# Athletic directors, faculty athletic representatives, and women's basketball coaches perceptions of Title IX compliance at NCAA Division III institutions 

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Athletic directors, faculty athletic representatives, and women's basketball coaches perceptions of Title IX compliance at NCAA Division III institutions
by

Kevin L. Sanger

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Signatures have been redacted for privacy

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page
INTRODUCTION ..... 1
What the Law Requires ..... 8
REVIEW OF LITERATURE ..... 11
History of Women's Intercollegiate Athletics ..... 11
History of Division III ..... 14
Policies and Regulations Governing NCAA Division III Athletics ..... 15
Ethical Conduct ..... 15
Conduct and Employment of Athletic Personnel ..... 16
Amateurism ..... 17
Recruiting ..... 17
Eligibility: Academics and General Requirements ..... 18
Financial Aid ..... 19
Awards, Benefits, and Expenses for Enrolled Student-Athletes ..... 19
Playing and Practice Seasons ..... 20
Determining Compliance with Title IX ..... 20
Recent Case Law ..... 24
Discrimination ..... 25
Franklin v. Gwinnett County Public Schools (1992) ..... 25
Elimination of Women's Teams ..... 26
Page
Roberts v. Colorado State University (1993) ..... 26
Cohen v. Brown University (1992) ..... 26
Favia v. Indiana University of Pennsylvania (1992) ..... 27
Howlett v. Gordon (1992) ..... 27
Failure to Create Teams ..... 28
Cook v. Colgate University (1992) ..... 28
University of Texas at Austin ..... 29
Auburn University ..... 29
Football and Title IX ..... 29
Title IX and Division III ..... 31
Future Strategies ..... 33
Federal and State Legislation ..... 36
NCAA Legislation ..... 37
METHODOLOGY ..... 41
Subjects ..... 41
Instrument ..... 41
Procedure ..... 43
Statistical Analysis ..... 45
RESULTS ..... 48
Page
Age, gender, and race of respondents ..... 48
Educational Background, Position Held, Years of Experience, and Coaching Status ..... 52
School Enrollment, Number of Varsity Athletes ..... 56
Men's Sports Offered ..... 56
Women's Sports Offered ..... 56
Summary of Demographic Characteristics of Sample ..... 58
Analysis of Conceptual Areas ..... 59
Provision of Equipment and Supplies ..... 65
Scheduling of Games and Practice Times ..... 66
Travel and Per Diem Allowances ..... 68
Coaching and Academic Support Services ..... 68
Assignment and Compensation of Coaches and Tutors ..... 69
Provision of Locker Rooms and Competitive Facilities ..... 71
Provision of Medical and Training Facilities ..... 71
Provision of Housing and Dining Facilites ..... 72
Publicity and Promotions ..... 73
Recruiting ..... 74
Support Services ..... 74
Admissions/ Grants in Aid ..... 76
Page
General ..... 77
DISCUSSION ..... 79
Analysis of Conceptual Areas ..... 79
Provision of Equipment and Supplies ..... 79
Scheduling of Games and Practics Times ..... 81
Travel and Per Diem Allowances ..... 82
Coaching and Academic Support Services ..... 83
Assignment and Compensation of Coaches and Tutors ..... 84
Provision of Locker Rooms and Competitive Facilities ..... 85
Provision of Medical and Training Facilities ..... 87
Provision of Housing and Dining Facilities ..... 88
Publicity and Promotions ..... 89
Recruiting ..... 90
Support Services ..... 91
Admissions/ Grants in Aid ..... 92
General ..... 93
SUMMARY ..... 98
RECOMMENDATIONS ..... 106
BIBLIOGRAPHY ..... 107
Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ..... 111
APPENDIX A. TITLE IX COMPLIANCE SURVEY ..... 112
APPENDIX B. LETTER TO WOMEN'S BB COACH ..... 119
APPENDIX C. LETTER TO ATHLETIC DIRECTOR ..... 121
APPENDIX D. LETTER TO FACULTY ATHLETIC REPRESENTATIVE ..... 123
APPENDIX E. COMPARISON OF MEAN SCORES ON TITLE IX COMPLIANCE ITEMS BY POSITION ..... 125
APPENDIX F. COMPARISON OF MEAN SCORES BY POSITION AND CONCEPTUAL AREA ..... 130
APPENDIX G. HUMAN SUBJECTS FORM ..... 132

## INTRODUCTION

Intercollegiate athletic programs are provided for student athletes to supplement their education. These extracurricular opportunities are thought to be very important in developing a well-rounded individual. Athletics expose student athletes to competition, team work, goal setting, and other experiences that contribute to being successful in later life (NCAA, 1992). Logically, it seems apparent that these opportunities should be provided equally to men and women participating in intercollegiate athletics since the resulting benefits of athletic participation should be gender neutral. Despite the obvious need for equality, a great disparity still exists in intercollegiate athletics in regard to opportunities provided for men and women (NCAA, 1992).

