An Investigation of the Relationships between Various Institutional Variables and Compliance with Title IX in Intercollegiate Athletics

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AN INVESTIGATION OF THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN VARIOUS
INSTITUTIONAL VARIABLES AND COMPLIANCE WITH
TITLE IX IN INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS

by

Richard C. Cadigan

A Dissertation
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of the
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To my parents, my wife, Elaine, and my children, Tommy and Christine--I love you--and can never fully repay your patience, love, and understanding.

Richard C. Cadigan
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Western Michigan University

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

The first chapter of the study provides the necessary information, concerning Title IX, in order to place the stated problem and the rationale for the study into perspective. The rationale for the study and the hypotheses are developed in this chapter through an historical accounting of how Title IX came to be, how far it has progressed, and what significance the study has for Title IX. Lastly, the organization of the study provides a brief description of the ensuing chapters.

Introduction

Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1972 states that:

No person 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. (Federal Register, 1975, p. 24128)

The regulation to implement Title IX became effective July 21, 1975, but allowed for a 3-year adjustment period for program evaluation and work toward full compliance with Title IX (Federal Register, 1975, p. 24128). By the legislated July 1978 deadline, all institutions of higher education were to have been in compliance with the provisions of the law. Failure to comply with Title IX could have resulted in the loss of all federal financial assistance to the institution.
Caspar Weinberger (1975), the former Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare (HEW), described Title IX as a "landmark point in the Nation's history" (p. 1). Secretary Weinberger referred to the 10,000 public comments on Title IX, received during the June through October 1974 period, as making it amply clear that there was no way to draft regulations that would please all of the people all of the time. Conceding the fact that athletics were the "most controversial issue," Secretary Weinberger (1975) modified the proposed regulation for equal opportunity in athletics by (a) extending the compliance deadlines, (b) exempting contact sports from compliance, and (c) allowing for flexibility in the interpretation. In spite of these considerations, Secretary Weinberger held to the fundamental interpretation that athletics are a part of the educational process; therefore, schools must, indeed, provide equal opportunities for both sexes to participate in intramural, interscholastic, and intercollegiate athletics.

Fields (1975) reported that Secretary Weinberger had strong misgivings about the rules of Title IX as they were originally proposed. In a letter to President Ford, the Secretary criticized the "handiwork" of the Congress in enacting the anti-sex-bias law "with little legislative history, debate, or I'm afraid, thought about different problems of application" (p. 11).

A great deal of controversy has developed over the effects of this law upon collegiate athletics programs. It has been 4 years since Title IX was enacted. Information available to the public would indicate that the fate and future of women's athletics...
continues to remain in question. Cole (1976), in *Phi Delta Kappan*, summed up Title IX's status with regard to the level of compliance, after 1 year, by saying that "It is poorly understood and widely ignored; enforcement appears uncertain and confused" (p. 575). He believed this was changing, however, due to the emergence of enlightened leaders with regard to Title IX and detectable progress toward compliance in certain states.

In July of 1975, a reporter for the Sunday Oregonian (Noles, 1975) wrote that public and private institutions of higher education felt they would experience little difficulty in meeting the HEW demands under Title IX, after comparing them to the present status of athletics. Only 1 month later it was reported in *The Chronicle of Higher Education* ("Sports Director Quits," August 1975, p. 5) that James Barratt, the athletic director at Oregon State University for the past 10 years, had resigned, "rather than live with the provisions of Title IX." Barratt predicted that he would be the "first of several athletic directors to sacrifice themselves on the altar of HEW's Title IX." Barratt described Title IX as a "horrible piece of legislation" that "is working contrary to the general welfare of intercollegiate athletics."

*Time* magazine ("HEW's Sex Rule," 1973, p. 41) indicated that the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) had taken the position that HEW was too strong in its Title IX interpretation. Furthermore, that the provision for equal opportunity for women in college sports "may signal the end of intercollegiate athletic programs as we know them."
Other organizations and institutions have expressed a much more favorable opinion of Title IX. The Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW), the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance (AAHPERD), and the National Association for Girls and Women in Sports (NAGWS) have all taken strong positions in favor of the law. Women's athletic publications, such as *Women's Sports*, have played an active role in the drive for equal opportunity. They concurred with the philosophy of Frank McInterney, the athletic director of the University of Massachusetts, which was stated in *The Alumnus* ("The Future of University Athletics," 1975, p. 8) as maximum student participation in intercollegiate athletics.

After a search of the related literature, it appeared that the majority of higher educational institutions seemed to be progressing toward the July 1978 deadline at varied individual rates (Nole, 1975; Field, 1975; Cole, 1976).

La Noue (1976, p. 64) wrote that some of the affluent higher educational institutions were thinking far beyond mere compliance with Title IX. Instead, they were spending large sums to achieve dominant positions in the rapidly changing world of women's sports. The "have not" schools, as he called them, were waiting or making token gestures at compliance because they had no cogent theory or formula by which to act.

Many schools seemed to develop women's athletics programs overnight. Myers (1976, p. 62) in her column in *Women Sports* kept her readers informed of the rapidly increasing number of scholarships
available for women. This placement service for athletes provided interested girls with a complete listing of schools offering athletic grants, the sports in which they were offered, and the contact person at the school.

This athletic revolution did not take place at all schools, however. Some schools ("Hillsdale Won't Comply," 1975, p. 6) took very strong stands against Title IX and its implications.

Perhaps the best explanation of Title IX progress was given in an article entitled "Shedding Light on Title IX" (1976, pp. 44-48) in Women Sports. The article gave examples of the extremes in Title IX compliance. The University of Maryland's 1 year full compliance goal, as opposed to the other extreme of a school which would not spend one nickel on a tennis ball for women's sports was given. Most schools were trying to figure out what Title IX was and how to comply with it. The article contended that many schools were in a holding pattern because they did not know what it was that affected Title IX compliance.

**Purpose of the Study**

The preceding examples are indicative of the volumes of material that have been written about the way intercollegiate athletic programs are or are not discriminating, but little relevant research has been conducted which would determine why these conditions exist. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to investigate the relationships between various institutional variables and compliance with Title IX in intercollegiate athletics.
A Brief Rationale for the Study

Recent controversies surrounding compliance with Title IX in intercollegiate athletics have raised doubts in the minds of many as to the future of Title IX and the reasons for the varied compliance levels.

The impact of Title IX on women's and men's intercollegiate athletic programs necessitates continual evaluation during the Title IX implementation period. Findings of these evaluations allow for better understanding of the changes that are taking place and the reasons for these changes. An organized program of study and research must be conducted to resolve existing problems and prevent future difficulties.

In this study, an attempt was made to examine the effect of various institutional variables upon compliance with Title IX at the midpoint of the 3-year adjustment period granted to higher education institutions. The information gained through this investigation contributes toward attainment of a factual body of knowledge in intercollegiate athletics. Analyzing and reporting the status of Title IX compliance in higher education institutions and determining the relationship between various institutional variables and Title IX compliance, provides new and useful information for the future development of intercollegiate athletics.

The results of this study allow all institutions to compare their status in Title IX at the midpoint of the compliance period with other institutions across the country. Institutions can better
understand the equality of their athletic program by examining their institutional characteristics. Since all institutions are partially unique, it is logical that there are varied Title IX compliance levels. The results allow the institution to modify some of their characteristics in order to effect athletic equality or at least better understand their Title IX status.

The results of the study provide information to the institutions and the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare which is useful in analyzing the process and progress of implementing Title IX.

The Hypotheses and Their Rationale

All institutions of higher education have numerous characteristics. It is the combination of these features which makes each institution unique. Any number of these characteristics could have some effect upon Title IX compliance.

In this study, the author does not intend to investigate the relationships between compliance with Title IX and all the institutional variables which may have an effect upon the compliance level. Rather, the intent of the study is to investigate those variables which are perceived to be the most closely related to the Title IX compliance level. The variables to be examined are institutional enrollment, location of the institution, female athletic administrators, public vs. private institutions, female enrollment, and inter-collegiate football.

Each of the first six hypotheses will be investigated through the testing of the relationship between the institutional variable
and each of the 11 specific areas of Title IX compliance. These 11 areas of Title IX compliance are sports programs offered, equipment and supplies, games and practice time, travel and per diem allowances, coaching and academic tutoring, compensation of coaches and tutors, athletic facilities, medical and training facilities, housing and dining facilities, publicity, and athletic scholarships.

These 11 areas were selected because Title IX specifically requires that they be considered by the Director of the Office of Civil Rights for the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare in determining whether equal opportunities are available (Federal Register, 1975, p. 24143).

The First Hypothesis—Enrollment

Size of the institution is directly related to the degree of Title IX compliance.

Rationale for the hypothesis. The size of the institution directly affects the money available to the institution from private funds, local funds, state funds, federal funds, and tuition. In addition, the extent of the athletic program is, at least in theory, directly related to size of the institution. The larger athletic programs should also be offering greater opportunities for women.

While all institutions have been faced with funding problems in recent years, it is the smaller schools which have been forced to make the more drastic cuts (Gillis, 1971). At many schools these cuts come in the form of fewer course offerings, elimination of non-essential programs, and most certainly a freeze on new programs.
Gallup (1976), in his annual poll on the public's attitude toward education, found that 55% of the total population favored reduced expenditures to compensate for decreased enrollment. The athletic program was one of the areas mentioned as one where expenditures could be reduced.

The decrease in enrollment could not have come at a worse time as far as the development of women's intercollegiate athletics is concerned. The 2.2% reduction in total enrollment and 13.6% in part-time enrollment, as presented in The Chronicle of Higher Education ("If Enrollments Are Down, It's First Drop Since 1951," October 25, 1976, p. 3), means less money available to the institutions. Magarrell (Nov. 1975; Nov. 22, 1976; Feb. 22, 1977), who has reported decreasing growth for the past few years, now reports that the losses will continue to remain as one of the major problems of higher education in the future. Schools are actively recruiting students so that they will not have to endure the financial hardships which accompany decreased enrollment. Larger schools are better prepared to weather the financial storm and for the same reasons are more apt to be able to finance the Title IX implementation process.

The Second Hypothesis—Geographic Region

The location of the institution is related to the degree of Title IX compliance.

Rationale for the hypothesis. Due to political, social, cultural, and economic differences from one section of the country to another, attitudes toward women's role in society and equal
opportunity in athletics differ regionally (Michener, 1976). This is perhaps best demonstrated by analyzing which states have and have not ratified the Equal Rights Amendment (ERA). Success and failure of ERA reflects the attitude of that state towards the women's movement (U. S. Government, 1976). It can easily be seen that most states within the various regions of the United States have similar views on this issue which are a product of that region.

Just as there are regional differences in the development of women's organizations, and the passage of the ERA, so are there regional differences in Title IX compliance. These differences are the result of the unique characteristics of the people who live in that region.

The Third Hypothesis—Football Participation

Institutions which participate in intercollegiate football are less likely to be in compliance with Title IX.

Rationale for the hypothesis. The greatest financial burden to any athletic program is the cost of participating in intercollegiate football (Gliddens, 1970). Gliddens' study revealed that despite record breaking attendance at football games and television contracts, intercollegiate football was close to financial bankruptcy and with it would go the entire intercollegiate athletic program. As many as 120 scholarships per team result in expenditures far exceeding income. Glidden pointed out that the tuition cost, particularly for out of state students, has increased greatly raising the value of the scholarship and also the budget needed to compete in "big time" football.

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While "skyrocketing costs threaten college football," as reported in the Detroit Free Press (Nov. 21, 1974), it could very possibly extinguish the flame of hope for women's athletics. Several schools have dropped football ("End to Football Proposed at Whitman," Mar. 7, 1977, p. 2) for the sake of the rest of their athletic programs. The public has been in support of such actions because of the lack of student interest in football and the growing interest in women's sports and club sports at certain schools.

Crase (1972) reported that the trend seemed to be that of eliminating or cutting back on the football program and using the money saved to enrich the rest of the program. In many cases this could mean the development of women's athletics.

Spechalske (1972) supports this de-emphasis of football, not only because it represents an extremely large portion of the budget which is devoted to one sport, but it is also a sexually discriminating sport.

The Fourth Hypothesis—Support

Publicly supported institutions are to a greater degree in compliance with Title IX than privately supported institutions.

Rationale for the hypothesis. While all institutions of higher education have felt the financial squeeze of recent years, it is the private school which has suffered the most according to The States and Higher Education (1976) put out by the Carnegie Foundation. The text points out that the support of private institutions is derived more from public funds each year. Tuition, which is normally higher
at private schools, has increased to the point that it is feared it may cause a decrease in enrollment, resulting in reduced institutional revenues. Declining enrollments have a greater impact upon private schools due to a principal reliance upon tuition as a primary means of operational support. Private institutions, while seeking additional local, state, and/or federal funds for support, do not find these funds as attainable as do the public schools. Since implementation of Title IX can be costly to the institution, it is hypothesized that public institutions are better prepared to finance the programs and/or modifications necessary for compliance with Title IX.

An additional point, the extent of Title IX compliance at public institutions is expected to be greater, in that noncompliance with Title IX could mean the loss of federal funds. Since public institutions have "more to lose," the author maintains that they are more likely to comply with Title IX regulations.

The Fifth Hypothesis—Female Enrollment

The percentage of female students enrolled at the institution is related to the degree of compliance with Title IX.

Rationale for the hypothesis. Institutions catered to men almost exclusively in the founding years of American higher education (Sexton, 1976). The condition improved slowly as greater interest was taken in the rights of women. As women prepare for a variety of occupations today, they are eliminating the male stereotype which has accompanied many professions. Sexton (1976) and Roark (1977) both referred to the increase in female enrollment in higher education.
Women are not only demanding that they be given the opportunity to attend college, but they are also working to make programs more relevant to them.

