative in:  
1970-71 male/female; 1975-76 male/female; 1980-81 male/female
5. If any women's teams coaching positions shifted from male to female, please indicate the primary reason(s).
  - a. Student need
  - b. HEW action (either actual or threat)
  - c. Legal action (actual or threat)
  - d. Increase in dollars for the position
  - e. Best qualified in education
  - f. Best qualified in experience
  - g. Change from intramural or club sport to athletics
  - h. Other \_\_\_\_\_

6. If any women's teams coaching positions shifted from female to male, please indicate the primary reason(s):
- Student need
  - HEW action (either actual or threat)
  - Legal action (actual or threat)
  - Increase in dollars for the position
  - Best qualified in education
  - Best qualified in experience
  - Change from intramural or club sport to athletics
  - Other \_\_\_\_\_
- 
7. If any administration position (noted on next page) shifted from male to female, please indicate the primary reason(s):
- Student need
  - HEW action (either actual or threat)
  - Legal action (actual or threat)
  - Increase in dollars for the position
  - Best qualified in education
  - Best qualified in experience
  - Change from intramural or club sports to athletics
  - Other \_\_\_\_\_
- 
8. If any administration position shifted from female to male, please indicate the primary reason(s):
- Student need
  - HEW action (either actual or threat)
  - Legal action (either actual or threat)
  - Increase in dollars for the position
  - Best qualified in education
  - Best qualified in experience
  - Change from intramural or club sports to athletics
  - Other \_\_\_\_\_
- 
9. Please state your overall reaction to those changes in coaching and administration of women's athletics that have occurred since 1970:

Please circle M for male, F for female and NP for no position for the following positions in each of three years indicated:

<u>Position</u>	<u>1970-71</u>			<u>1975-76</u>			<u>1980-81</u>		
1. Athletic Director	M	F	NP	M	F	NP	M	F	NP
2. Assistant AD	M	F	NP	M	F	NP	M	F	NP
3. Assistant AD	M	F	NP	M	F	NP	M	F	NP
4. Assistant AD	M	F	NP	M	F	NP	M	F	NP
5. Assistant AD	M	F	NP	M	F	NP	M	F	NP
6. Associate AD	M	F	NP	M	F	NP	M	F	NP
7. Associate AD	M	F	NP	M	F	NP	M	F	NP
8. Associate AD	M	F	NP	M	F	NP	M	F	NP
9. Associate AD	M	F	NP	M	F	NP	M	F	NP
10. Academic Counselor	M	F	NP	M	F	NP	M	F	NP
11. Scholarship Fund Raiser	M	F	NP	M	F	NP	M	F	NP
12. Budget Director	M	F	NP	M	F	NP	M	F	NP
13. Game Operations Director	M	F	NP	M	F	NP	M	F	NP
14. Facilities Coordinator	M	F	NP	M	F	NP	M	F	NP
15. Recruiting Coordinator	M	F	NP	M	F	NP	M	F	NP
16. Sports Information	M	F	NP	M	F	NP	M	F	NP

<u>Position</u>	<u>1970-71</u>			<u>1975-76</u>			<u>1980-81</u>		
17. Equipment Manager	M	F	NP	M	F	NP	M	F	NP
18. Athletic Trainer	M	F	NP	M	F	NP	M	F	NP
19. AIAW Representative	M	F	NP	M	F	NP	M	F	NP
20. Other Administrative Staff	M	F	NP	M	F	NP	M	F	NP
21. Other	M	F	NP	M	F	NP	M	F	NP

Please return to:

Ms. Linda King  
 Women's Cross Country/Track Coach  
 P.O. Box 877  
 West Virginia University  
 Morgantown, WV 26505

Your cooperation is appreciated.

rginia  
ity

IMPORTANT REMINDER

\*\*\*\*\*

During the month of December you were mailed a survey that requested information regarding coaching and administration of women's athletics at your institution. Please take this opportunity to fill out the survey. The information is vital to both governance of women's athletics and my degree program. I'm anxious to tabulate and share these findings.

Immediate response to and mailing of this "last chance" survey will insure an accurate reporting of division I women's intercollegiate athletics.

Thank you again!

Linda King  
Women's Track and Field Coach  
West Virginia University

LK:jf

Enclosure

APPENDIX B  
INTERVIEW GUIDE



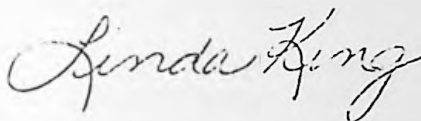
Title IX and Personnel Change in  
Women's Intercollegiate Athletics

As a follow-up to a survey you recently completed, I am hoping to talk with you during the AIAW Delegate Assembly. This short interview is a second phase of data collection for my doctoral dissertation. It is intended to give you an opportunity to respond to the survey issues on a more specific level.