In 1972, Congress took action in attempting to abolish the inequities that existed in educational programs in the United States. Title IX, part of the Education Amendments Act of 1972, states: "No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any educational program or activity receiving federal financial assistance (Education Amendments of 1972,1990 ).

Prior to the passage of Title IX, gender discrimination practices could be openly practiced at schools and universities without any fear of recourse for employees or student-athletes (Gordon, 1982). Since the day Title IX became law, considerable debate has been associated with intent and implementation of the law (Jacob, 1993). Most of the problems have centered
on the language used in the law and the various interpretations made by various agencies. $\cdot$ The agency assigned to provide the standard interpretation for Title IX was the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (HEW) (Jacob, 1993). The Office of Civil Rights (OCR), part of the HEW, was assigned the responsibility of providing interpretation and determining compliance (Hogan, 1979).

HEW in July, 1975 published the guidelines to Title IX. After this publication, universities and colleges were permitted until July, 1978, to come into full compliance with Title IX (Hogan, 1979). In this time frame, the improvement of opportunities for women was still negligible. School administrators simply ignored or did not feel threatened by the proponents of Title IX. Enforcement of Title IX may have lost some of its strength simply by the poor efforts on the part of the HEW. The chief officer of HEW in charge of conducting business concerning Title IX, Secretary Califano, had a significant impact on the efforts of HEW with regard to Title IX. According to an unnamed source, Califano specifically ordered his staff not to enforce Title IX in certain areas, one of which was intercollegiate athletics (Hogan, 1979). After this information was publicized, Patricia Harris was appointed as the new Secretary of HEW. Harris was a black women who was actively involved in eliminating gender discrimination practices in universities and colleges (Hogan, 1979). In spite of an active Secretary in charge of Title IX enforcement, progress was still slow. During the first several months after Title IX was passed, the law resulted in eliminating very few gender inequities.

The initial interpretation of Title IX by HEW in 1975 was released in a 19-column report
in the Federal Register. After this report, HEW solicited comments from the educational community concerning Title IX. As a result of these comments, an updated set of interpretations appeared in the Federal Register, requiring 30 columns to present (Seligman, 1980). Administering policies that would eliminate gender inequities proved to be a problem, as well as interpreting the law according to HEW's regulations. In spite of the 30 -column interpretation, Title IX was difficult to implement and enforce.

Some schools voluntarily promoted gender equality in order to meet the initial compliance deadline by July, 1978 that was set by HEW. Most schools, however, failed to comply, or to move toward the development of equitable programs (Jacob, 1993). The deadline for compliance had come and gone without most schools making any progress toward gender equity, yet suffering no penalty or consequence for not complying with Title IX (Hogan, 1979). Most felt Title IX was an ineffective piece of legislation since it would not or could not be enforced by HEW (Jacob, 1993).

The single most important reason why the legislation of Title IX was not successful in promoting voluntary compliance appears to have been confusion about the intent of Congress in passing the law. Many schools that failed to comply by 1978 stated that they could not decipher HEW's interpretation nor understand what areas of their institution were under the jurisdiction of Title IX (Jacob, 1993). Supporters of women's rights believed the language and scope of Title IX was clear and accused some school administrators of "negligence, belligerence, or feigned ignorance" (Hogan, 1979). The interpretation had become increasingly judgmental
and no definite standard existed.

Title IX caused the greatest controversy in intercollegiate athletics. All areas of collegiate activities were affected by Title IX, but athletics received the most attention and caused the most widespread debate. At the college level, there was a great deal of debate as to whether Title IX even applied to college sports or was limited only to academics (Underwood, 1979).