The increased interest in equal opportunity for women affects the athletic program as well. Freeman (1971) wrote that the women's liberation movement did not begin on campus, but many of its roots lie deep within the academic setting. The university is the testing ground for the new ideas of society. As women have become aware of the intent and implications of Title IX, they have drawn needed attention to deficient areas in order to bring about greater opportunities for women. The larger the percentage of females, the more pronounced the need for equality. In this study the need focuses upon athletics.

The Sixth Hypothesis—Female Athletic Administrators

The number of female athletic administrators is related to the degree of compliance with Title IX.

Rationale for the hypothesis. The women's liberation movement, which has become more visible over the last 5 years, was motivated by the belief that women should be afforded equal rights and equal opportunity. This movement was supported mainly by women who have become outspoken because of the sexual inequalities in our society.

Athletic administration, like most administrative areas, was almost exclusively dominated by male administrators (Taylor, 1973). This situation contributed to the male domination of athletic programs. The presence of female athletic administrators is a recent development for most institutions of higher education. The main
reason for the change is to satisfy the requirements of Title IX. Female athletic administrators place a higher priority on compliance with Title IX (Kroll, 1975). As a result, the Title IX compliance level of schools which employ female administrators is perceived to be higher than those institutions which do not employ female athletic administrators.

The Seventh Hypothesis—Title IX Enactment

The enactment of Title IX is related to equal opportunity in athletics with regard to sex.

Rationale for the hypothesis. After the July 21, 1975, effective date for implementation of Title IX, all institutions of higher education were directed by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare to comply with the Title IX regulations affecting athletics by July 1978. The first year of the 3-year adjustment period was to be spent evaluating the athletic department. A summary of this self-evaluation was to be prepared, including areas which were in violation of Title IX and subsequent plans for eliminating these violations by the July 1978 deadline.

While little action was taken to provide equal athletic opportunity prior to the 1975 effective date of Title IX, the attention being given athletics, the penalty for noncompliance, and the results of the self-evaluation have caused athletic departments at institutions of higher education to actively attempt to meet Title IX compliance.
Organization of the Study

This study is organized into five chapters. Chapter I provides an introduction to, rationale for, and statement of the problem and the hypotheses. Chapter II is an historical accounting of events related to Title IX and their implications for Title IX. Chapter III describes the design and procedures for the study and the data analysis to be conducted. Chapter IV reports and interprets the data collected. Lastly, Chapter V relates the results of the study to the hypotheses investigated, summarizes the findings, and provides recommendations for further investigation of Title IX.
CHAPTER II

BACKGROUND FOR THE STUDY

The background for the study is organized into five areas, all of which relate to the development of women's intercollegiate athletics and have implications for Title IX. They are (a) the women's liberation movement, (b) women's intercollegiate athletics, (c) men's intercollegiate athletics, (d) Title IX, and (e) the implementation of Title IX.

Introduction

The area of women's athletics has received considerable attention in recent years. The enactment of Title IX on July 21, 1975, has made it perhaps the number one topic in intercollegiate athletics today. A review of the Title IX material available disclosed that, while Title IX is a frequent topic of magazines, newspapers, professional organizations, and even recent books, there has been relatively little research on the subject. In fact, no studies concerning Title IX compliance were discovered.

The purpose of this chapter is to trace the development of Title IX and to establish a relationship between the women's liberation movement, men's and women's intercollegiate athletics, and Title IX. By documenting the inferior status of women's intercollegiate athletics, and the cost of operating "big time" men's intercollegiate athletics, especially during these times of economic difficulty and minority
consciousness, it becomes poignantly clear why Title IX is of such great concern and paramount importance.

Women's Liberation Movement

The modern roots of Title IX lie in the origins of the Women's Liberation Movement. The Declaration of Independence proclaims that all men are created equal. A Guide to Federal Laws Prohibiting Sex Discrimination published by the United States Commission on Civil Rights (1974, p. 1) reports that unfortunately, the word "men" has been taken too literally. If the generic interpretation of the word "men" is assumed, it can be equally inferred that women are created unequal. Because the generic viewpoint seems to be the practice rather than the exception, the issue of legal rights for women in American society has remained in the forefront throughout the history of our country.

Discrimination against women has existed in various facets of American society, resulting in the confinement of women to a generally inferior status. Historically, this can be traced through numerous events and movements (Firestone, 1970; Rossi, 1974; U.S. Government, 1976). As early as 1776 American women were requesting that they be given a more important equalized position in society.

Inherently, this required that the traditionally male dominated societal systems, inculcated from former homelands, be forgotten. Abigail Adams (U.S. Government, 1976, p. 3) insightfully predicted the emergence of women's rights when she warned her husband, John, "if particular care and attention is [sic] not paid to the ladies, we are determined to forment a rebellion [sic], and will not hold
ourselves bound by any laws in which we have no voice or representation." Followers of Abigail Adams personify her original pronouncement and work actively toward women's rights in a variety of ways.

The women's fight for political, economic, sexual, educational, and reproductive liberation, with its various leaders and events, is comprehensively presented by Rossi (1974). One of the most important events in the women's movement was the Seneca Falls Convention of 1848. The Convention was significant in that it was the first women's rights meeting which openly declared that "all men and women are created equal" (Firestone, 1970).

The American Women's Rights Movement, the forerunner of the Women's Liberation Movement, ostensibly concentrated its efforts upon obtaining the right to vote. This movement is historically placed at the end of the 19th century (U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 1974, p. 2). The fundamental approach of the movement was to improve the status of women through the support of sympathetic male and female public officials placed in office through support of the organization's membership. Their intention was not realized until 1920, when the passage of the 19th Amendment occurred.

Armed with the power of the vote, the National Women's Party championed the introduction of an Equal Rights Amendment in 1923. The Party was joined in its efforts by the League of Women Voters and the National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs. Throughout the 1920's and 1930's these combined organizations unwittingly undertook the task of preparing American women for what would be the most important event in the alteration of women's roles

Following the war, male society assumed women would willingly abandon their heretofore critical industrial positions and return to the duties of homemaking. The many women who wished to remain in the industrial employment ranks, demanded employment equality and correspondingly charged that anything less would be a violation of their civil rights. Women sought legal actions for acts of discrimination and were encouraged by the recent successes of Black Americans who were protesting the same forms of discrimination.

The newly emerged, present-day, powerful women's groups such as the President's Commission on the Status of Women, the National Women's Political Caucus, and the National Association of Commissions for Women spent the early part of the sixties documenting inequalities in employment, legal status, politics, and education (Adams & Briscoe, 1971). This movement to uncover and rectify inequalities became known as the "Women's Liberation Movement," which popularly came to denote liberation from sexual classification which resulted in discrimination (Firestone, 1970, p. 33).

One of the more obvious inequalities of our society, which was uncovered, was in the area of educational opportunity (Sexton, 1976). Women supported the belief that education was the way out of the domestic life style dictated by its male dominated society. The struggle to gain the right of school attendance proved to be a meaningless victory upon the realization that the process of education itself catered primarily to male students. Sexton's (1976) book,
Women in Education, supports this position by presenting a comparison of males and females with regard to enrollment, grade, graduation, and median attendance years. While females exceeded males in all of the aforementioned categories through grade 12, they took a sharp decline after the 12th grade. The declining position continued for the same categories in higher education. Sexton's conclusion was that women were being discriminated against even after they had gained admittance into the classroom.

The traditional role of women as mothers and housemakers was being questioned and changed drastically. Women demanded reforms and worked toward legislation which would prohibit sex discrimination in education. The enactment of Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1972, which was aimed at equal educational opportunity, was received almost without incident except in the "controversial" area of athletics (Weinberger, 1975).

Despite the reluctance on the part of many persons involved in athletics to grant athletic equality to women (Cole, 1976), there is a considerable amount of evidence which supports the merits of athletics for women. Lockhart and Spears (1972), in their book, Chronicle of American Physical Education 1855-1930, present three articles produced about the turn of the century which elaborate upon the value of athletic competition for women. Written by Perrin, Nash, and Ballintine (1972), these articles support the assertions of present leaders of the equal opportunities movement in athletics who feel that women have been too long, patiently waiting in the wings while men have been occupying the center stage of the sporting world.
Betts (1974, p. 219) stated that the failure to provide women an opportunity to participate in sports was a greater loss to society in general than to the individual herself. Betts maintained that 50% of our population (women) were being denied experiences necessary in order to become fully contributing members of society.

Research findings in several studies revealed interesting biophysical aspects of female athletic opportunities. A study by Sherif, as reported in Sage's (1974, p. 315) Sport and American Society, found no genetic differences with regard to competitiveness of boys and girls. Sherif maintained that females engage in more forms of competitive behavior during adolescence, but not in sports. This is due to, according to Sherif, the fact that our culture "socializes them away from sports competition." Similarly, the effect of depriving females of competition is pointed out by Cratty (1968, p. 55), who believes that sports prepare males and females for various skills and roles normally assumed in adult life. At the same time, sports serve as a buffer for various pressures imposed upon youth by their parents. Cratty explains how restricting experiences in physical activity may lead to mild or severe retardation in intellectual, emotional, and social development.

Attitudes toward women's roles in society gradually have changed, but attitudes toward the women's movement in sports have lagged behind. One viewpoint which perpetuates this situation stems from misunderstandings like the "muscle myth" referred to by Hart (1972, p. 290). It has been difficult to allay the fear that sports activity will produce unsightly, bulging muscles which imply masculinity.
Young girls have been frightened away from sports by "concerned" individuals who perpetuate this false idea. Numerous false myths of the muscle variety are perpetuated and frequently attacked (7 Myths Dispelled, 1975). Huber's (1973) accounting of the changes which women have made in society and in themselves since the early cries for equality support that now well-known advertisement, "You've come a long way baby." A long way, perhaps, but it is necessary to keep in mind the findings of Hart (1973), which maintain that there is still a long way to go in athletics before true equality is achieved. The women's liberation movement has and continues to play a major role in the equal rights for women in sports.

Women's Intercollegiate Athletics

Since the enactment of Title IX, women's intercollegiate athletics have made great progress in the development of female athletic programs. Prior to Title IX, however, women's sports were discouraged ostensibly because of the negative physical, social, and emotional effects of physical competition for women (Gilbert & Williamson, June 11, 1973). In reviewing women's intercollegiate athletics, there appears to be a direct relationship between its development and the changing attitude of society toward the equality of women.

Until the second half of the 1800's, the most strenuous game American women played was croquet. However, even this was played only by the affluent society and in a most refined manner (Stambler, 1975, p. 1). As the interest in sports began to increase in the latter years of the nineteenth century, women became attracted to
such sports as archery, tennis, golf, cycling, and swimming. Probably the greatest impetus to women's sports has been the Olympic Games which allowed women to compete in swimming and diving at the 1912 Olympics. This was expanded to include track and field in 1928 (Sage, 1974, p. 286).

Interschool women's sports capitalized upon the increased national interest in sports. Subsequently, teams flourished until 1930 when educators and physicians arose en masse to "protect" women from sports. The protective behavior not only excluded women from the evils of highly organized competition, but in many cases limited competition itself. Lee (1931) surveyed colleges and found that only 22% allowed athletic competition for women.

Again, several arguments against women's athletics were presented (Gilbert & Williamson, June 4, 1973). They included: (a) athletics are bad for women because it may masculinize their appearance and affect their sexual behavior; (b) women do not play sports well enough to deserve athletic equality; and (c) girls are not interested in sports. The article goes on to dispute these misbeliefs and presents the argument that female athletes are more attractive than non-active women and that they tend to make better lovers.

New leadership and thinking in the physical education and sports fields in the past 10 years have caused the pendulum to swing back to a greater encouragement of sports and participation for girls and women. While there have been independently scheduled athletic contests between women's collegiate teams, it has only been as recently as 1963 that the Division of Girls' and Women's Sports of the American
Association of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation developed policies for competition in girls' and women's sports on all educational levels. By 1969 an annual schedule of national athletic intercollegiate championships for college women was initiated. This interest in women's sports led to the establishment of the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women in 1970.

It is this association which vigorously lobbied for the enactment of Title IX and is now trying to unify its members so that they may be more effective in their struggle for equality. Now that Title IX is law, there is some question concerning how the law should be utilized most effectively (Ley, 1974).

Title IX stipulates that there must be equal opportunity in athletics. This can be interpreted in several ways. One outlook is that women's athletic programs must be raised to the same level as those of men. Others have expressed a belief that athletic equality should be achieved by reducing the men's program until it coincides with the present women's level of programming. Each of these opinions for compliance faces strong resistance from both males and females. At this point it is speculation, but in all probability the end product will come about by a compromise which involves reductions and additions.

It is the reduction portion that has many solid supporters of men's athletics concerned. John McKay, formerly of the University of Southern California, said before his resignation in 1975, "Southern California and all other Universities will be out of business athletically" because of their inability to increase the athletic budget to
twice the amount of money currently expended on athletics ("Women Await Equality," 1974). McKay was referring to additional funds necessary for compliance with Title IX. Similarly, the NCAA, recognizing the potential danger of Title IX to men's athletics, challenged the legal basis of what is called "the extension of the act to programs within a university which receive no federal funds." In other words, are non-federally-funded programs, namely athletics, required to comply with Title IX? The underlying clout in the Title IX legislation was removal of federal funds to the institution, if compliance was not met.