Your insights and observations regarding possible trends in personnel changes are essential for a complete picture of this complex issue.

Please contact me in Room            if you have time to help me with this project.

Thank you,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Linda King". The signature is fluid and elegant, with the first letters of "Linda" and "King" being capitalized and prominent.

Linda King  
T & F, Cross Country Coach  
West Virginia University

### Interview Guide

The following is a report of the protocol and techniques used to insure regular and unbiased data collection during the personal interviews. The interviews were conducted with institutional representatives to the AIAW National Delegate Assembly, which convened in Detroit during January of 1981. Twenty subjects were selected from the delegates which responded to a mimeographed message.

The interviews were conducted individually and conversations were tape recorded for later transcription. If a particular delegate was not the athletic director that had completed the previously mailed survey background was necessary and developed through the following questions:

1. How many women's athletic activities are offered at your institution?
2. Of those activities, how many are coached by men?
3. How does the ratio of male and female coaches for women's sports at your school compare with others you compete with?
4. Why do institutions, or in many cases, you, yourself, hire men to coach women's athletic activities?
5. What are your personal reactions to the observable trend and what do you project as outcomes for this trend?
6. As athletic director, are you responsible for the entire women's program?

If the subject interviewed had previously answered the mailed questionnaire (November, 1980), less development of background was necessary. A brief description of the survey and its purposes was

brought to the subjects attention. Without exception, their recall was sufficient to continue discussion and determine why the felt men had been hired in preference to women.

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEWED SUBJECTS

## INTERVIEWED SUBJECTS

Delegates to the AIAW Delegate Assembly

Baker, Marrily - Princeton University Athletic Director  
Beck, Roslyn - Long Island University Athletic Director  
Blazina, Carol - SUNY (Oneonta) Athletic Director  
Brylinsky, Jody - University of Wisconsin (Superior) Athletic Director  
Cloninger, Mary Ellen - University of Wyoming Athletic Director  
Dolan, Pat - Ferris State College Basketball Coach  
Frailey, Robert - The American University Athletic Director  
Gelish, Marilyn - Connecticut College AIAW Representative  
Gardner, Fern - University of Utah Athletic Director  
Herndon, Daisy - Mansfield State AIAW Representative  
Hoyles, Christine - Western Michigan Associate Athletic Director  
Kelly, Barbara - University of Virginia Athletic Director  
Lauder, Sue - Hartwick College Athletic Director  
Leshinsky, Barbara - Queens Athletic Director  
Lopiano, Donna - University of Texas (Austin) Athletic Director  
Poolman, Les - Mt. Holyoke College Athletic Director  
Pruitt, Peggy - Ohio University Athletic Director  
Saunders, Kit - University of Wisconsin (Madison) Athletic Director  
Stocker, Janice - Commissioner of Intercollegiate Athletics for  
Women Wisconsin System  
Tallman, Jean - Davis and Elkins Athletic Director  
Weeden, Sandy - SUNY (Stonybrook) Athletic Director

Personnel at the AIAW National Office

Dixon, Linda - Assistant to the Executive Director  
Hult, Joan - Director of the AIAW National Archives  
Jackson, Cindy - Administrative Accountant  
Uhlir, Ann - Executive Director

APPENDIX D  
TITLE IX CASE ABSTRACTS

A. Identification of the Case

Alexander vs Yale University  
459 F. Supp. 1 (D. Connecticut, 1977)

B. Facts of the Case

The plaintiff, Alexander, is a female student who allegedly received a poor grade in a course in her major field of study, due to her rejection of a male professor's sexual demand.

C. Issues

Was Title IX of the Educational Amendment of 1972 designed to protect the plaintiff, as a member of a class, and also was she entitled to bring private right of action under Title IX against the unvversity seeking redress for sex discrimination?

D. Decision of the Court

Yes

E. Reasoning of the Court

A private right of action is a direct remedy in a court of law for one who has been harmed. Before the Cannon case, the lower courts had concluded that Congress intended the remedy under Title IX to be a procedure set up by HEW. The Cannon case points out that there are two procedures available to follow in a Title IX, sex discrimination case. The second, a by pass of HEW and the individual goes directly to court to seek relief has been cited and upheld in Alexander vs Yale.

A. Identification of the Case

Brenden vs Independent School District 742  
447 F.2d 922

B. Facts of the Case

Two exceptionally skilled girls requested permission to play on the boy's team for tennis, cross country, and cross country skiing. There were no such teams for girls. The defendants argued that the rule prohibiting mixed competition was valid. They pointed out the physiological factors of men being taller, stronger and other factors which increase their ability.