Originally, the intended scope of Title IX, according to its legislative history, suggests that the Act covered only those educational programs receiving federal financial assistance and was not directed at imposing gender equity requirements on specific programs, such as athletic departments of educational institutions that received no direct federal funding. HEW construed Title IX as applying to all activities, including athletic programs of educational institutions or agencies if the institution or agency received any federal funds (Kuhn, 1976, cited in Wilde, 1993). This HEW application was included in their 1975 interpretation of Title IX. Even though athletics and other programs were not specifically identified in Title IX, when it first became law, the Act has become the cornerstone of federal statutory protection for female athletes in the United States. (Wong and Erson, 1985/86, cited in Wilde, 1993).

As a result of HEW's broad interpretation of Title IX, the key issue remained whether the law applied only to specific departments receiving direct federal assistance (commonly referred to as the "programmation approach") or extended to any department within an institution that benefits from federal funding (commonly referred to as the "institutional approach") (Wong,

1988, cited in Wilde, 1993). The debate was decided by the Supreme Court in Grove City College v. Bell (1984), where the court favored the programmatic approach, deciding that only those programs receiving federal assistance within an institution should be subject to Title IX requirements.

Results of the Grove City College case (1984) stated that since high school and collegiate athletic programs in most cases do not receive federal funding, even indirectly, Title IX could not be enforced against these programs. Any momentum generated by the gender equity movement had been buried. In 1972, prior to the enactment of Title IX, only $15 \%$ of the total number of intercollegiate athletic participants were women. By 1984, the percentage had doubled to $30.8 \%$ (Villalobos, 1990, cited in Wilde, 1993). After the Grove City College decision, it appeared that the growth of women's athletics had been stymied.

Following Grove City, legislation was introduced to change the wording in Title IX and other federal anti-discrimination laws to reverse legislatively the court's programmatic interpretation of Title IX, so that any specific department within an institution would be required to comply with the legislation, if any department or program within the institution benefited from federal assistance. Specific amending legislation failed to gain support until March, 1988, when Congress enacted the Civil Rights Restoration Act of 1987. The Act, designed to reverse the impact on the Grove City College ruling, specified that entire institutions and agencies are covered by Title IX and other federal anti-discrimination laws, if any program or activity within the institution receives federal aid (Wilde, 1993).

Statistics indicate an increase in the number of women participating in intercollegiate athletics since the passing of the Civil Rights Restoration Act of 1987. In 1987-88, 89,825 women participated in intercollegiate athletics compared to 99,859 in 1992-93. This increase is encouraging, but the number of women-participants is still far below the men's. In 1987-88, 178,941 men participated whereas in 1992-93, 187,041 men participated. As the numbers show, the participant numbers are increasing for women, but they need a substantial boost to equal the men's participation numbers (NCAA News, February 16, 1994).

The NCAA Gender Equity Study released on March 11, 1992, revealed significant discrepancies in athletic opportunities at the collegiate level (Table 1). Women comprise 53\% of the college student population, but only $34 \%$ of participants in intercollegiate athletics (NCAA, 1992). Women intercollegiate athletes received less than $29 \%$ of the athletic departments' operating dollars and less than $18 \%$ of the athletic departments recruiting dollars.

## Table 1.

Athletic Opportunities Provided for Men and Women by Berths on Teams

| NCAA Division | Males | Females |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| I | $250(69 \%)$ | $112(31 \%)$ |
| II | $167(68 \%)$ | $79(32 \%)$ |
| III | $215(67 \%)$ | $116(35 \%)$ |

In Division I-A institutions, women's programs received only $18 \%$ of the total budget (Raiborn, 1990, cited in Women's Sports Foundation, 1993).

Male college athletes received approximately $\$ 179$ million dollars more per year in athletic scholarships than their female counterparts. Female athletes received less than $33 \%$ of the college athletic scholarship dollars. Table 2 shows the average Division I and II scholarship expenditures for NCAA-member institutions (NCAA, 1992).

Compliance with Title IX is not only an ethical and moral issue, but also a monetary one.

Table 2.
Average NCAA Division I,II, and III Scholarship Expenditures

|  | Average Annual | Average Annual |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| NCAA Division | Scholarship \$ to Males | Scholarship \$ to Females |
| I |  |  |
| II | $\$ 849,130$ | $\$ 372,800$ |
| III | $\$ 0$ | $\$ 148,966$ |

Lawsuits in the name of Title IX have had serious consequences for the institutions involved.
These include:

Monetary Damages: Through damage awards and settlements, plaintiffs have received monetary damages as compensation for Title IX infractions. In one case, a settlement agreement provided for damages in the amount of $\$ 60,000$.