Stories of meager or nonexistent budgets are common in any discussion of women's intercollegiate athletics. Gilbert and Williamson (May 28, 1973; June 4, 1973; June 11, 1973), in their three-part series in Sports Illustrated, presented several examples of schools which spend less than 5% of their total athletic budget on women's sports, even though women represented 50% of the total student enrollment. Michener (1976, p. 120) tells how his alma mater spent $3,900,000 on its athletic's programs in 1 year, while $31,000 (less than .8%) was spent on women's sports in the same year. The classic story of inequality pertains to a school in New York which budgeted $90,000 for the men's athletics and $200 for the women's program. This institution was forced to cut its budget the ensuing fiscal year reducing the men to an $87,000 budget while eliminating the women's budget. Consensus indicates women's athletic budgets are usually considerably justifiably less than that of their male counterpart. This is due to the low priority placed on their program by athletic
directors, college presidents, and secondary school principals, of whom 99% are male (Gilbert & Williamson, June 4, 1973).

Similar discrepancies in equality reveal girls' teams often are forced to schedule the use of athletic facilities in those time slots which are unused by the men's teams. Another inequity is women often compete without the services of a trainer, a rarity in male athletics. Further, women are frequently provided limited supplies and equipment, while providing some of the equipment themselves. They also frequently provide their own travel, rooms, and meals, and utilize the services of a women's physical education department member to coach the team as opposed to a full-time team coach ("Shedding Light on Title IX," 1976, p. 44). Conversely, to get an accurate picture of women's athletics, it must be understood that a substantial portion of women's programs, as they currently exist, are defended by many activists in women's sports. The primary motivation stems from a strong desire to avoid becoming a carbon copy of the men's program.

Lambert (1969) wrote of the need to avoid the pitfalls which have plagued the men's programs. It was her opinion that the roots of most of the evils of competition arise from pressure exerted by audiences composed of students, alumni, and the general public. She believes that financing women's athletics through gate receipts should be avoided and that athletic scholarships for women be forbidden. It is interesting to note that prior to the enactment of Title IX, both the AIAW and the AAHPER were opposed to the awarding of scholarships to women. The opponents to scholarships for women held that schools should not compete for the services of the women. Women should chose
a school on its merits and apply for financial aid in the same manner as all other students, indisputably an inequity.

There are, of course, both students and faculty who favor financial equality in athletic programs, including the availability of scholarships. Factions also favor opportunities for women to compete on men's teams, regardless of the existence of a women's team in that particular sport. Some philosophical frameworks extend this viewpoint to contact sports such as football and ice hockey. Karen De Crow (Now, 1977), the President of the National Organization for Women Inc., made the following statement in the first women's State of the Union Address, January 13, 1977:

Little, if any progress has been made in sports for girls and women. NOW has been swamped with complaints of violations: girls being denied access to little league, baseball, hockey, and football teams. Title IX has been twisted and interpreted to mean that women's athletic departments are no longer necessary. University of California at Santa Barbara and University of Nevada at Las Vegas have terminated their women's athletic director positions. There are few coaching positions open to women; girls' teams are still fighting for equal time for use of equal facilities and equipment. With a more creative approach, athletics could be re-designed to include all of us. Divisions could be re-assigned according to weight (as wrestling already does), height (this would enable women to compete more fairly against men in a sport such as basketball), and age.

We will not stop short of total integration of all sports at all levels--professional and amateur. (p. 2)

Miller and Russell (1971) offer an explanation for these attitudes, expressed by De Crow, about females competing in contact sports. They state that women have three basic rights. The first is political, the second professional, and the third is their physical right to play, be fit, and compete physically. They believe that
this is the most basic of women's rights and one for which women are not fighting hard enough. They strongly oppose the Victorian image of women as physically weak, which led most early educators to downplay physical activity for women. Scott (1951) maintains that there are simple solutions to the problems of women's athletics, presented by De Crow and Miller and Russell if they could be stripped of the cobwebs of regulations, traditions, prejudiced thinking, and vested interests.

It appears that despite extreme positions to the contrary, the great majority of women involved in the conduct of women's intercollegiate athletics favor an increased emphasis on women's sports, especially in regard to the benefits available to the participant. At the same time they wish to be careful not to make the same mistakes that were made in men's athletics. As an example, women recognize the differences in philosophy between men's and women's programs. In the report of the Committee on Athletics and Physical Education at Western Michigan University (1975), it was revealed that men were much more concerned with winning, while women were more concerned with participation. Michener (1976), in support of these findings, maintains that athletics have three objectives—fun, health, and public entertainment. He believes women are motivated more by the first two (fun and health), while most men's programs are directed to the third, public entertainment. The role of athletics in each school, between sexes, and even among individual sports, seems to differ drastically. An example is the role of volunteer women's basketball coaches, whose main objectives are participation and enjoyment.
This role is obviously quite different from the role of a "big time" basketball coach who must provide public entertainment (winning), if he wishes to survive in his position (Gardner, 1960).

Various surveys (Gallup, 1976; Neal, 1973; Spink, 1971) have indicated that college presidents, faculty members, students, and the public in general all felt that women should be permitted to take a greater part in the overall college athletic program. Participation in women's athletics, Ley (1962) indicates, cannot be directed as an appendage to the men's program. Long before Title IX, it was recognized that women must play the most active role in redirecting their program. Ray (1965) offered several guidelines to aid in the direction of women's intercollegiate athletics. He believed women should direct their own program, striving for excellence of performance, competing with and against only women in keeping with the academic principles of their institution. Mann (1971) contended that one of the reasons this did not happen was that colleges and universities did not design their male oriented curricula to prepare women in athletic administration and coaching. Consequently, they were unable to meet this challenge.

Unlike the early days of women's intercollege athletics, there is now an emergence of administrative support, student interest, qualified coaching personnel, and Title IX to assist in its development.
Men's Intercollegiate Athletics

The development and present status of men's intercollegiate athletics is extremely important in this study of Title IX. It is this program that Title IX will use as a measuring device to determine the equality of athletic opportunity. The men's athletic program should be examined for its strengths and, in turn, its shortcomings before women's athletics set out to follow in its footsteps. This viewpoint is particularly poignant when investigating Title IX and its implications for the emergence of women's athletics.

During the past century, men's intercollegiate athletic programs have developed from an informal beginning to a highly organized and complex undertaking. Paradoxically, from its amateur origins, intercollegiate athletics now often times has to defend itself from its critics who make charges of professionalism and money-motivated big business.

Betts (1974), in *America's Sporting Heritage 1850-1950*, gave a detailed accounting of the beginning and building era of intercollegiate athletics. The athletic revolution, he maintained, took place between 1860 and 1890. It was led by baseball and rowing, and followed by track and football. It should be noted that these were the only sports popularly available in the early years, but as the number of schools engaging in competitive athletics increased, additional sports were offered and ensuing problems pertaining to regulations and supervision emerged.
Intercollege athletics, as they were initially termed, have been a center of controversy almost from their very beginning, due principally to a lack of control and regulation. Consequently, it was not surprising that institutional administrators sought to control and, in turn, regulate intercollege athletes. As early as 1882, Harvard University formed a faculty committee which was charged with the task of investigating the scheduling policies of the baseball team (Betts, 1974). The problems created by these developments in athletes were new to the college administrators, and it became obvious that a formal system of control would be needed.

In 1905 Chancellor McCraken of New York University convened a meeting of college presidents for the purpose of confronting the aforementioned issues. The meeting became the initial session of the present-day Intercollegiate Athletic Association. From early organizations such as this came the present-day regulatory bodies of intercollegiate athletics, the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) and the National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA). Collectively, these organizations determine policy, govern, and enforce the policies of intercollegiate athletics. While these organizations regulate the athletic competition of the member institutions, it was primarily the responsibility of the faculty, administration, coaches, and athletic director to control, evaluate, and improve the athletic program (Hutter, 1971). The success and improvement of the athletic program was dependent upon these people who were close to the program. They enjoyed the freedom to direct the athletic program to meet whatever objectives they established.
Hutter (1971) points out that those responsible for athletics, the administration and the athletic staff, were subjected to outside pressures which may have kept intercollegiate athletics from obtaining more desirable objectives. These pressures (Miller & Russell, 1971) may have led athletics away from their founding purposes, educational and individual objectives, and redirected the focus to be placed upon entertainment as a higher priority. The "win at all costs" attitude which resulted has been responsible for institutions knowingly violating established policies, motivated in the hopes of gaining an advantage over their opponents. Consequently, the NCAA was compelled to establish an enforcement squad which today is responsible for investigating possible violations of the rules (Van Dyne, 1977). To illustrate, there were 14 institutions on NCAA probation at the time this study was conducted.

One viewpoint (Williams & Hughes, 1937) held that the majority of the evils existing in athletics were the result of funding difficulties for intercollegiate athletics. The author pointed out that most athletic treasuries rely solely upon winning teams. The impetus for many schools to look for that "little extra advantage" which will increase their chances was inherent.

Williams and Hughes (1937) recommended that athletics be funded in the same manner that all other academic programs are supported. In turn, policies would be formulated by educational, rather than financial, motivations. Gliddens (1970) wrote a report in 1969 which presented the same argument. It stated that the pressures to have a winning team with its expanded revenue production were so powerful
that many colleges and universities resorted to shady and questionable practices and politics which were and continue to be indefensible from an educational point of view.

The athletic financial problems of today had their origins in the early 1900's when football developed into a major spectator sport. Most large institutions were hastily building new stadiums to take advantage of the rapid rise in football's popularity and the guaranteed gate receipts. From the day stadiums were constructed, the major concern of the athletic director was to keep them full. This necessitated expending money to develop a winning team. Harvard was able to accomplish this feat in 1914 by spending approximately $160,000 on its football program with the approval of their new pressure group, the alumni (Betts, 1974).

Historically, football has dominated the intercollegiate athletic scene since these early years in almost all aspects, including controversies. Repeated attacks were leveled at the game from its outspoken opponents. The main argument consistently raised against football can be summed up as follows:

Football to-day [sic] is a social obsession—a boy-killing, education-prostituting, gladiatorial sport. It teaches virility and courage, but so does war. I do not know what should take its place, but the new game should not require the services of a physician, the maintenance of a hospital and the celebration of funerals. (Betts, 1974, p. 127)

In spite of its controversy, football withstood its attacks and soon gained the respect of the general public. Its acceptance came from the changes it adopted, coupled with its income producing ability. It soon became the primary financial supporter of the other
varsity sports within the athletic program. The parasitic relationship has come to an abrupt halt in recent years when football began costing money rather than producing it at the majority of colleges and universities. The *Financial Analysis of Intercollegiate Athletics*, published by the NCAA in 1970, points out that declining enrollments and tight budgets have caused cutbacks in numerous athletic programs. Conversely, Hoy (1966) found that approximately 85% of the schools which participate in football give some type of scholarships or grants-in-aid. The rapidly increasing tuition costs, especially for out-of-state students, make it difficult to continue giving purely athletic aid. In 1966, athletic directors were in unanimous agreement that financial aid to athletes should be administered by the same office as all other university awards (Hoy, 1966). Paradoxically, this same group of athletic directors voted down a need-based scholarship proposal at the 1977 NCAA convention (Van Dyne, 1977).

Justifying large financial allocations for the benefit of a relatively small number of participants is one of the most difficult issues encountered by athletic administrators today. This problem becomes even more perplexing when expenditures are rapidly rising while income has been decreasing. Orwig (1971) states that in order for athletics to win support for their requests they must be able to respond intelligently to the "why" and "how" queries that are being made. Others such as Crase (1970) believe that colleges cannot continue to finance athletics. He likens athletics to a perpetual cycle which goes from winning, to more fans, to more expenses, and back to winning again.
Despite attempts to justify intercollegiate athletics in the educational setting, controversies surrounding the worth of athletics continue to become more numerous. Administrators, faculties, and more recently, students are raising cogent questions concerning the aims and purposes of intercollegiate athletics. In 1970, Ohio University formed a special committee of students and faculty which subsequently recommended to its president that the entire intercollegiate athletic program, with the exception of basketball, be abandoned and replaced by "club sports," school teams which receive no financial support from the institution. A study by Perry and Whitner (1965) came to a similar conclusion and recommended that schools take a close look at the stated goals of their athletic departments and how the funds are actually being expended. It is interesting to note that the ACE Report on Intercollegiate Athletics by Hanford, as reported in Update (November 1974), stated that schools which did reduce their programs by eliminating football did not suffer any of the predicted loss of the highly valued alumni support, which is both financial and moral.

Recognizing that there is a financial crisis in intercollegiate athletics, there have been numerous proposals on how to either cut athletic budgets or increase its revenue. Plant (1961) suggests that all athletic budgets be eliminated. Those institutions which desire athletic competition, under Plant's system, would sponsor professional teams, run as a business investment.

The article, "The Education—Athletics Nonsense," in the Journal of Higher Education (1963) presents the viewpoint of several
educators who believe that competitive intercollegiate athletics are a moderately heavy, unnecessary burden on higher education and should be eliminated, or at a minimum be de-emphasized. Club sports and the elimination of junior varsity and freshman teams are two of the possible solutions to this situation.

In attempting to increase revenues, many colleges have added an additional football game to the seasonal roster. Even more institutions have increased ticket prices. Another common approach to this problem is to increase the student's athletic fee. Unless these reforms are made, it appears that the financial problems facing intercollegiate athletics are likely to continue in the years ahead. Ultimately, they may lead to the demise of all intercollege athletics as they are known today.