C. Issue

Can girls of exceptional ability play on boys teams regardless of the existence of a separate team for girls?

D. Decision of the Court

Yes

E. Reasoning of the Court

Girls' outstanding ability was a real factor in the decision. The court implied favoring separate programs, but stated that these girls were exceptional and could compete on a mixed team.



A. Identification of the Case

Brown vs Board of Education of Topeka, Shawnee County, Kansas,  
et al.  
347 US 483 (1954)

B. Facts of the Case

Black children, of elementary school age, were denied admission to state public schools attended by white children under a Kansas General Statute requiring or permitting segregation according to race. The plaintiffs brought a suit against the defendants, contesting the refusal of admissions citing that they had been discriminated against because of race and had been denied equal protection under the Fourteenth Amendment of the United States Constitution.

The U.S. District Court, District of Kansas found for the defendants, citing that the schools (black and white) involved had been equalized, or were being equalized, with respect to buildings, curricula, qualifications and salaries of teachers, and other tangible factors.

C. Issue

Whether the plaintiffs had been denied equal protection under the Fourteenth Amendment by the refusal of the Board of Education of Topeka to admit them to previously all-white schools.

D. Decision of the Court

Yes, the plaintiffs had been denied equal protection of the law in violation of the Fourteenth Amendment.

E. Reasoning of the Court

The unanimous decision of The Supreme Court stated that the "separate but equal" doctrine under which equality of treatment is accorded by providing blacks and whites substantially equal, though separate, facilities, had no place in the field of public education. To separate black children from white children of similar age and qualification solely because of their race, generated a feeling of inferiority as to their status in the community and might affect their hearts and minds in a way unlikely ever to be undone.

A. Identification of the Case

Cannon vs University of Chicago  
559 F. 2d. 1063 (75h Cir, 1977)

B. Facts of the Case

Cannon, plaintiff, was denied admission to medical schools of two private colleges in Illinois. She brought civil rights suit charging the school with sex discrimination.

C. Issue

The plaintiffs case was based on the issue that she was discriminated against on the basis of her sex and age. Also, the plaintiff maintains that Title IX provides for her private right of action in relationship to the age and sex discrimination.

D. Decision of the Court

Yes

E. Reasoning of the Court

The court concludes that there are two procedures available to follow in a Title IX sex discrimination case. The first is an HEW investigation, hearing and possible cut off of federal funds. The second is a by-pass of HEW and the individual goes directly to court to seek relief. Cannon was allowed to go to court with her claim and thus, is the landmark case for the private right of action under Title IX.

A. Identification of the Case

Bucha vs Illinois  
351 F. Supp. 69 (N.D. Ill., 1972)

B. Facts of the Case

Plaintiffs are two high school girls who were excluded from trying out and participating on the school's swimming team, solely because of their sex. Also included in the case is a class action by female high school students that challenges the implementation of limitations on girl's athletic contests that were not applicable to boy's teams.

C. Issues

Can girls participate on the same team as the boys? And, can the school have separate rules for the girl's team than it does for the boy's team.

D. Decision of the Court

No, Yes

E. Reasoning of the Court

Girls cannot be on the boys team since a team is provided for the girls. Physical and psychological differences between male and female athletes were a constitutionally sufficient reason for prohibiting athletic interscholastic competition between high school boys and girls and also supported rationality of high school's association's decision to have different programs and rules for boy's and girl's competition.

A. Identification of the Case

Gomes vs Rhode Island  
469 F. Supp. 659 (D, Rhode Island, 1979)

B. Facts of the Case

Donald Gomes, male high school student, wants to play volleyball. He did so on an all-boys team in Harrisburg, PA. At Rogers High School in Rhode Island the team is for girls only. The high school principal says that his interest is unique and there was not sufficient interest among other boys to field a male volleyball team.

C. Issue

Can boys play on the girl's team when no such team exists for boys?

D. Decision of the Court

Yes

E. Reasoning of the Court

Either the school should provide volleyball for boys or allow boys on the girl's team.

A. Identification of the Case

Junior College District of St. Louis vs Califano  
597 F. 2d. 119 (8th Cir, 1979)

B. Facts of the Case

An employee of the plaintiff brought suit under Title IX, alleging that she had been discriminated against on the basis of her sex. HEW investigated the claim, found in favor of the employee, and demanded that the plaintiff participate in a conciliation effort or have its federal funds cut off. Alleging that HEW lacked jurisdiction of the charge filed, the plaintiff withdrew from arbitration and sued for declaratory and injunctive relief.

C. Issue

Does the Department of HEW have statutory authority, under Title IX to regulate employment discrimination by covered employees?