Attorney's Fees: Prevailing Title IX plaintiffs may be awarded their attorneys' fees. Awards of attorneys' fees reportedly have ranged as high as $\$ 100,000$ to $\$ 700,000$.

Court Mandated Funding of Programs: Court orders have required the retention or creation of varsity teams that entails a financial obligation on the part of the university. For institutions with already scarce budgets, creating and funding such teams may require significant changes in men's athletic programs.

Court Control of Athletic Programs: Courts have ordered specific actions, such as hiring coaches and providing practice and other facilities. In addition, it is possible that courts will exercise long-term control over the institution's athletics program, as they have done with public school systems.

Additional or Broader Litigation: Litigation of one claim may engender additional claims. The discovery and trial process may lead to expansion of the original suit, entirely separate actions, or an Office of Civil Right (OCR) investigation. An OCR investigation, even is originally based on a narrow claim, generally encompasses all aspects of an institution's intercollegiate athletic program (American Council on Education, 1993).

## What The Law Requires

Title IX prohibits gender-based discrimination in educational institutions receiving federal financial assistance. Intercollegiate athletic requirements of Title IX are based on three aspects of college and university sports programs: the participation opportunities provided to male and female student athletes; the athletic financial aid allocated to male and female participants in intercollegiate athletics; and all other benefits, opportunities, and treatment
afforded participants of each gender including: provision of equipment and supplies, scheduling of games and practice times, travel and per diem allowances, coaching and academic support services, assignment and compensation of coaches and tutors, provision of locker rooms and competitive facilities, provision of medical and training facilities, provision of housing and dining facilities, publicity and promotions, recruiting, support services, and admissions/grants in aid (American Council on Education, 1993;NCAA, 1992).

In summary, current interpretation of Title IX requires higher education institutions to establish opportunities for participation in intercollegiate athletics that effectively accommodate the interests and abilities of males and females. The total allocation of athletic financial aid (scholarships) to student-athletes of each gender must be proportionate to the numbers of male and female participants in a college's sports program. All other benefits, opportunities, and treatment provided student athletes of each gender must be equivalent. Compliance is established by satisfying these three tests (American Council on Education, 1993).

Currently, Title IX and gender equity is a major issue confronting the NCAA and all Division I institutions. Interestingly, limited attention has been paid to the NCAA Division III universities and colleges concerning Title IX. Most scrutiny has focused on big-time moneymaking Division I schools. It is possible that NCAA Division III colleges maintain more equitable athletic programs than any other universities or colleges in intercollegiate athletics.

The purpose of this study was to determine whether differences existed between NCAA Division III athletic directors, faculty athletic representatives, and women's basketball coaches
in their perceptions of their institutions compliance with the third component of the three prong test utilized by the courts--the accommodation of men and women student-athletes' interests and abilities.

The hypothesis for this research study was that the athletic director and faculty athletic representative will have similar perceptions, but their views will differ significantly from that of the women's basketball coach.

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

## History of Women's Intercollegiate Athletics

Women's athletics have historically struggled for respect and equality while attempting to maintain the amateur status of the female athletes. The development of women's intercollegiate sports began in 1966 when the Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (CIAW) was created by the Division for Girls' and Women's Sport (DGWS) to sponsor tournaments and national championships and to sanction women's intercollegiate athletics (Grant, 1989).

At this time in women's athletics, there were about 16,000 women who were participating at the intercollegiate level (Acosta and Carpenter, 1985). From 1966 to 1972, national championships in golf, gymnastics, track and field, badminton, swimming, diving, volleyball, and basketball were sponsored by the CIAW (Grant, 1989).