In spite of all the difficulties, athletics continue to maintain large numbers of supporters. Reed (1964) believes that athletics are important because they develop concepts of right and wrong, self-reliance, and an understanding of the meaning of self-sacrifice and discipline. Recognizing that there was ample room for improvements, Long (1962) stated that collegiate athletics constitute one of the most powerful forces in American society today, and that concentrated efforts should be made to preserve what is good in athletics. The first who need to be convinced of the value of athletics are college administrators and faculty who have regarded athletics as a necessary evil, to be tolerated only because of public demand. If athletics as a means of entertainment cannot be self-supporting, then they should be placed in a proper perspective with educational objectives and be

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modified accordingly (Perry, 1963). Newly established objectives should reflect (a) how the athletic funds are to be expended, and (b) the program of activities being made available to all (Shea, 1967). Once this level has been attained, the program is of commonly accepted value and should be financed in the same manner as all valued programs (Turner, 1959).

While not speaking about women's sports specifically, Shea and Wieman (1967) present a very strong argument for the preservation of intercollegiate athletics and the coexistence of men's and women's sports. They state that the relationship between education and athletics must be constantly reexamined in light of rapidly changing cultural trends and that realignment toward integration of the two is needed. Only under such a system could women's sports assume its proper place alongside men's sports. This viewpoint brings the historical evaluation of men's intercollegiate athletics to the point where Title IX and its impending regulations came to bear directly upon the current state of men's athletics.

**Title IX**

In June of 1972, Title IX of the Educational Amendments was passed by Congress. This law, which affects virtually every educational institution in the country, prohibits discrimination by sex in educational programs that receive federal money. Originally introduced in 1971 as an amendment to the Civil Rights Act of 1964, it was debated and changed by Congress and subsequently signed a year later, but did not go into effect until July 21, 1975.

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The purpose of the bill was to equalize opportunities for girls and women in education. It was intended to eliminate the all too common acts of discrimination which had become an accepted part of American education. Examples of these discriminatory acts are listed in numerous sources including Michener (1976, p. 133), HEW Fact Sheet (1975, p. 1), "... to Form a More Perfect Union ..." (U.S. Government, 1976), and "Shedding Light on Title IX" (1976, p. 44).

Title IX appears to have been a product of our time. Society had been increasingly sympathetic to the rights of minorities. One minority group, women, through the women's liberation movement was actively lobbying to gain passage of Title IX during 1975, the International Women's Year (U.S. Government, 1976). Patterson (1975) maintains that the increasing interest in athletics for girls and women placed tremendous pressure upon politicians. Gallup reported in Update ("Yes Says Public on Funding for Girls," 1974) that 80% of the population thought girls should have the same amount of financial support for their athletic activities as boys. The majority support for women's athletics was further substantiated by a study (Neal, 1973) which surveyed higher education faculty members at 15 midwestern institutions. The study found those institutions in favor of equality between men's and the women's athletic programs. The basic belief underlying the supporters of the athletic equality movement is summed up by Ley (1974, p. 131), who believes that men and women must consider sports competition and participation as the right and privilege of all human beings who choose to participate and compete.
HEW's Office of Civil Rights drew up the proposed regulation to carry out the nondiscrimination principles of Title IX. It covered all aspects of educational programs and related activities conducted by federally assisted schools, districts, institutions of higher learning, and all others receiving federal financial aid. The proposed regulation basically addressed itself to admissions, treatment of students, and employment.

When the proposed regulation was published in the Federal Register, it received numerous responses, the majority of which were concerned with athletics. The NCAA ("NCAA Challenge to Title IX Regs," 1976) began to publicly oppose the proposed regulation on the grounds that it was unlawful and invalidly issued; particularly as it applied to athletic scholarships and intercollegiate athletics. The NCAA claimed that Title IX would invalidate existing NCAA rules pertaining to fundamental matters, while threatening the NCAA with the loss of its membership.

Although the NCAA is continuing its litigation ("Title IX Suit Moves at Slow Court Pace," 1976, p. 3) against Title IX, it has exerted sufficient political pressure on Washington, D.C., to bring about an exemption of athletics from many of the regulations of Title IX, which apply to other educational programs (Fields, 1975, p. 1). Selected women's groups purport that by exempting the contact sports from initial compliance HEW has bowed to the pressures exerted by the NCAA, and effectively excluded revenue-producing sports from meeting the requirement of equal opportunity. Football and basketball, both defined as contact sports, with regard to Title IX are coincidentally
the only two sports that could possibly generate more income than funds expended on them. An additional assertion is that the Title IX grievance procedure guidelines set no time limit for resolving grievances. In effect, complaints surrounding Title IX could be delayed indefinitely.

The HEW Fact Sheet (1975) states: "The goal of the final regulation in the area of athletics is to secure equal opportunity for males and females while allowing schools and colleges the flexibility in determining how best to provide such opportunity" (p. 6). In determining whether equal opportunities are available, HEW requires that the following factors be considered:

1. Whether the sports selected reflect the interests and abilities of both sexes.
2. Provision of supplies and equipment.
3. Practice and game schedules.
4. Travel and per diem allowances.
5. Coaching and academic tutoring opportunities and the assignment and pay of coaches and tutors.
7. Medical and training services.
8. Housing and dining facilities and services.
9. Publicity.

Another exception provided for athletics, which has been criticized, is the 3-year adjustment period. In reality this provision afforded secondary and postsecondary schools a maximum of 3 years from the effective date of the regulations (July 21, 1975) to reach
full compliance. While prescribed activities and timelines were re-
required during this 3-year period (i.e., conducting a self-evaluation
and designing a plan for full compliance), it is suggested by various
factions (Newsletter, 1977) to have been nothing more than a stall
for time. The purpose was a hope for reversing the HEW decision. As
the adjustment period was drawing to a close, it was interesting and
highly relevant to conduct an evaluation of the status of Title IX
compliance in institutions of higher learning.

Implementation of Title IX

Institutions of higher education were given 3 years from the
Title IX enactment date (July 21, 1975) to implement Title IX so as
to be in full compliance with the regulation. Failure to do so could
result in the loss of all federal financial assistance. Two very
useful guides put out by the Resource Center on Sex Roles in Educa-
tion (McCune & Matthews, 1976) contained a detailed step-by-step ap-
proach which could be used by an institution to implement Title IX.
The first, entitled Complying with Title IX: The First Twelve Months,
described the five general requirements which must be implemented by
July 21, 1976. Specific reference to a citation from the regulation
was given and followed by the requirements for implementation and ap-
propriate implementation aids. The companion handbook, Complying
with Title IX: Implementing Institutional Self-Evaluation, focuses
on the task of assisting local educational agencies in conducting an
effective institutional self-evaluation to ensure compliance with the
requirements.
The five general requirements which were to be implemented in the first years were: (a) notification of policy, (b) designation of responsible employee, (c) grievance procedures, (d) institutional self-evaluation, and (e) assurance of compliance. To comply with the first requirement an institution has to make the initial notification, within 90 days of the effective date (July 21, 1975), that the institution did not discriminate on the basis of sex. The second requirement specifies that each recipient shall designate at least one employee to coordinate its efforts to comply with and carry out its responsibilities under the regulation. The third requirement calls for the institution to adopt and publish grievance procedures providing for prompt and equitable resolution of student and employee complaints relating to equal opportunity for males and females. The fourth requirement specifies that each recipient first evaluate its current policies and practices and the effects concerning admission and treatment of students and employment with the institution. Next it must modify any policies and practices which do not meet the requirement and also take appropriate steps to eliminate the effects of past discrimination. The last requirement of the initial year calls for each recipient to submit an assurance of compliance to the Director of the Office for Civil Rights for the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Lopiano (1976), in her article, "A Fact Finding Model for Conducting a Title IX Self-Evaluation Study in Athletic Programs," states that the self-evaluation is the most important step in achieving a comprehensive compliance plan which will guarantee equal
opportunity for women. The article provides a self-evaluation pro-
cedure designed specifically for athletic programs. The model uti-
lizes fact finding questions and actions which should be answered in
order to assess current policies and practices, in relation to Title
IX requirements. If the policies and practices of the institution
are inconsistent with Title IX regulations, that study becomes the
basis for a compliance plan. Lopiano (1976) maintains that physical
educators and athletic administrators must be involved in developing
the compliance plan because the decisions made during its development
will significantly affect the financial support and direction of the
athletic program in the next decade.

While Timpano (1976) was confident that institutions could and
should be in full compliance in less than 1 year's time, others such
as the administrators at Brigham Young University (Watkins, 1975,
p. 5) and Hillsdale College ("Hillsdale Won't Comply," 1975, p. 6)
were saying that they would not ever comply and were willing to suf-
fer the consequences. At Brigham Young University the refusal
stemmed from a mandatory honor code which included separate dress
codes for men and women prohibited by Title IX. Hillsdale College
viewed it as a "bureaucratic ploy" that would turn control of the
college to "social engineers" in Washington, D.C. Hillsdale's Presi-
dent Roche stated that "rather than allow such a federal takeover of
our campus, we are prepared to refuse compliance with the governments
edicts now proposed."

La Noue (1976), in the article, "Athletics and Equality," tells
"how to comply with Title IX without tearing down the stadium." The
main purpose of the article is to point out that a typical university's sports program may comprise four categories such as: (a) intramural, (b) intercollegiate developing, (c) intercollegiate participant-oriented, or (d) intercollegiate spectator-oriented for which Title IX may have different implications in each category. The goal would not be to undermine the traditional spectator sports, even if males are the primary participants, but to create flexibility so that women's sports may achieve spectator status if that is desired. La Noue (1976) also makes the point that after 2 years HEW was still unable to say what Title IX means in college athletics except that equality, but not equal expenditure, is required. La Noue maintains that institutions be given a great deal of latitude in their interpretation of Title IX so that the law can be implemented, taking into consideration the individuality of the institution.

Committees were established to study Title IX and athletics at many higher educational institutions across the country as a result of the self-evaluation requirement in Title IX. The findings of the committee at Western Michigan University ("A Self-Evaluation of Athletics at Western Michigan University," 1976) were a product of 5 months of information gathering through interviews, surveys, and observations. The committee made 14 separate recommendations which were felt to be needed in order to achieve compliance with Title IX. It was through the use of such committees that institutions would be able to assess their present status and develop procedures for eliminating any deficiencies, if they existed. One question, of utmost importance to all schools who must make program adjustments to comply
with Title IX, is who is going to assume the costs of implementing Title IX? A statement of inability to finance such a program is not acceptable; the law says that athletic opportunity should be equal by July 21, 1978. Minnesota's Governor Rudy Perpich's endorsement of the University of Minnesota's request for $1,254,000 for women's athletics over 2 years is an example of the capital outlay required to implement Title IX at a large public higher educational institution ("Governor Requests More Aid for Women's Athletics," 1977, p. 2). Arnold (1977, p. 22) touches on the main drawback to providing the women with a program which is equal to that of the men's when he points out that it is increasingly more difficult to finance the costs of adding staff, facilities, and equipment. He would rather see Title IX implemented by retaining and financing the positive aspects of both programs while eliminating what is not educationally justifiable and adding to deficient areas.

An excellent article on the management strategies for the implementation of Title IX done by Marjorie Blaufarb (1977) is presented in Update. After listing the various rationalizations being used to defend why institutions have not implemented Title IX, the article presents several approaches that an administrator could utilize to prompt Title IX activity. The basic approach seems to be one of positive thinking and open communications, including workshops, parent involvement groups, etc.

While many are pleased ("Shedding Light on Title IX," 1976, p. 46) with the success of Title IX implementation to date, others such as Harding (1977, p. 4) believe that Title IX is not being
enforced and that "sport was and is both racist and sexist." A listing of eight discriminatory practices which Harding says still exist today is presented in support of her belief that only token compliance of Title IX is taking place.

A common outcome of attempts at Title IX compliance has been the merging of the men's and women's athletic programs ("Consolidation of all Sports Activities Proposed by Study," 1976). Under this system the men's and the women's programs are governed by the same individual, housed in the same buildings, utilize the same facilities, and draw from the same funding source. A problem that has presented itself, however, due to having only one set of policies for both men and women, is that the basic philosophies of the NCAA and the AIAW are so far apart that there is little common ground between them. Many activities that are permissible by the NCAA are not allowed by the AIAW and vice versa.

Since the enactment of Title IX there have been noticeable improvements in the quality, extent, and interest in women's athletics. While it is hoped that these traits will remain a part of the women's program, it is important to note that the law calls for full Title IX compliance, complete equal opportunity and elimination of sexual discrimination. Although some progress has been made in recent years, many people are in agreement with Klappholy (1975, p. 1) who believes we are still far from Title IX compliance. Hult (1976, p. 45) cites some of the court rulings in favor of female athletics; she is also quick to point out that while "opportunity is indeed knocking at the gymnasium doors," there are many schools and school districts which
are not quite ready to answer the call or are barely opening the door. Implementation of the Title IX requirements is an area of major concern, for without implementation, Title IX is nothing more than a good idea.

The major problem concerning implementation is that institutions are well aware that they have only to make token changes towards equality in athletics to satisfy the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. The women's groups ("Stalled at the Start," 1977) have been loud in the protests about the lack of enforcement on Title IX violations but these protests seem to fall on deaf ears. It is reported that only 7% of all complaints were investigated and that even those waited an average of 14 months before the investigation was completed. The National Advisory Council of Women's Educational Programs ("Title IX--The Unenforced Law," 1979) states that most federal agencies have yet to even publish their Title IX regulations and have no intentions of enforcing them because they are merely using HEW as the role model.

The most recent development in the Title IX issue came with the December 6, 1978, statement of the former HEW Secretary Joseph Califano. In this statement and in following actions he maintained that Title IX required "equal per capita expenditure" meaning that athletic monies would be allotted dependent upon the number of participants by sex. This policy included financial assistance based on athletic ability, recruitment, and all other aspects of the athletic program. Revenue sports were not to be exempt from the regulations but special consideration may be made in "unique situations."
Update on Title IX and Sports (1979) while being optimistic in discussion of these recent events was mindful of HEW's history of lack of enforcement.