D. Decision of the Court

No

E. Reasoning of the Court

The court found that Title IX's prohibition of sex discrimination applied only to "participants or beneficiaries" of educational programs receiving federal financial assistance, and not to employees of the educational institutions. It thus ruled that since no students had been discriminated against in this case, Title IX was applicable and no cut off of funds would be justified.

The courts have held with virtual unanimity that Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 does not cover employment discrimination.

HEW has continued to try to include employment, however the courts reject HEW jurisdiction and Title IX's application to employment.

In the same enactment as Title IX, Congress extended Title VII to educational institutions. They (Congress) did not (would not) create simultaneously two separate sets of laws, regulations and administrations for employment discrimination by educational institutions.

A. Identification of the Case

Reed vs Nebraska Activity Association  
341 F. Supp. 258 (D, Nebraska, 1972)

B. Facts of the Case

Female plaintiff, Debbie Reed, wants to play golf on the boys high school interscholastic golf team. There is no golf team for girls at Norfolk High School, Nebraska. She was denied the right to try out because it was contrary to the rules of the Nebraska School Activities Association. The exact wording of the prohibitory rule is:

"Girls and boys may not compete on the same athletic team, and girls and boys may not compete against each other."

C. Issues

Can boys and girls compete against each other in a non contact sport (golf)? If the program is of value to boys, is it of no value for girls?

D. Decision of the Court

Yes, she may play.

E. Reasoning of the Court

When there is no team for girls, there is justification for sex discrimination argument against Nebraska.



A. Identification of the Case

Romeo Community Schools vs Department of HEW  
438 F. Supp. 1021 (E.D. Michigan, S.D., 1977)

B. Facts of the Case

The complainant, a counselor in the Romeo school system, alleged sex discrimination in the systems pregnancy leave employment policy. The collective bargaining agreement with faculty employees' bargaining agent specifically provided that pregnancy and maternity leave should not be treated equally with sickness and disability leave. Pursuant to Title IX, HEW cited Romeo for non-compliance with 86.57. In a cross-complaint in district court, Romeo alleged that Title IX did not authorize HEW to issue regulations to forbid employment discrimination in federal funded education institutions, because it prohibits such discrimination only against students.

C. Issue

Does HEW have authority, under Title IX, to take punitive action with respect to an educational institution's receipt of federal funds on the basis of alleged sex discrimination in employment on the part of that institution?

D. Decision of the Court

The court upheld Romeo's contention that Title IX is a prohibition against sex discrimination against student beneficiaries only. Title IX is specifically that discrimination which results in exclusion from, denial of benefits to, or otherwise discriminate on

the basis of sex, under an educational program or activity receiving federal financial assistance.

Title VII of Civil Rights Act of 1964 and The Equal Pay Act deal with employment.

APPENDIX E  
INSTITUTIONS SURVEYED

## INSTITUTIONS SURVEYED

Alelphi University  
Alabama University at Huntsville  
University of Alabama at Birmingham  
University of Alabama at University  
University of Alaska at Anchorage  
Albany State College  
Alcorn State University  
Appalachian State University  
Arizona State University  
University of Arizona  
University of Arkansas at Fayetteville  
Auburn University  
Austin Peay State University  
Ball State University  
Barnard College Columbia University  
Baylor University  
Boise State University  
Boston University  
Bowling Green State University  
Bridgewater State College  
Brigham Young University  
Brown University  
California Polytech State University  
California State University at Fresno  
California State University at Fullerton  
California State University at Long Beach  
University of California at Berkeley  
University of California at Irvine  
University of California at Los Angeles  
University of California at Santa Barbara  
Central Michigan University  
Central Missouri State University  
Cheyney State College  
University of Cincinnati  
Clemson University  
Cleveland State University  
Colorado State University  
University of Colorado  
University of Connecticut  
Cornell University  
Creighton University  
Dartmouth College  
Davis and Elkins College  
DePaul University  
University of Delaware  
Delta State University

## INSTITUTIONS SURVEYED (CONTINUED)

University of Detroit  
Dillard University  
University of District of Columbia  
Drake University  
Duke University  
East Carolina University  
East Tennessee State University  
Eastern Kentucky University  
Eastern Michigan University  
Eastern Washington University  
Edinboro State College  
Fairleigh Dickinson University  
Florida Atlantic University  
Florida International University  
Florida State University  
University of Florida  
Fordham University  
Furman University  
George Washington University  
Georgetown University  
Georgia Institute of Technology  
Georgia Southern College  
Georgia State University  
University of Georgia  
Grambling State University  
Harvard University  
University of Hawaii at Manoa  
Hofstra University  
Houston Baptist University  
University of Houston  
Howard University  
Idaho State University  
Illinois State University  
University of Illinois at Chicago Circle  
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign  
Indiana State University  
Indiana University  
University of Iowa  
Jackson State University  
Jacksonville State University  
James Madison University  
Kansas State University  
University of Kansas  
Kent State University  
University of Kentucky  
La Salle College  
Lakeland Community College