Throughout this time period, less than two percent of the athletic budgets at colleges and universities were devoted to women's sports (Kilpatrick, 1978, cited in Jacob, 1993). One reason why women's budgets were so small was that there were virtually no athletic scholarships awarded to women until 1972 (Harris, 1989). Because of financial difficulties at the national level, the CIAW and DGWS were forced to propose the creation of a national association for women's intercollegiate sports that would collect annual dues. This proposal initiated the formation of the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW) created in 1972 with 278 original members. By 1980, 973 schools belonged to the AIAW, making it the largest
intercollegiate athletic governing body in the country (Grant, 1989).
Women's intercollegiate athletics were viewed by early AIAW members as part of the total educational package made available to college-age women. Athletics were viewed as an important link in developing the well rounded student-athlete when kept in proper perspective. More important, the main reason why women were attending college was to pursue academic excellence (Jacob, 1993).

The AIAW Handbook stated the organization's purpose in the six following statements:

1. To foster broad programs of women's intercollegiate athletics which are consistent with the educational aims and objectives of the member schools and in accordance with the philosophy and standards of the National Association of Girls and women in Sport (formerly the DGWS).
2. To assist member schools in extending and enriching their programs of intercollegiate athletics for women based upon the needs, interests, and capacities of the individual student.
3. To stimulate the development of quality leadership for women's intercollegiate athletic programs.
4. To foster programs which will encourage excellence in performance of participants in women's intercollegiate athletics.
5. To maintain the spirit of play within competitive sport events so that the concomitant educational values of such an experience are emphasized.
6. To increase public understanding and appreciation of the importance and value of sports and athletics as they contribute to the enrichment of the life of the woman (Grant, 1989).

The AIAW maintained its original purpose and mission throughout its existence. From 1962 until 1982, this organization shaped intercollegiate athletics for women. In the early years,
members of the AIAW resisted giving athletic scholarships to women because they felt it defeated the educational mission of the institutions (Ulrich, 1980, cited in Jacob, 1993).

The AIAW believed many improprieties existed in men's athletics due to the recruitment of student athletes for their athletic abilities. Therefore, the AIAW prohibited athletic scholarships for women. Leaders of the AIAW were convinced that the men's model for organization of athletic programs was against education and concerned with only making money at the expense of the young student-athletes. AIAW leaders, therefore, avoided any modeling of the men's program (Ulrich, 1980, cited in Jacob, 1993).

The explosion of women's participation in sports from 1960 to 1985 was credited to three primary factors. The first was the direction and leadership of the AIAW. Society increasing sensitivity to the physical activities of women was the second factor. The final factor was increasing acceptance of women's involvement in most forms of physical activity and the passage of legislation promoting gender equity (Acosta \& Carpenter, 1985).

In the early 1970's, gender discrimination surfaced as a major controversial topic. Nowhere was the heated topic of gender discrimination more evident than in education, especially in interscholastic and intercollegiate athletic programs (Greendorfer, 1989).

Numbers released by the National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations revealed that in 1970-71, about 300,000 girls participated in high school sports as compared to 3.7 million boys. Intercollegiate athletics during the same year had about 30,000 females and 170,000 males participating (Hogan, 1987).

## History of Division III

Dr. Kenneth Weller (1991), author of the Division III Philosophy, described the historical development of Division III athletics. In the mid-1960's there were only two options for intercollegiate athletics: university division or college division. Schools could choose either one, and many colleges tried unsuccessfully to compete at the university level. In 1972 there was a movement to restructure the NCAA and develop three divisions, with Division III offering need-based financial aid to its student-athletes. This characterized Division III schools as being very different from Division I and II institutions. Throughout the mid-1970's Division III operated on the philosophy of, "This is what we will not do". It seemed that there was no positive direction as to what Division III was or how it would operate (Vandeweerd, 1993).

In 1977-78 Dr. Weller started to develop a broad philosophy of Division III athletics, in including principles such as treating athletes as all other students, the integration of academics and athletics, and the idea that Division III athletics would be primarily for the participant and not the spectator. As he developed this philosophy, rough drafts were submitted for review to a committee of college presidents. The 1980 version was too prescriptive. For some schools, it would be impossible for them to follow due to legal and financial considerations. Dr. Weller's revision in 1981 was too descriptive. Finally, the presidents decided to leave the 1981 version and add a preamble that would strengthen the Division III philosophy. In 1982 it was passed at the NCAA Convention, and in 1983 it was published in the NCAA manual (Vandeweerd, 1993).