Since these encouraging events, there have been several major personnel changes in the Office of Education and the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, namely Commissioner Boyer and Secretary Califano. There has also been a reorganization in HEW and a separate Department of Education is in its infancy. While there are promises of continued interest in women's rights and Title IX in particular, only time will tell the course of action to be taken.

Summary

The background for this study included a brief overview of the women's liberation movement, women's and men's intercollegiate athletics, Title IX, and its implementation. An appreciation of the need to study this "landmark law," Title IX, was developed through (a) an historical chronology of the development of Title IX and (b) the establishment of a relationship between Title IX, the women's liberation movement, and women's and men's intercollegiate athletics. Although it is in its infancy stage as a law, anti-sex-discrimination as a cause has been with us ever since the first female was forced to maintain an inferior status in our society. Being aware of the plight of the women's movement, comparing the inequities of the men's and women's athletic programs, and following Title IX from an idea to implementation provide an ample background for the study.
CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The design of the study and the methods used in conducting this research are described in this chapter. The areas covered include: (a) review of the problem, (b) the population, (c) the sample, (d) instrumentation, (e) design and data collection, and (f) data analysis.

Review of the Problem

The purpose of the study was to determine the relationship between various institutional variables and compliance with Title IX regulations in intercollegiate athletics. Specifically, the study was concerned with the relationships between enrollment, location, football, female administrators, female enrollment, public vs. private status, and compliance with Title IX.

Population

The population included more than 1,200 senior colleges and universities listed in Frank's 1976-77 National Directory of College Athletics (1976). This directory is considered the most complete source of institutions which participate in intercollegiate athletics. It also contains the addresses, enrollment, and the names of the athletic directors for all but a very few of the institutions. The information in the book was verified by checking it against other
directories. These data were found to be reliable, complete, and up-to-date. Institutions listed in the book as no longer participating in intercollegiate athletics were eliminated from the population.

The Sample

A systematic sampling of the population produced a sample of 589 higher education institutions. Eight institutions selected did not have the necessary information listed. This information was obtained from other sources such as the College Blue Book (1976), Lovejoy's Guide to Colleges and Universities (1976), and World Book Encyclopedia (1975). In the few cases where the name of the athletic director was not available and could not be discovered, the questionnaire was sent to the position of "athletic director" rather than a specific name.

Instrumentation

The survey instrument (see Appendix A) was developed through a search of the literature relevant to the topic area. The recommendations of many people involved with athletics and Title IX, were incorporated into the questionnaire. Several self-evaluation instruments, designed specifically to appraise an athletic department's status on Title IX, and the guidelines for self-evaluations set by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare were also utilized in constructing the instrument.

The first three items of the questionnaire insured that the institution was a 4-year, degree-granting, coeducational institution.
which had an intercollegiate athletic program. The next four items dealt with the institutional variables.

Items 8 through 48 requested responses specifically related to the present status of the athletic department's compliance with Title IX. Items 8 through 48 were assigned their position in the questionnaire by use of a random number table in order to avoid one item influencing the response to another. These 39 items, while all related to Title IX compliance, were derived from 11 specific areas of Title IX compliance. Table 1 presents the areas toward which Title IX is directed and the questionnaire items which relate to those areas.

The final two items, 47 and 48, examined the progress made in Title IX compliance since its enactment.

The questionnaire asked for a response of 1 through 5 in rating the athletic director's perception of Title IX compliance while 1 stood for noncompliance and 5 stood for full compliance. In the event of missing data, the mean was computed for the remaining items in the compliance area. In the two cases when there were missing data for all the items of a compliance area, that individual was eliminated from the particular compliance area.

The questionnaire that was mailed was reduced in size so that it fit on the four sides of an 8 1/2 by 11 inch sheet of beige paper folded in half.
Table 1
Title IX Compliance Areas and the Corresponding Questionnaire Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title IX Areas</th>
<th>Questionnaire Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sports programs offered</td>
<td>25, 23, 22, 14, 13, 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equipment and supplies</td>
<td>32, 17, 43, 38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Games and practice time</td>
<td>36, 18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel and per diem allowances</td>
<td>33, 31, 24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coaching and academic tutoring</td>
<td>44, 28, 19, 21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compensation of coaches and tutors</td>
<td>27, 26, 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Athletic facilities</td>
<td>30, 11, 8, 34, 39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical and training facilities</td>
<td>9, 40, 12, 45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing and dining facilities</td>
<td>10, 41, 37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Publicity</td>
<td>42, 29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Athletic scholarships</td>
<td>35, 20, 46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Design and Data Collection

A pilot study was conducted, prior to the first mailing, to determine the appropriateness of the questionnaire, the mailing procedures, and the recording techniques. The pilot study consisted of 30 randomly selected institutions from the population, but only from those that were not selected in the original sample. The methodology used for the pilot was identical to the methodology used for the study.
Mailing Procedure

The University of Guam Athletic Department stationery was used in the mailing. Each return envelope was self-addressed and stamped so that the respondent had to complete the questionnaire and put it into the envelope. The first mailing, March 4, 1977, included a questionnaire, a self-addressed return envelope, and a cover letter. The cover letter (see Appendix B) stated the need and purpose for the study. It explained the sampling techniques and described the steps that would be taken to insure confidentiality. The individuals were thanked for their cooperation and promised a summary of the results at the conclusion of the study.

A follow-up letter (see Appendix C) was mailed 1 week after the first mailing to the entire sample. The athletic directors were reminded of the confidentiality and need for a high response rate.

A second follow-up letter (see Appendix D) was sent 2 weeks after the first mailing to those institutions whose response had not yet been received. The letter again mentioned the need for a high return rate to provide significance to the study and enclosed another questionnaire identical to the first one.

A master list of the institutions in the sample allowed a system for checking responses. Each institution was given its own three digit code number ranging from 001 to 589 according to its order of selection. Each questionnaire carried the code number of the institution in pencil in the upper right hand corner. As a questionnaire was returned, the code number allowed identification of the institution
to which it was assigned. Code numbers were checked off as responses were returned. The second follow-up letter and questionnaire were sent to those institutions that had not responded. On the final day of the collection period, April 4, 1977, 4 weeks after the first mailing, the master sheet containing both the names of the institutions and the identifying code numbers was destroyed.

Data Analysis

For the first six hypotheses there were 11 specific compliance areas which were investigated. The measures of central tendency for each of the items in the area were used to determine the measures of central tendency for each area.

The institutional variables were divided in groupings based on enrollment, geographic location, football participation, public vs. private, percent of female students, and number of female athletic administrators. The variables were categorized in groups allowing approximately the same number of institutions in each group.

A one-way analysis of variance was computed to test for significant differences between the mean responses of each of the 11 sections for the groups within the institutional variables.

A one-way analysis of variance was also computed to test for significant differences between the mean responses of Title IX compliance for the groups within the institutional variables.

A t-test of correlated means for items 47 and 48 was computed to test for significant differences in athletic programs before Title IX and at present.
Summary

The design and methodology chapter of this study included a review of the problem, the population, the sample, instrumentation, design and data collection, mailing procedure, and data analysis.

The study is an investigation of the relationships between various institutional variables and compliance with Title IX in intercollegiate athletics. A questionnaire containing 48 statements in 11 related areas was developed to determine the compliance levels of selected higher education institutions with regard to Title IX.

The Athletic Directors, to whom the questionnaire was addressed, and their respective institutions were chosen by a systematic sampling of all senior institutions of higher education listed in Frank's 1976-77 National Directory of College Athletics (1976).

Prior to mailing, a pilot study was conducted to determine the effectiveness of the instrument.

One initial mailing and two follow-ups were sent to the selected institutions.

The data were analyzed by determining frequency distributions, measures of central tendency, one-way analysis of variance between the groups within the institutional variables, and a t-test of correlated means to compare compliance before and after the enactment of Title IX.
CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The results of the study are presented in two sections of this chapter. The first section provides information about the respondents. The next section is a presentation of the statistical analysis of all the data collected from the returned questionnaires and an interpretation of the results with regard to the seven hypotheses investigated in this study.

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present and interpret the results of the study and to state the source of the data.

Questionnaires were sent to a systematic sampling drawn from the more than 1,200 senior colleges and universities listed in Frank's 1976-77 National Directory of College Athletics (1976). The 48-item instrument contained statements describing equality in 11 areas of the men's and women's athletic programs. The responses to these statements were used to determine the athletic director's perceptions of Title IX compliance at the selected institutions. Respondents were requested to read each statement carefully and circle the one response which they believed best described the present status of their athletic departments' compliance with Title IX. The athletic director was to circle "1" if it was believed that the institution was in "noncompliance" with the statement, "2" if it was believed
that the institution was in "minimal compliance," "3" for "moderate compliance," "4" for "substantial compliance," and "5" if it was believed that the institution was in "full compliance" with the equality statement.

The data were collected and analyzed and the results were interpreted to determine the relationships between various institutional variables and compliance with Title IX in intercollegiate athletics.

**Respondents**

Questionnaires were sent to the 589 institutions systematically selected from 1,200 senior colleges and universities listed in Frank's 1976-77 *National Directory of College Athletics* (1976). Two follow-up letters were mailed before the collection period ended 4 weeks after the first mailing.

A total of 477 questionnaires were returned for a return rate of 81%. Of the 477 returns, 45, or 8%, of the questionnaires were not usable because they were either late, incomplete, or did not meet the population criteria of being a 4-year, coeducational institution of higher education which participated in intercollegiate athletics. The remaining 432 usable returns left a total usable return rate of 73%.

Table 2 presents the distribution of respondent institutions with respect to the variables under investigation. Institution enrollment was categorized in three groups: those with enrollments of 0 to 1,000, those with enrollments of 1,001 to 4,000, and those with enrollments of 4,001 and above. The category containing schools with
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institutional Variable</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Enrollment</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 - 1,000</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,001 - 4,000</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4,001 and above</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Region</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New England</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid-Atlantic</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Midwest</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southwestern</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rocky Mountain</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pacific Coast</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Football Participation</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Football</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No football</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Support</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Female Enrollment</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 - 30%</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 - 50%</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51 - 99%</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Female Athletic Administrators</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 1</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1,001 to 4,000 students was the largest, making up 43% of the total.

The geographic region variable was divided into seven main geographic regions based on the states' similarities in climate, physical features, economy, people, traditions, and history. The New England region consisted of Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont. The Mid-Atlantic states were New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania. Southern states consisted of Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, West Virginia, and the District of Columbia. Midwestern states included Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota, and Wisconsin. Southwestern states were Arizona, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas. Rocky Mountain states contained Colorado, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, Utah, and Wyoming. The Pacific Coast states were California, Oregon, and Washington. An eighth region, which included Hawaii, Alaska, Guam, and Puerto Rico, was eliminated because of the extremely small sample size of five. The Midwestern region was the largest with 29% of the institutions while the Southern region was close behind with 26% of the institutions.

The football participation variable had two groups—those which participated in intercollegiate football and those which did not participate in intercollegiate football. The groups were similar in size with 57% participating in football and 43% not participating in football.
The support variable divided the institutions into two groups—those that were privately supported and those which were publicly supported. Again, the groups were similar in size, with the public group having 41% and the private group having 59% of the population.

Female enrollment contained three categories: those with female enrollments of up to 30%, those with female enrollments of 31% to 50%, and those with female enrollments above 50%. The 31% to 50% group was the largest with 64% of the total population.

The female athletic administrators variable grouped the institutions dependent upon whether they had zero, one, or more than one female serving as an administrator in the athletic program. A majority of the schools, 55%, had one female employed in athletic administration.

All of the 432 institutions used in the study were 4-year, degree-granting, coeducational institutions which had intercollegiate athletic programs.

The distribution of the responses by variable and category provide a set of characteristics which might be applicable in describing the typical institution of higher education used in this study. That school would be a 4-year, coeducational, private institution in the Midwest, which had between 1,000 and 4,000 students, 31% to 50% of which were female, an intercollegiate athletic program which included football, and one female athletic administrator.
Results and Interpretation

This section presents the analysis of the reported compliance data collected from the returned questionnaires. The results are interpreted with regard to the seven hypotheses investigated in this study. Each of the first six hypotheses were tested with the fixed effects analysis of variance. The seventh hypothesis, with respect to Title IX enactment, was investigated by using the correlated $t$. For the purposes of this study .05 was used as the probability for committing a Type I error in rejecting the null hypotheses in the analysis of variance. A summary of all 432 questionnaire responses can be found in Appendix E.

Enrollment

The relationships between institutional enrollment groups and perceived Title IX compliance are shown in Table 3. Significant mean differences among the three enrollment groups were found for seven of the 11 compliance areas including: sports programs offered, equipment and supplies, games and practice time, travel and per diem allowances, coaching and academic tutoring, compensation of coaches and tutors, and housing and dining facilities. Games and practice time and housing and dining facilities had enrollment group mean differences which were significant even at the .01 level. The reported Title IX compliance in these areas was accepted as being related to the size of the institution.
Table 3

Questionnaire Response Summaries by Enrollment Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compliance Area</th>
<th>0 - 1,000</th>
<th>1,001 - 4,000</th>
<th>Above 4,000</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Program</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>4.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equipment</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>4.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>4.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per diem</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>4.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coaching</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>4.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compensation</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>4.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>4.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>4.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>4.77</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>4.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Publicity</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>4.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scholarships</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>3.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>4.43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05.
The perceived overall compliance means for the three enrollment groups produced a probability of .059 which was not significant at the .05 level. For the results of this study, institutional enrollment is not considered to be related to perceived overall Title IX compliance. Since .059 is close to the .05 level of significance used in this study, the reported compliance levels of the enrollment groups should be noted. Schools with enrollments of 1,001 to 4,000 students were more apt to be in reported overall Title IX compliance than were schools with either lesser or greater enrollments. Schools with enrollments of up to 1,000 students were least likely to be reported in overall Title IX compliance.