## INSTITUTIONS SURVEYED (CONTINUED)

Lamar University  
Long Island University  
Longwood College  
Louisiana State University  
Louisiana Tech University  
University of Louisville  
University of Maine at Orono  
Manhattan College  
Marist College  
Marshall University  
University of Maryland at College Park  
University of Massachusetts  
McNeese State University  
Memphis State University  
Mercer University in Macon  
Miami University  
University of Miami  
Michigan State University  
University of Michigan at Ann Arbor  
Middle Tennessee State University  
University of Minnesota at Minneapolis  
Mississippi College  
Mississippi State University  
Mississippi University for Women  
University of Mississippi  
University of Missouri at Columbia  
Monmouth College  
Montana State University  
University of Montana  
Montclair State College  
Morehead State University  
Morgan State University  
Murray State University  
University of Nebraska at Lincoln  
University of Nevada at Las Vegas  
University of New Hampshire  
New Mexico State University  
University of New Mexico  
University of New Orleans  
New York Institute of Technology  
Newcomb College, Tulane University  
Nicholls State University  
North Carolina State University  
University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill  
North Texas State University  
Northeast Louisiana University  
Northeastern University

## INSTITUTIONS SURVEYED (CONTINUED)

Northern Arizona University  
University of Northern Colorado  
Northern Illinois University  
Northern Kentucky University  
Northwest Missouri State University  
Northwestern State University of Louisiana  
Northwestern University  
University of Notre Dame  
Oakland University  
Ohio State University  
Ohio University  
Oklahoma City University  
Oklahoma State University  
Old Dominion University  
Oral Roberts University  
Oregon State University  
University of Oregon  
University of the Pacific  
Pennsylvania State University  
University of Pennsylvania  
Pepperdine University  
Pittsburg State University  
University of Pittsburgh  
Portland State University  
Princeton University  
Providence College  
Purdue University  
Queens College  
University of Rhode Island  
Rice University  
Rollins College  
Rutgers State University of New Jersey  
Sam Houston State University  
San Diego State University  
University of San Diego  
University of San Francisco  
San Jose State University  
University of Santa Clara  
Seton Hall University  
University of South Alabama  
University of South Carolina at Columbia  
University of South Dakota  
University of South Florida  
Southeastern Louisiana University  
University of Southern California  
Southern Connecticut State College

## INSTITUTIONS SURVEYED (CONTINUED)

Southern Illinois at Carbondale  
Southern Methodist University  
University of Southern Mississippi  
Southern University  
Southwest Missouri State University  
University of Southwestern Louisiana  
Springfield College  
St. Louis University  
St. Johns University  
St. Josephs University  
Stanford University  
Stephen F Austin State University  
Stephens College  
Syracuse University  
Temple University  
Tennessee State University  
Tennessee Technological University  
University of Tennessee at Chattanooga  
University of Tennessee at Knoxville  
University of Tennessee at Martin  
Texas A&M University  
Texas Christian University  
Texas Southern University  
Texas Tech University  
Texas Womens University  
University of Texas at Arlington  
University of Texas at Austin  
University of Texas at El Paso  
University of Texas at Odessa  
The American University  
University of Toledo  
Trinity University  
University of Tulsa  
U.S. Military Academy  
Ursinus College  
U.S. International University  
Utah State University  
University of Utah  
Valdosta State College  
Vanderbilt University  
University of Vermont  
Villanova University  
Virginia Tech  
Virginia Union University  
University of Virginia  
Wake Forest University



## INSTITUTIONS SURVEYED (CONCLUDED)

Washington State University  
University of Washington  
Wayland Baptist College  
Wayne State University  
Weber State College  
West Chester State College  
West Texas State University  
West Virginia University  
Western Illinois University  
Western Kentucky University  
Western Michigan University  
Wichita State University  
University of Wisconsin at Madison  
University of Wyoming  
Xavier University of Louisiana  
Yale University  
Youngstown State University