## Policies and Regulations Governing NCAA Division III Athletics

The NCAA has set guidelines and operating policies for Division III institutions. It is the responsibility of the athletic directors and other leaders in the athletic department to ensure that these policies are followed. Most of these regulations fall under general categories such as: ethical conduct, conduct and employment of athletic personnel, amateurism, recruiting, eligibility, financial aid, awards and benefits for the enrolled student-athlete, and playing and practice seasons (NCAA Manual, 1991).

## Ethical Conduct

In college athletics, Division I institutions receive the majority of the criticism, while Division III schools exist out of the extreme scrutiny of the public. The Knight Commission Report (Keeping the Faith, 1991) to the NCAA stated, "It is time to get back to first principles. Intercollegiate athletics exist first and foremost for the student-athletes who participate, whether male or female, majority or minority, whether they play football in front of 50,000 or field hockey in front of their friends. It is the university's obligation to educate all of them, an obligation perhaps more serious because the demands we place on them are so much more severe" (p.8).

Athletic department personnel carry a large responsibility to administer their athletic programs ethically. At the Division III level, it is not only considered in theory but in writing that an athlete's primary objective is to get an education. The NCAA Manual (1991) states, "Colleges and universities in Division III place highest priority on the overall quality of the
educational experience. In so doing, they seek to strengthen the integration of objectives and programs in athletics with academic and developmental objectives, and to assure the integration of athletes with other students. To that end, the college places special importance on the impact of athletics on the participants rather than on spectators, and greater emphasis on the internal consistency (students, alumni, and special friends) than on the general public and its entertainment needs" (p.360).

## Conduct and Employment of Athletic Personnel

As Division I coaches enjoy lucrative shoe contracts and other sources of outside income, Division III coaches' salaries are to be determined by the institution the coach serves. A college or university also shall not reward or give extra compensation to a coach based on number of games won, or because of a bowl berth or for qualifying for a championship event (NCAA Manual, 1991).

Another area of debate within colleges and universities is who is in control of the athletic department. Many institutions have gone to an athletic committee consisting of faculty, alumni, administration, and athletic personnel. This committee is in charge of the athletic department and varies in its scope of authority. The control of the athletic department in Division III is usually under the academic dean or president, or both. In many Division III institutions, there are faculty committees which set policies, such as the number of classes allowed to be missed due to athletic participation. In addition, Division III athletic budgets are a line item in the general budget. The athletic department does not operate independently from the institution in
terms of policy or finance (Vandeweerd, 1993).

## Amateurism

The NCAA requires all student-athletes to be of amateur status in their chosen sports in order to be eligible to participate. The NCAA Manual (1991) states that grants-in-aid are not considered to be pay or the promise of pay for athletic skill provided the grant-in-aid does not exceed financial limitations set by the institution.

## Recruiting

The Knight Commission Report (Keeping the Faith, 1991) commented that most violations occur in the area of recruiting. This is quite understandable since much of a coaches' success is determined by the athletes he can attract to his program. Recruiting even at the Division III level can be very intense and demanding. Several regulations exist concerning Division III recruiting.

The NCAA limits when a recruiting trip may be taken. The NCAA Manual (1991) states, "In Division III, representatives of an institution's athletic interests may make in-person, on- or off campus recruiting contacts with a prospect, however such off-campus contacts may not occur until the conclusion of the prospect's junior year in high school" (p.19).

The NCAA also differentiates between an official and unofficial visit. The NCAA Manual (1991) defines an official visit as one where the athlete's visit is paid in whole or in part by the institution or a representative of the institution's athletic department. An unofficial visit is one paid for by the athlete. Anything paid for by the institution requires the visit to become
official, unless these provisions are made to a visiting student whether they are an athlete or not. Entertainment may be provided to a prospect and his or her parents so long as it is comparable to that of normal student life. An institution may not provide entertainment for other relatives of the athlete.

## Eligibility: Academics and General Requirements

Once the athlete is attending an NCAA institution there are regulations regarding the athlete's eligibility and subsequent participation. The NCAA Manual (1991) outlines three main criteria the student must maintain: 1) a minimum full-time program of study, 2) good academic standing, and 3) satisfactory progress towards a degree. An institution may not allow a studentathlete to participate unless he or she meets all three requirements. Also, athletes must complete their participation during the first 10 semesters in which they are enrolled in a full-time program of study. The NCAA Manual (1991) points out that a transfer student is eligible at a Division III institution immediately if they have not previously competed in athletics. If they have participated, the student must have been academically eligible if he or she had stayed at the first institution.