Geographic Location

The findings for the comparison of perceived Title IX compliance by geographic regions are displayed in Table 4. The athletic scholarships compliance areas had mean differences significant at the .05 level as well as at the .01 level. The perceived overall compliance mean differences for the seven geographic regions produced a probability of .218 which was not significant at the .05 level. It cannot be said that perceived Title IX compliance is related to geographic location. An examination of the reported overall Title IX compliance means by regions shows the following rank order: New England, Mid-Atlantic, Southwest, Midwest, Rocky Mountain, Southern, and Pacific Coast.

While the results were not statistically significant at the .05 level, several regions had repeatedly high mean scores in compliance.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compliance Area</th>
<th>New England</th>
<th>Mid-Atlantic</th>
<th>Southern</th>
<th>Midwest</th>
<th>Southwestern</th>
<th>Rocky Mountain</th>
<th>Pacific Coast</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Programs</td>
<td>N=41, X=4.48, SD=.63</td>
<td>N=60, X=4.24, SD=.86</td>
<td>N=113, X=4.10, SD=.93</td>
<td>N=125, X=4.22, SD=.87</td>
<td>N=30, X=4.41, SD=.61</td>
<td>N=24, X=4.13, SD=.71</td>
<td>N=34, X=4.28, SD=.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equipment</td>
<td>N=41, X=4.72, SD=.66</td>
<td>N=60, X=4.64, SD=.80</td>
<td>N=113, X=4.40, SD=.97</td>
<td>N=125, X=4.44, SD=.88</td>
<td>N=30, X=4.64, SD=.62</td>
<td>N=24, X=4.55, SD=.56</td>
<td>N=34, X=4.40, SD=.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>N=41, X=4.60, SD=.69</td>
<td>N=60, X=4.50, SD=.85</td>
<td>N=113, X=4.31, SD=1.02</td>
<td>N=125, X=4.33, SD=.92</td>
<td>N=30, X=4.40, SD=.78</td>
<td>N=24, X=4.33, SD=.82</td>
<td>N=34, X=4.31, SD=.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per diem</td>
<td>N=41, X=4.83, SD=.64</td>
<td>N=60, X=4.75, SD=.70</td>
<td>N=113, X=4.53, SD=.95</td>
<td>N=125, X=4.62, SD=.78</td>
<td>N=30, X=4.81, SD=.56</td>
<td>N=24, X=4.68, SD=.69</td>
<td>N=34, X=4.02, SD=.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coaching</td>
<td>N=41, X=4.55, SD=.57</td>
<td>N=60, X=4.31, SD=.97</td>
<td>N=113, X=4.25, SD=.98</td>
<td>N=125, X=4.24, SD=.89</td>
<td>N=30, X=4.30, SD=.80</td>
<td>N=24, X=3.94, SD=.78</td>
<td>N=34, X=4.05, SD=.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compensation</td>
<td>N=41, X=4.39, SD=.82</td>
<td>N=60, X=4.35, SD=.95</td>
<td>N=113, X=4.05, SD=1.08</td>
<td>N=125, X=4.12, SD=1.00</td>
<td>N=30, X=4.02, SD=.91</td>
<td>N=24, X=4.14, SD=.76</td>
<td>N=34, X=4.00, SD=.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities</td>
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<td>N=60, X=4.51, SD=.83</td>
<td>N=113, X=4.47, SD=.87</td>
<td>N=125, X=4.46, SD=.76</td>
<td>N=30, X=4.57, SD=.52</td>
<td>N=24, X=4.48, SD=.60</td>
<td>N=34, X=4.51, SD=.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical</td>
<td>N=41, X=4.68, SD=.50</td>
<td>N=60, X=4.56, SD=.81</td>
<td>N=113, X=4.50, SD=.80</td>
<td>N=125, X=4.50, SD=.79</td>
<td>N=30, X=4.57, SD=.58</td>
<td>N=24, X=4.51, SD=.72</td>
<td>N=34, X=4.38, SD=.61</td>
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<tr>
<td>Housing</td>
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<td>N=60, X=4.75, SD=.78</td>
<td>N=113, X=4.57, SD=.89</td>
<td>N=122, X=4.75, SD=.74</td>
<td>N=30, X=4.67, SD=.76</td>
<td>N=24, X=4.74, SD=.74</td>
<td>N=33, X=4.85, SD=.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>N=60, X=4.28, SD=1.02</td>
<td>N=113, X=4.07, SD=1.16</td>
<td>N=125, X=4.20, SD=1.00</td>
<td>N=30, X=4.33, SD=1.02</td>
<td>N=24, X=4.20, SD=1.00</td>
<td>N=34, X=3.65, SD=1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scholarships</td>
<td>N=37, X=3.86, SD=1.25</td>
<td>N=58, X=4.10, SD=1.18</td>
<td>N=113, X=3.37, SD=1.31</td>
<td>N=123, X=3.66, SD=1.41</td>
<td>N=30, X=3.24, SD=1.16</td>
<td>N=24, X=3.31, SD=1.29</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
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<td>N=60, X=4.46, SD=.74</td>
<td>N=113, X=4.24, SD=.80</td>
<td>N=125, X=4.32, SD=.73</td>
<td>N=30, X=4.36, SD=.49</td>
<td>N=24, X=4.28, SD=.50</td>
<td>N=34, X=4.21, SD=.55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05.
areas while other regions had repeatedly low scores and rankings. It is interesting to note that the two regions which had the highest reported compliance scores, New England and Mid-Atlantic, were made up of states which had all ratified the Equal Rights Amendment. The Southern region which was ranked sixth in reported compliance scores had the lowest percentage of states which had ratified the ERA, five of 14 states, or 36%. The Midwestern and Rocky Mountain regions were in the middle of the reported compliance ranking and placed in the middle of the ranking of regions by percentage of states which had ratified the ERA. It appears as if regions which favor the ERA are more apt to have been in reported overall Title IX compliance than were regions which were made up of states not in favor of the ratification of the ERA.

**Football Participation**

Reported Title IX compliance data for schools which participate in intercollegiate football and schools which do not participate in intercollegiate football are compared in Table 5. None of the compliance groups had mean differences which were significant at the .05 level. The reported overall compliance means for the two groups produced a probability of .922 which was not significant at the .05 level. The difference of the groups' means was so slight that there is little chance of any relationship between perceived Title IX compliance and football participation or nonparticipation.
Table 5

Questionnaire Response Summaries by Football Participation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compliance Area</th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>No Football</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>( \bar{X} )</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>( \bar{X} )</td>
<td>SD</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Programs</td>
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<td>4.24</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>.768</td>
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<tr>
<td>Equipment</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.651</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>.97</td>
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<td>.342</td>
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<tr>
<td>Per diem</td>
<td>245</td>
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<td>185</td>
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<td>.89</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>.378</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coaching</td>
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<td>.82</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>.090</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>245</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>.884</td>
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<tr>
<td>Facilities</td>
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<td>.70</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>.206</td>
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<tr>
<td>Medical</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.614</td>
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<tr>
<td>Housing</td>
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<td>.70</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>.861</td>
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<td>1.02</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.371</td>
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<td>3.68</td>
<td>1.31</td>
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<td>3.47</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>2.82</td>
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<td>.63</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>.922</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Support

Table 6 compared public and private institutions in regard to their perceived compliance with Title IX. Two compliance areas, games and practice time and athletic scholarships, were significant at the .05 level and the games and practice times area was even significant at the .01 level. The difference between reported overall compliance means for the two institutional support groups had a probability of .935 which was not significant at the .05 level. The reported overall compliance means for the two support groups were almost identical indicating that it was very unlikely that Title IX compliance would be related to institutional support.

Female Enrollment

Table 7 compares reported Title IX compliance with groupings by percentage of female students, and as shown, no compliance areas had mean differences significant at the .05 level. The reported overall compliance scores of the three enrollment groups had a probability of .246 which was not significant at the .05 level. For this study it cannot be stated that perceived Title IX compliance is affected by the percentage of female enrollment at an institution. However, a comparison of the reported overall Title IX compliance means for the female enrollment groups showed that the group with female enrollments of 51 to 99% had the highest overall compliance mean, while the group with female enrollments of 31 to 50% had a lower compliance mean, and the group with female enrollments of 0-30% had the lowest.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compliance Area</th>
<th>Support Categories</th>
<th>Public</th>
<th>Private</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>N</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Programs</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>4.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equipment</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>4.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>4.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per diem</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>4.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coaching</td>
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<td>.88</td>
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<td>4.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compensation</td>
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<td>.94</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>4.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>4.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical</td>
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<td>.68</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>4.50</td>
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<tr>
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<td>.76</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>4.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Publicity</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>4.17</td>
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<tr>
<td>Scholarships</td>
<td>175</td>
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<td>1.25</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>3.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>4.34</td>
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</table>

*p < .05.
Table 7

Questionnaire Response Summaries by Female Enrollment Categories

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<tr>
<th>Compliance Area</th>
<th>0 - 30%</th>
<th>31 - 50%</th>
<th>51 - 99%</th>
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<th>P</th>
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<td>X</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Programs</td>
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<td>1.01</td>
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<td>4.25</td>
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<tr>
<td>Equipment</td>
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<td>4.35</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>266</td>
<td>4.55</td>
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<tr>
<td>Time</td>
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<td>4.20</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>265</td>
<td>4.41</td>
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<tr>
<td>Per diem</td>
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<td>4.52</td>
<td>1.01</td>
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<td>1.02</td>
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<td>1.11</td>
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<td>4.16</td>
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<td>4.33</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>266</td>
<td>4.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1.07</td>
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<td>4.58</td>
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<td>1.07</td>
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<td>265</td>
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<td>1.41</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>3.54</td>
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<td>.97</td>
<td>266</td>
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<td>4.38</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>.246</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
overall compliance mean. The indication is that although the mean differences are not significant, institutions with a higher percentage of female students are more apt to be in reported overall Title IX compliance than are institutions which have a lower percentage of female students.

**Female Athletic Directors**

The number of female athletic administrators and reported Title IX compliance are compared in Table 8. The compliance areas for sports programs offered, games and practice time, travel and per diem allowances, and medical and training facilities were even significant at the .01 level while the equipment and supplies and the athletic scholarships areas were significant at the .05 level. The reported overall compliance means for the three female athletic administrators groups produced a probability of .012 which was significant at the .05 level as well as the .01 level. Of the six variables investigated in this study, this was the only one which produced a statistically significant difference between the reported means of the variable groups.

The results indicated that the presence of female athletic administrators did affect the reported means for overall Title IX compliance. In this study schools which had one female athletic administrator had the highest reported overall compliance mean score, while the group with more than one female athletic administrator was next, and the group with no female athletic administrators had the lowest compliance mean.
<table>
<thead>
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<th>Compliance Area</th>
<th>Female Athletic Administrators</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Programs</td>
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<tr>
<td>Equipment</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per diem</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coaching</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compensation</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical</td>
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<td>Publicity</td>
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<td>Scholarships</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05.
Title IX Enactment

Table 9 presents a comparison of reported athletic opportunity for men and women for all the institutional variable groups, before and after the enactment of Title IX. Questionnaire item number 47 asked for the perceived status of athletic opportunity before Title IX while item number 48 compared men's and women's programs after Title IX. Variable groups, with the exception of just a few, had reported mean differences between items 47 and 48 which were significant at the .001 level. All the differences were significant at the .05 level. All groups reported a significant improvement in the equality of men's and women's athletic programs since the self-evaluation process required by Title IX.

Summary

Table 10 displays the probability of mean differences of all the institutional variable groups for each of the 11 Title IX compliance areas and the reported overall Title IX compliance. This table is a summary of the probability values given in Tables 3-8.

The fact that the enrollment and the female athletic administrators categories both have a majority of compliance areas with mean differences significant at either .05 or .01 level indicates that these variables are most likely to affect Title IX compliance. The significant result corresponding to the perceived overall compliance for the female athletic administrators variable and the close to significant result corresponding to the reported overall compliance for
<table>
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<th>Post-Title IX</th>
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<th>p</th>
</tr>
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<td>X</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
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<td>3.85</td>
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<tr>
<td>Support</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>176</td>
<td>3.34</td>
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<td>3.93</td>
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<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>3.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Enrollment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 - 30%</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>3.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 - 50%</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51 - 99%</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>4.13</td>
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<td>Female Athletic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrators</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>3.75</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>4.03</td>
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<td>More than one</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>5.51</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>3.94</td>
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<td>All Responses</td>
<td>424</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>3.93</td>
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</table>

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Table 10

Probability of Variance of Title IX Compliance
Within Institutional Variable Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compliance Area</th>
<th>Enrollment</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Support</th>
<th>Football Participation</th>
<th>Female Athletic Administrators</th>
<th>Female Enrollment</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Programs</td>
<td>.047*</td>
<td>.218</td>
<td>.127</td>
<td>.768</td>
<td>.005**</td>
<td>.209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equipment</td>
<td>.049*</td>
<td>.214</td>
<td>.226</td>
<td>.651</td>
<td>.020*</td>
<td>.359</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>.002**</td>
<td>.555</td>
<td>.010**</td>
<td>.342</td>
<td>.000**</td>
<td>.315</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per diem</td>
<td>.025*</td>
<td>.298</td>
<td>.504</td>
<td>.398</td>
<td>.011**</td>
<td>.283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coaching</td>
<td>.017*</td>
<td>.135</td>
<td>.125</td>
<td>.090</td>
<td>.520</td>
<td>.667</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compensation</td>
<td>.021*</td>
<td>.256</td>
<td>.102</td>
<td>.884</td>
<td>.144</td>
<td>.785</td>
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<tr>
<td>Facilities</td>
<td>.540</td>
<td>.986</td>
<td>.320</td>
<td>.206</td>
<td>.140</td>
<td>.236</td>
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<tr>
<td>Medical</td>
<td>.280</td>
<td>.714</td>
<td>.448</td>
<td>.614</td>
<td>.010**</td>
<td>.109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing</td>
<td>.003**</td>
<td>.315</td>
<td>.181</td>
<td>.861</td>
<td>.232</td>
<td>.542</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Publicity</td>
<td>.183</td>
<td>.070</td>
<td>.789</td>
<td>.371</td>
<td>.189</td>
<td>.693</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scholarships</td>
<td>.069</td>
<td>.006**</td>
<td>.034*</td>
<td>.094</td>
<td>.017*</td>
<td>.084</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>.059</td>
<td>.218</td>
<td>.935</td>
<td>.922</td>
<td>.012**</td>
<td>.246</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

* Significant at .05 level, $p < .05$.