APPENDIX F

AIAW REGIONAL DIVISIONS

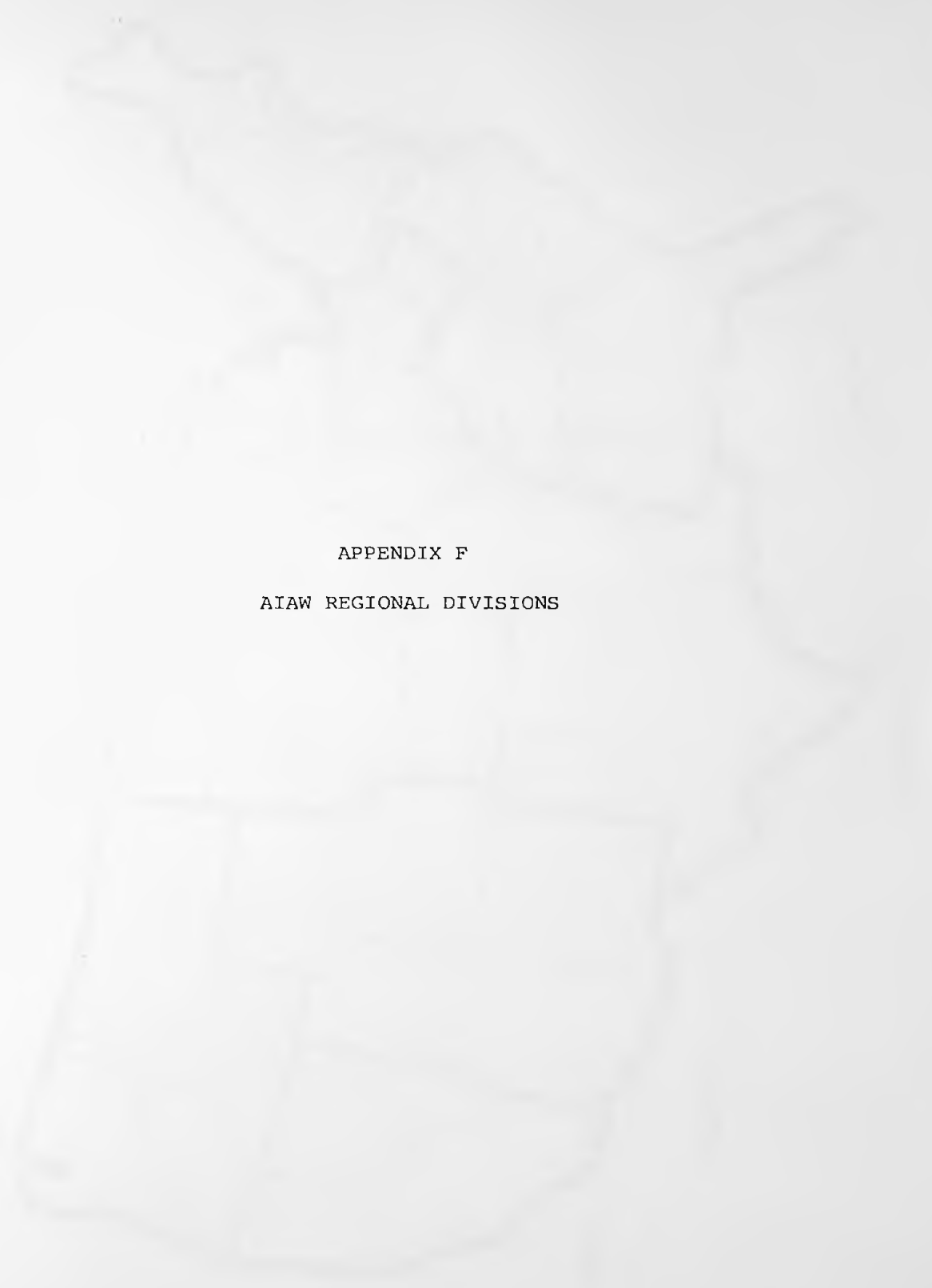
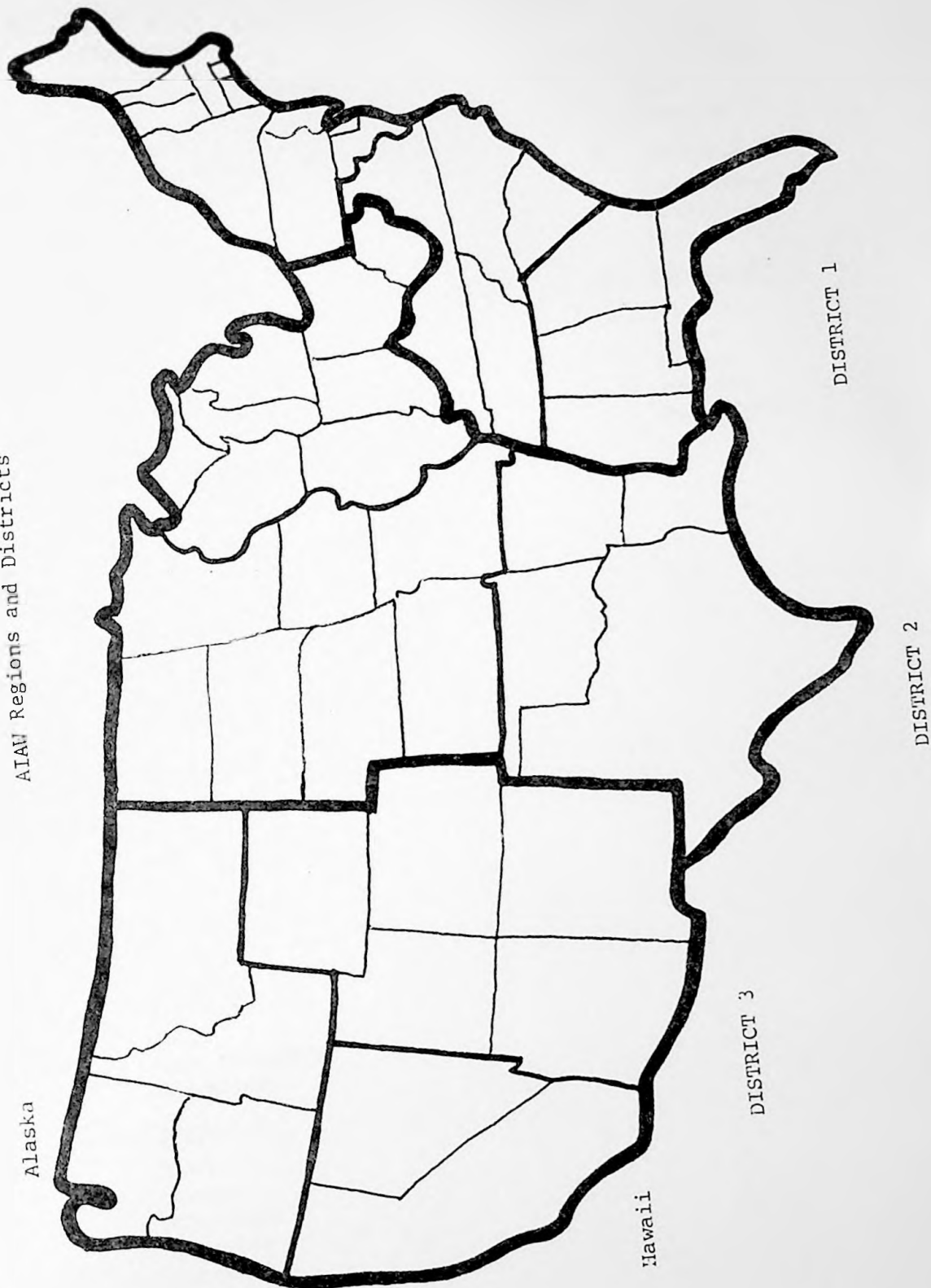


Figure 11  
ATAW Regions and Districts



## I. DISTRICT 1

A. Region 1

Connecticut  
 Delaware  
 District of Columbia  
 Maine  
 Maryland  
 Massachusetts  
 New Hampshire  
 New Jersey  
 New York  
 Pennsylvania  
 Rhode Island  
 Vermont

B. Region 2

Kentucky  
 North Carolina  
 Tennessee  
 South Carolina  
 Virginia

C. Region 3

Alabama  
 Florida  
 Georgia  
 Mississippi

## II. DISTRICT 2

A. Region 4

Arkansas  
 Oklahoma  
 Louisiana  
 Texas

B. Region 5

Illinois  
 Indiana  
 Michigan  
 Ohio  
 West Virginia  
 Wisconsin

C. Region 6

Iowa  
 Kansas  
 Minnesota  
 Missouri  
 Nebraska  
 North Dakota  
 South Dakota

## III. DISTRICT 3

A. Region 7

Arizona  
 Colorado  
 New Mexico  
 Utah  
 Wyoming

B. Region 8

California  
 Hawaii  
 Nevada

C. Region 9

Alaska  
 Idaho  
 Oregon  
 Montana  
 Washington

APPENDIX G

AIAW CHARTER MEMBERS INCLUDED IN THIS STUDY

## AIAW DIVISION I CHARTER MEMBERS

University of Alaska at Anchorage  
Appalachian State University  
Arizona State University  
University of Arizona  
Auburn University  
Ball State University  
Bridgewater State College  
Brigham Young University  
Brown University  
California State University at Fullerton  
California State University at Long Beach  
University of California at Irvine  
Central Michigan University  
Central Missouri State University  
Colorado State University  
University of Colorado  
Cornell University  
Duke University  
East Carolina University  
Eastern Kentucky University  
Eastern Washington University  
Florida State University  
University of Florida  
George Washington University  
Georgetown University  
University of Georgia  
Hofstra University  
University of Houston  
Illinois State University  
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign  
Indiana State University  
Indiana University  
Iowa State University  
University of Iowa  
University of Kansas  
Kent State University  
University of Kentucky  
Lamar University  
University of Louisville  
University of Maine at Orono  
Marshall University  
University of Maryland at College Park  
University of Massachusetts  
Michigan State University  
University of Minnesota at Minneapolis  
University of Missouri at Columbia