** Significant at .01 level, $p < .01$. 
the enrollment variable provides additional weight to this argument.

Significant reported mean differences of athletic opportunity for men and women before and after Title IX enactment were found, indicating the beneficial effects of Title IX.
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The last chapter of the study contains the summary, conclusions, and recommendations. The summary is a brief overview of the study's purpose and procedure. The conclusions section addresses the hypotheses which were investigated and other significant findings of the study. The recommendations section includes suggestions for further study in the area of Title IX.

Summary

The purpose of the study was to investigate the relationships between various institutional variables and perceived compliance with Title IX in intercollegiate athletics. The results provide greater knowledge of Title IX status and increased understanding of what affects compliance with Title IX. The six institutional variables selected for this study were those which were perceived to be the most closely related to the perceived Title IX compliance level. The perceived compliance level was determined by investigating 11 specific areas of the athletic program for equal opportunity. Hypotheses were developed concerning the relationships between these institutional variables and perceived Title IX compliance.

A review of related literature revealed numerous studies and articles related to sex discrimination in intercollegiate athletics. However, no studies were found which dealt with Title IX compliance...
and the institutional variables selected.

A questionnaire containing 48 items in the 11 related areas was developed to determine how athletic directors perceived Title IX compliance at their systematically selected higher education institutions.

The mailing procedure produced a 74% usable response rate. The data were statistically analyzed by determining measures of central tendency, one-way analysis of variance between the groups within the institutional variables and a t-test of correlated means. The results and their interpretations were presented in relation to the hypotheses.

Conclusions

The conclusions of this study were based on athletic directors' perceptions of Title IX compliance in various aspects of their athletic programs. It is important to point out that while objective evaluation of one's own program is never easy, in this situation circumstances made that task even more difficult. The data were collected at the midpoint of the 3-year adjustment period, which had been designated at the time for program evaluation and movement toward full compliance with the Title IX regulations. As stated earlier (HEW's Sex Rule, 1973, p. 4), many feared what appeared to them as a "no win" situation, loss of all institutional federal funds as a result of noncompliance or "the end of intercollegiate athletic programs as we know them" as the result of full compliance.
Athletic directors assumed the full burden of this perplexing situation. The economic problems of this time did not allow for the doubling of already difficult to defend budgets, but neither would the watchful eyes of HEW and social action groups allow complete disregard of this regulation. Many athletic directors took great pride in their programs and became somewhat defensive when these programs were labeled discriminatory by the federal government. Athletic directors had the support of the NCAA, the alumni, and athletic booster clubs if they chose to contest the regulations. However, many students, faculty members, and individuals from the general public believed that whatever value intercollegiate athletics had to offer, it should be available to all on an equal basis.

As a result of these circumstances the approach taken by athletic directors was one of caution. While athletic directors did not want to invite any of the punishment HEW was threatening for noncompliers, neither did they want to "give away" more than necessary in order to meet the minimum compliance standard. One important influencing factor was, and still is, the belief of many that HEW would eventually give in to the pressure groups demanding that Title IX be changed so as not to disrupt the well established revenue producing, contact and varsity level activities of men's athletics. It should be understood that the combination of these pressures may have affected athletic directors' perceptions of Title IX compliance, particularly in intangible areas which require subjective appraisal.

The hypothesis that the size of an institution is directly related to Title IX compliance was not accepted in this study. The
results did indicate that the middle enrollment group had higher reported compliance means than did schools with either lesser or greater enrollments. The author believes that the enrollments for schools in this middle group, 1,001 to 4,000, allows for a very realistic approach to Title IX compliance. Schools of this size are generally not going to be dominated by revenue producing sports or the demands of "big time" athletics. They probably do not have elaborate athletic facilities that double as "white elephants" and must be filled to capacity at all games just to cover their maintenance cost. Many programs at schools of this size are player-oriented rather than spectator-oriented and as a result more responsive to the needs and desires of the students. Solutions commonly employed by these schools, in an attempt at equal opportunity in athletics, include the establishment of club activities and low budget sports such as soccer, volleyball, basketball, and softball. While activities, participation, and Title IX compliance increase, expenses are kept down by minimal equipment and facility needs, limited or local travel, and few or no athletic scholarships. Smaller schools oftentimes do not have the resources, facilities, or even enough students to undertake such programs, while larger schools tend to create "athletic monsters" because of their desire for "big time" sports and their belief that athletic's primary role is that of entertainment.

The hypothesis that the geographic location of an institution is related to Title IX compliance was not accepted in this study because the reported mean differences were not significant at the .05 level. Although not significant, the results indicated considerable reported
compliance differences in geographic regions causing one to speculate as to the reasons for these differences. One theory, already presented, is that geographic regions differ with regard to their opinions of the women's movement and that the success of Title IX in these regions is similar to the success of the ERA.

Analyzing the similarities of the two regions with the highest reported Title IX compliance means, New England and Mid-Atlantic, and comparing them to the similarities of the two groups with the lowest reported compliance means, Southern and Pacific Coast, provide an interesting rationale as to possible regional differences in Title IX compliance. The reported high compliance regions are thought to be liberal in most issues while the reported low compliance regions are both thought to be more conservative. This explains the resistance to change on the part of the low compliance group and the progressive attitude of the reported high compliance regions.

Another shared trait of the two reported high compliance regions is their extremely small number of nationally recognized athletic teams or programs. The two perceived low compliance regions, on the other hand, have an abundance of athletic programs with teams that dominate the newspapers, television, and magazines regardless of the sport in season. To illustrate this point, one has only to examine the current top 20 football teams, the predicted top 20 basketball teams, or the teams selected for the major postseason football bowl games. Many sports fans would agree that they are more aware of the Alabama Crimson Tide, the North Carolina Tar Heels, the UCLA Bruins, and the USC Trojans than they are of the Massachusetts Minutemen, the
Maine Bears, the Vermont Catamounts, or the Temple Owls. The point made is that, in an attempt to produce national champions and gain the attention of the sports world, it is possible that these institutions are neglecting Title IX compliance related activities. Schools which are less concerned with their national ratings might be more concerned with their rating with regard to Title IX compliance.

The hypothesis that institutions which participate in intercollegiate football are less likely to be in compliance with Title IX was not accepted in this study because the reported mean differences were not significant at the .05 level. It is understandable that schools which do not participate in football would have a high reported compliance mean because of the smaller budget needed and the greater amounts of time and effort available to support and promote activities other than football. The almost identical reported compliance mean for schools which participated in football was not expected. One of the rationales for the exclusion of revenue producing sports from the Title IX regulations is that these monies are used to support the nonrevenue producing activities in the program. Although very few football programs are able to produce a profit, it is possible that the development of women's athletics, at certain institutions, is aided by revenue derived from financially successful football programs.

Another explanation is that football is the "sacred cow" of many institutions of higher education and that its existence would be maintained at any cost. In these situations the minimal attempts at Title IX compliance are a form of pacification employed to preserve
those celebrated Saturday afternoons each fall. Unfortunately, however, the maintenance of football and the development of women's sports oftentimes come about at the expense of the other men's sports. Schools which de-emphasize, reduce to club status, or eliminate some of their nonfootball activities are able to obtain higher Title IX compliance ratings and still maintain their football dynasties.

The hypothesis that public institutions are more likely to be in compliance with Title IX was not accepted in this study because the reported mean differences were not significant at the .05 level. The support groups produced the least reported mean differences in Title IX compliance but there were two specific compliance areas—games and practice time and athletic scholarships—which had significant mean differences. Public institutions are more apt to comply with Title IX in the practice and game times assigned for women's and men's sports. This is perhaps the result of public universities having more athletic facilities while private schools, with limited facilities, which are required to accommodate a greater number of activities, chose to give preference to the scheduling of the men's activities.

Private schools probably have a higher reported compliance mean in the area of athletic scholarships because they give fewer scholarships, have proportionately more financial aid available, and have a lower total dollar value for scholarships; as a result their scholarships are distributed more evenly with regard to women and men athletes. Public institutions generally are more generous with their scholarships but favor the male athletes.
When Title IX was first enacted there were protests from several private schools ("Hillsdale Won't Comply," 1975, p. 6; Watkins, 1975, p. 5) and threats of noncompliance. Of the schools that took this stand at one time or another, the great majority were privately supported. Most, however, retreated from this position when they were informed that the loss of federal funds penalty included not only funds to the institution but also all federal funds, including such things as student loans and research grants (Roark, 1977). As a result, both public and private schools were prompted to work toward compliance out of fear of federal reprisal for noncompliance.

The hypothesis that the percentage of female enrollment of an institution is related to Title IX compliance was not accepted in this study because the reported mean differences were not significant at the .05 level. The results did indicate that schools with greater percentages of female students did score higher in reported overall Title IX compliance. The author believes that one of the problems in studying this variable is the way in which the female enrollment categories are set up. The intent of this hypothesis was that institutions with more equally distributed male and female enrollments would be in greater compliance than would schools with disproportionate enrollments. It must be remembered that schools with a high percentage of female students could just as likely have Title IX compliance problems as schools with a low percentage of female students. It is the male students who are discriminated against in the high female enrollment schools. To resolve this design problem there should be only two female enrollment groups; one for schools with female enrollments
of between 30% and 70% of the total enrollment and one for schools with female enrollments below 30% and above 70% of the total enrollment. These new enrollment categories would be more successful in studying the effect of disproportionate male or female enrollment on Title IX compliance.

The hypothesis that the number of female administrators is related to Title IX compliance was accepted in this study because the reported mean differences were significant at the .05 level and even at the .01 level. The group with one female athletic administrator had a higher reported mean compliance in each of the 11 compliance areas and overall compliance than did either of the other two groups. These results strongly support the belief of Kroll (1975) that women athletic administrators place a higher priority on Title IX compliance that do men athletic administrators. The results are also in keeping with Ray's (1965) and Ley's (1962) suggestions, long before Title IX, that women must play a more active role in directing and redirecting intercollegiate women's athletics if they want to develop quality programs. There is no question that the programs for female athletics are better served by the presence of a female athletic administrator who has vested interests in the development of that program.

The author, again, believes that the institutional variable groups should be reduced from three to two. Very few schools employ more than one female athletic administrator and as a result better categories might be schools which employ female athletic administrators and schools which do not employ female athletic administrators.
The hypothesis that the enactment of Title IX is related to equal opportunity for women and men in athletics was accepted in this study because the reported compliance mean differences were significant at the .05 level and even the .001 level. The study sought to determine the difference, if any, in the equality of women's and men's athletics during the first 18 months of the Title IX adjustment period. The results showed that the reported overall compliance means were significantly higher at the end of the 18-month period for every institutional variable and every variable group than they were prior to the enactment of Title IX. The implication, from the reported means, is that, at that point of the implementation period, the enactment of Title IX was improving equal opportunity in women's and men's athletics.

**Recommendations**

Athletic departments should strive for equal opportunity in athletics because it is morally, educationally, and socially right; not because it is mandated by the federal government. The motivating factor should be the rewards to society and not the punishment of HEW. Instead of waiting to see what actions the courts may take on this issue, athletic directors and institutions would be better off accepting the fact that women have the same rights as men to derive whatever benefits are associated with intercollegiate athletics. Admittedly, this will not be an easy task or one which is approved of by all; but unquestionably, it is best for society, keeping in mind that one half of our society is female.
Additional studies should be undertaken on a regularly scheduled basis to determine the extent of Title IX compliance and its effect on athletic programs as well as its long range effect on society in general. Other areas such as physical education programs, intramural programs, professional preparation for athletics, and athletic departments' employment policies should also be studied with respect to Title IX.

Numerous steps could be taken to improve compliance with Title IX, the first of which is for the institution to take into consideration its own individual characteristics. With these in mind, a program towards full compliance can be designed and achieved with the cooperative effort of the students, faculty, and administration. Schools with extremely small enrollments should try to develop a program around low budgeted club sports that are participant-oriented and which can utilize community available facilities. High enrollment schools should not attempt to entertain or even physically accommodate the entire student population. They should keep in mind that the great majority of the students selected the school because of its academic and not its athletic accomplishments. They should provide, however, the opportunity for all students to engage in physical activity and competition if they so desire.