## AIAW DIVISION I CHARTER MEMBERS (CONCLUDED)

Monmouth College  
Morgan State University  
University of Nebraska at Lincoln  
University of Nevada at Las Vegas  
University of New Mexico  
Newcomb College, Tulane University  
University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill  
North Texas State University  
Northeastern University  
University of Northern Colorado  
Northern Illinois University  
Ohio State University  
Ohio University  
Oklahoma State University  
Old Dominion University  
Oregon State University  
University of Oregon  
Pennsylvania State University  
University of Pittsburgh  
Portland State University  
Princeton University  
Purdue University  
Queens College  
San Diego State University  
San Jose State University  
University of Santa Clara  
University of Southern California  
Southern Illinois at Carbondale  
Springfield College  
Stephen F Austin State University  
Syracuse University  
Temple University  
University of Tennessee at Knoxville  
Texas Christian University  
Texas Tech University  
Texas Womens University  
Utah State University  
University of Virginia  
Washington State University  
University of Washington  
Weber State College  
West Chester State College  
Western Illinois University  
Western Michigan University  
Wichita State University  
University of Wisconsin at Madison  
University of Wyoming  
Yale University

## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this investigation was to identify and analyze trends in Title IX's impact and sex ratios of athletic coaches and administrators in AIAW Division I intercollegiate athletic programs. Institutions offering at least one Division I intercollegiate athletic program, as defined by the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW), were chosen as a population. The following problems were investigated for the institutions chosen.

1. The number of women's athletic activities in 1970-71, 1975-76 and 1980-81.
2. The number and percent of women coaching women's athletics in 1970-71, 1975-76 and 1980-81.
3. The number and percent of women as athletic administrators in 1970-71, 1975-76 and 1980-81.
4. The possible reasons for any observed changes.
5. The effects of Title IX court cases on women's athletics.

This study investigated the research problems using four formats. They were: 1) a search of AIAW records for women's intercollegiate athletics, 2) a national survey of all AIAW Division I institutions, 3) personal interviews with executive officers at the AIAW National Office, and with delegates at the 1981 AIAW Delegate Assembly in Detroit, Michigan and 4) a review and abstract of all court cases of Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1972 as it relates to athletics. The first two investigative procedures sought to identify trends in sex ratio changes, which were addressed in problems 1, 2



and 3. The third procedure, the interviews, was to answer problem 4, the possible reasons for any observed changes. The fourth procedure, a Title IX compendium, was aimed at problem number 5.

Results of the investigation showed a large increase in the number of athletic activities offered for women throughout the decade. There were also increases in the number of women coaches and administrators for these programs. However, the increase in the number of men coaching and administering women's programs was much more dramatic.

The percentages of male and female coaches for women's intercollegiate athletics throughout the decade depicts the trend:

	<u>1970-71</u>	<u>1975-76</u>	<u>1980-81</u>
Male Coaches	8.6%	24.7%	41.6%
Female Coaches	91.4%	75.3%	58.4%

The number of women coaching women's teams continues to increase. However, there is a noticeable trend toward more men coaching. In fact in District 3 of the study, the West Coast, there are already more men coaching intercollegiate Division I athletic activities (39.1% women and 60.9% men) than women.

Implications of this study are that men are being selected to coach many of the new women's teams. Several problems must be addressed: 1) role models, 2) experience as assistant coaches and 3) training for coaches.

## VITA

Linda Toutant King

## PERSONAL:

Date and Place of Birth: July 14, 1949, Charlotte, MI

## EDUCATION:

1967 Charlotte High School, Charlotte, MI  
1971 Central Michigan University, Mt. Pleasant, MI  
B.S. in Education (Physical Education)  
1976 Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, MI  
M.A. (Physical Education - Coaching Emphasis)

## PROFESSIONAL:

1972-76 Coloma Public Schools, Coloma, MI  
Teacher - Physical Education  
Coach - Track & Field and Basketball  
1976-77 Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, MI  
Graduate Assistant - Physical Education  
Assistant Coach - Track & Field and Gymnastics  
1977- West Virginia University, Morgantown, WV  
School of Physical Education, Instructor  
Department of Intercollegiate Athletics  
Swimming Coach - 1977-78  
Track & Field Coach - 1977-present.

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John Andes, Ed.D., Chairman

April 27, 1987  
Date