Institutions in certain geographic regions must be aware that they will have to overcome strong social pressure and sexual bias. UCLA's success in this area best illustrates this point. Its students and alumni still have their strong athletic tradition and nationally ranked teams while women's sports have provided them with additional
national champions. Along with O. J. Simpson they can now boast of Ann Meyer and the 1979 college "Team of the Year," the UCLA women's basketball team.

Southern schools will perhaps present the greatest problems in regard to the acceptance of equal opportunity for women.

Institutions which participate in football have got to understand that football is only one sport and that a program should be offered and budgeted to meet the needs of all of the students. It must not be the case of the "tail wagging the dog." Kept in its proper place and treated like all other sports it can be one of the better parts of the program, but it should never be the dominating part of the program.

Publicly supported institutions must be reminded of their funding source. Tax dollars should be distributed without regard to sex as they are collected without regard to sex. State or city schools were designed to accommodate the residents of that area; going back to the 50% of the population argument, all of their programs should provide equal opportunity. In these economically hard times the public would like to see better utilization of its tax dollars. Private schools should be held accountable also since, in their case, they are using students' tuitions to finance their programs; again, the money is collected without regard to sex and should be distributed in the same manner.

Institutions with proportionately larger or smaller enrollments of either males or females should gear their athletic offerings accordingly. It is possible that allowing sexually integrated teams,
in certain sports, could eliminate some of the problems. Women have demonstrated that they can perform equally or even better than men in many activities including cross country, tennis, swimming, track, and gymnastics, while men have begun to desire competition in the traditionally women's sport of field hockey.

HEW has got to exert itself more with regard to Title IX. One of the major complaints of advocates of the regulation, and also one of the main reasons that compliance has been slow, is that enforcement of the regulation is almost nonexistent. Grievances take months to be investigated, the investigation is superficial at best, and penalties are not feared because to date they have been practically nonexistent. Another constant complaint is the lack of current information regarding Title IX. HEW perpetuates the "wait and see" attitude of athletic directors because it seems to be taking the same action.

Without question the main point to be drawn from this study is that all schools should employ, or at least obtain input from, competent females in the athletic program. This one step will do more to improve equal opportunity in athletics and compliance with Title IX than any other action. This person can provide a constant monitoring of the program to insure that the women's program develops in the proper direction and at the most efficient pace.

The study shows that the enactment of Title IX is beneficial to development of equal opportunity in women's and men's athletics. It is the recommendation of the author that it be fully implemented, wholeheartedly supported, and vigorously enforced.
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Title IX Questionnaire

PURPOSE: The purpose of this questionnaire is to facilitate the determination of factors affecting compliance with Title IX in intercollegiate athletic programs.

INSTRUCTIONS: For each item, 1-5, please circle the one response which best describes your institution. Please answer all questions. Your cooperation is appreciated.

1. Does your institution have an intercollegiate athletic program? Yes No

2. Does your institution grant four year degrees? Yes No

3. Is your institution co-educational? Yes No

If you have answered No to any of the above, do not answer the remaining questions. Please return the questionnaire in the envelope provided. Thank you.

4. Is your institution public or private? Public Private

5. Does your institution participate in intercollegiate football? Yes No

6. Approximately what number of your athletic administrators are female and what number are male? (Please, write the numbers in the spaces provided.) ___ Female ___ Male

7. Approximately what percentage of all students in your institution are female? (Please, write the percentages in the spaces provided.) ___% Female ___% Male
INSTRUCTIONS: For items 8-48, please read each statement carefully and circle the one number, using the scale below, which best describes the present status of your athletic department's compliance with Title IX.

Rating Scale

Circle:

1 for non compliance,  
2 for minimal compliance,  
3 for moderate compliance,  
4 for substantial compliance, or  
5 for full compliance.

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<thead>
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<th>Compliance Level Is:</th>
<th>Non</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Mod</th>
<th>Sub</th>
<th>Full</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

8. The condition of practice facilities for women's and men's sports is the same.  
9. The availability of a certified athletic trainer at games and practices is the same.  
10. Housing accommodations for women and men athletes are equivalent.  
11. The availability of practice facilities for women's and men's sports is the same.  
12. The sports medicine facilities for women and men are comparable.  
13. Pre season and off season practice opportunities for women and men are equivalent.  
14. Opportunities for athletic recognition (e.g., banquets) for women and men are equivalent.  
15. The proportionate number of women and men athletes to the total enrollment of women and men is equivalent.
16. Coaching responsibilities for coaches of women's and men's sports are equal.

17. Game uniforms provided to women and men athletes are comparable.

18. Scheduled game times for women and men are comparable.

19. The use of part-time coaches for women's and men's sports is equivalent.

20. The proportionate number of women and men on athletic scholarships to the total number of women and men athletes is equal.

21. The use of full-time, degree holding coaches for women's and men's sports is equivalent.

22. Post season competition opportunities available to women and men are equivalent.

23. Junior varsity or freshman team participation opportunities for women and men are equivalent.

24. Transportation available to women and men athletes is comparable.

25. The number of varsity sports offered to women and men is equivalent.

26. Coaches' teaching loads for women's and men's sports are equivalent.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Compliance Level Is:</th>
<th>Non</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Mod</th>
<th>Sub</th>
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<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
27. Financial compensation for coaches of women's and men's sports is proportionate.

28. The use of graduate assistants for women's and men's sports is equivalent.

29. The use of media for the promotion of women's and men's sports is equivalent.

30. The availability and condition of locker rooms for women and men are comparable.

31. Per diem room allowances for women and men are equal.

32. Practice equipment normally provided for women and men is comparable.

33. Per diem meal allowances for women and men are equal.

34. The availability of game facilities for women and men is equivalent.

35. Financial aid opportunities available to women and men athletes are equal.

36. Scheduled practice times for women and men athletes are comparable.

37. The use of athletic dormitories for women and men athletes is equal.

38. Coaching aids (e.g., films) provided to women's and men's sports are comparable.

39. The condition of game facilities for women and men is comparable.
40. Preventative medicine services available to minimize the risk of injury to women and men are equivalent.  

41. Dining privileges for women and men are the same.  

42. The use of sport's information personnel to cover women's and men's sports is equivalent.  

43. The distribution of warm-up suits provided for women and men is equivalent.  

44. The tutoring services available for the women and men athletes are the same.  

45. Comprehensive medical insurance for women and men athletes is the same.  

46. The total dollar value of athletic scholarships for women and men is proportionate.  

47. The overall athletic program for women and men prior to the self evaluation of your athletic department was equivalent.  

48. The overall athletic program for women and men at the present time is equivalent.  

This completes the Title IX questionnaire. Please return this questionnaire using the envelope provided. Thank you for your cooperation.

RCC  
1-27-77
Appendix B

Cover Letter
March 4, 1977

Mr. James F. Paronto
Athletic Director
Adams State College
Stadium Drive
Alamosa, Colo. 81102

Dear Mr. Paronto:

Title IX and its implications are two of the most perplexing issues confronting athletic directors today. Although we are mid-way in the three year adjustment period, there has been little relevant research conducted to determine the status of athletic departments' compliance with Title IX or a determination of factors that are affecting the rate of compliance. This study will provide needed information pertaining to Title IX compliance in athletics and the reasons behind the varying compliance levels.

You are being asked to participate in this study by completing the enclosed questionnaire. The information collected will be kept strictly confidential and the data will be revealed only in terms of collective replies. In no instance will individual institutions be referred to by name or any other identifiable characteristics. You were selected along with over 600 other athletic directors by a systematic random sampling of the institutions listed in Frank's 1976-77 National Directory of College Athletics. The number in the upper right hand corner of the questionnaire is for follow-up purposes. As questionnaires are returned, numbers will be checked off. At the end of the response period, the master sheet containing both the names and the identifying numbers will be destroyed. A summary of the results will be forwarded to you at the conclusion of the study.

Your considered responses will be truly appreciated and will serve to synthesize information regarding Title IX. Thank you very much.

Sincerely,

Richard C. Cadigan
Athletic Director

RCC:ef
Enc.
Appendix C

Follow-up Request
March 11, 1977

Mr. James F. Paronto  
Athletic Director  
Adams State College  
Stadium Drive  
Alamosa, Colo. 81102

Dear Mr. Paronto:

Recently you were asked to respond to a questionnaire relating to compliance with Title IX.

As mentioned before, the information collected from the randomly selected sample will be kept strictly confidential. Responses from the entire sample are needed to provide significance to the study.

If you have returned the questionnaire, please disregard this notice and accept my sincere thanks. If you have not completed the questionnaire, I would appreciate your completing it at your earliest convenience. Your cooperation is most important and appreciated. Thank you.

Sincerely,

Richard C. Cadigan  
Athletic Director

RCC:ef
March 18, 1977

Mr. James F. Paronto  
Athletic Director  
Adams State College  
Stadium Drive  
Alamosa, Colo. 81102

Dear Mr. Paronto:

Within the last two weeks, you should have received a questionnaire on Title IX and a follow-up request to return the completed questionnaire.

Since responses from the entire sample are needed to provide significance to the study, I am enclosing another questionnaire, which hopefully you will be able to complete and return.

Please disregard this notice if you have already returned the first questionnaire. Again, my sincere thanks for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Richard C. Cadigan  
Athletic Director
Appendix E

Questionnaire Response Summary of All Respondents
### Appendix E

**Questionnaire Response Summary of All Respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compliance Areas</th>
<th>Questionnaire Items</th>
<th>All Respondents</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>A. Sports Programs Offered</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Preseason and off-season practice opportunities for women and men are equivalent.</td>
<td>428</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Opportunities for athletic recognition (e.g., banquets) for women and men are equivalent.</td>
<td>431</td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>The proportionate number of women and men athletes is equivalent.</td>
<td>411</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>Postseason competition opportunities available to women and men are equivalent.</td>
<td>427</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Junior varsity or freshman team participation opportunities for women and men are equivalent.</td>
<td>408</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>The number of varsity sports offered to men and women is equivalent.</td>
<td>425</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group Mean</td>
<td></td>
<td>432</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>B. Equipment and Supplies</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Game uniforms provided to women and men athletes are comparable.</td>
<td>432</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.</td>
<td>Practice equipment normally provided for women and men is comparable.</td>
<td>430</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38.</td>
<td>Coaching aids (e.g., films) provided to women's and men's sports are comparable.</td>
<td>426</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Appendix E—Continued

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>43.</strong> The distribution of warmup suits provided for women and men is equivalent.</td>
<td>428</td>
<td>4.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group Mean</td>
<td>432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>C. Games and Practice Time</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>Scheduled game times for women and men are comparable.</td>
<td>431</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36.</td>
<td>Scheduled practice times for women and men are comparable.</td>
<td>430</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group Mean</td>
<td>431</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>D. Travel and Per Diem Allowances</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>Transportation available to women and men is comparable.</td>
<td>429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.</td>
<td>Per diem room allowances for women and men are equal.</td>
<td>418</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.</td>
<td>Per diem meal allowances for women and men are equal.</td>
<td>424</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group Mean</td>
<td>432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>E. Coaching and Academic Tutoring</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>The use of part-time coaches for women's and men's sports is equivalent.</td>
<td>420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>The use of full-time degree holding coaches for women's and men's sports is equivalent.</td>
<td>423</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.</td>
<td>The use of graduate assistants for women's and men's sports is equivalent.</td>
<td>342</td>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. The tutoring services available for women and men athletes are the same.</td>
<td></td>
<td>366</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>430</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. Compensation for Coaches and Tutors</td>
<td>16. Coaching responsibilities for coaches of women's and men's sports are equal.</td>
<td>425</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>26. Coaches' teaching loads for women's and men's sports are equivalent.</td>
<td>413</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>27. Financial compensation for coaches of women's and men's teams is proportionate.</td>
<td>420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. Athletic Facilities</td>
<td>8. The condition of practice facilities for women's and men's sports is the same.</td>
<td>430</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11. The availability of practice facilities for women's and men's sports is the same.</td>
<td>430</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30. The availability and condition of locker rooms for women and men are comparable.</td>
<td>429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>34. The availability of game facilities for women and men is equivalent.</td>
<td>431</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>39. The condition of game facilities for women and men is comparable.</td>
<td>430</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>432</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. Medical and Training Facilities</td>
<td>9. The availability of a certified athletic trainer at games and practices is the same.</td>
<td>421</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12. The sports medicine facilities for women and men are comparable.</td>
<td>419</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>40. Preventative medicine services available to minimize the risk of injury to women and men are equivalent.</td>
<td>429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>45. Comprehensive medical insurance for women and men athletes is the same.</td>
<td>431</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group Mean</td>
<td>431</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I. Housing and Dining Facilities</td>
<td>10. Housing accommodations for women and men athletes are equivalent.</td>
<td>417</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>37. The use of athletic dormitories for women and men athletes is equal.</td>
<td>291</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41. Dining privileges for women and men are the same.</td>
<td>417</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group Mean</td>
<td>427</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J. Publicity</td>
<td>29. The use of media for the promotion of women's and men's sports is equivalent.</td>
<td>430</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>42. The use of sports information personnel to cover women's and men's sports is equivalent.</td>
<td>429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group Mean</td>
<td>431</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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<td><strong>Questionnaire Items</strong></td>
<td><strong>N</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**K. Athletic Scholarships**

20. The proportionate number of women and men on athletic scholarships to the total number of women and men athletes is equal.  
   360 3.04 1.48

35. Financial aid opportunities available to women and men athletes are equal.  
   423 4.00 1.38

46. The total dollar value of athletic scholarships for women and men is proportionate.  
   359 3.22 1.51

   **Group Mean**  
   423 3.58 1.31

**L. Overall Compliance**  
432 4.33 .70