## Financial Aid

A student-athlete attending a Division III school may not receive financial aid based on athletic ability or based on the promise to participate in athletics (e.g. no athletic scholarships). The NCAA Manual (1991) gives general rules regarding financial aid. One rule is that all financial aid must be awarded through the regular college committee that determines financial
aid for all students. In addition, financial aid may be offered in writing only by a financial aid director, and not before a student has been admitted. Academic honor awards may be granted provided the student has a 3.5 GPA , or a 25 ACT , or graduated in the top $20 \%$ of his or her high school class. The composition of the financial package shall be the same for athletes as well as non-athletes. Finally, no member of a Division III athletic staff may serve on the financial aid committee, and athletic staff may not be involved in any way in the process of awarding financial aid to an athlete.

## Awards, Benefits, and Expenses for Enrolled Student-Athletes

The awards (e.g. plaques, trophies, etc.) given to student-athletes must follow certain guidelines. The NCAA Manual (1991) states that underclassmen awards must not exceed $\$ 100$ per sport in which the athlete participates, while senior awards must not exceed $\$ 200$ per sport in which they participate. Also, complimentary tickets at a Division III school shall only be given to those people designated by the student-athlete.

In terms of support services for the student-athlete, the institution may provide: 1) tutoring, 2) drug rehabilitation, 3) eating disorders counseling, 4) student developmental and career counseling, 5) use of computers and typewriters, 6) cost of field trips provided it is required for all students. Services institutions may not provide include: 1) typing costs, 2) course supplies, and 3 ) use of copy machine just for student-athletes (NCAA Manual, 1991).

## Playing and Practice Seasons

As new regulations are passed, the time demands placed on a student-athlete decreases. All athletic related activities are prohibited for one calendar day per week in football and basketball and during the traditional segment in all other sports. Also, in football and basketball and the traditional segment of other sports, no class time shall be missed for practice activities, except when a team is traveling to an away game (NCAA Manual, 1991).

## Determining Compliance with Title IX

Until the passage of Title IX in 1972, gender discrimination existed in schools and colleges in the United Stated without any recourse for students or employees (Gordon, 1982). The initial scope of Title IX was directed at providing gender equity at educational institutions for programs receiving direct federal funding. Athletic departments were not believed to belong in this group receiving these federal funds. This decision was supported in the Grove City College v. Bell (1984) case where the court ruled that only those programs receiving direct financial assistance from the federal government should be subject to Title IX requirements. This meant that Title IX would not apply to an institution's athletic program or any other program not receiving federal assistance.

Until the Civil Rights Restoration Act of 1987, this programmatic approach to Title IX existed. After the Grove City College case, legislation was passed in the Civil Rights Restoration Act of 1987 to interpret Title IX as applying to all programs receiving direct or indirect federal money.

The Office of Civil Rights, as the governmental Title IX enforcement agency, is required by Title IX policy and procedure to examine three areas in determining a school's compliance with Title IX:

1. Athletic Scholarships: Institutions must allocate scholarship assistance in proportion to the number of male and female participants in its athletic program.
2. Accommodation of Athletic Interests and Abilities: Institutions must "equally and effectively" accommodate athletic interests and abilities of its female and male students, with respect to the number of participation opportunities, team competitive levels and selection of sports offered. According to the Policy Interpretation, compliance with this requirement would be assessed in accordance with a three-pronged test as follows:
a. whether the institution's intercollegiate level of participation opportunities for male and female students are provided in numbers substantially proportionate to their respective enrollments; or
b. where the members of one sex have been and are underrepresented among intercollegiate athletes, whether the institution can show a history and continuing practice of program expansion which is demonstrably responsive to the developing interest and abilities of the members of that sex; or
c. where the members of one sex are underrepresented among intercollegiate athletes, and the institution cannot show a continuing practice of program expansion, such as cited above, where it can be demonstrated that the interests and abilities of the members of that sex have been fully and effectively accommodated by the present program.
3. Other Non-financial Program Areas: Institutions must give female and male athletes equivalent treatment, benefits and opportunities in eleven enumerated program areas. Equal athletic expenditures are not required, but comparative budgets could be considered in relation to the appropriateness of equipment and supplies, games and practice schedules, travel and per diem allowances, coaches and tutors, medical and training services, housing and dining facilities and services, locker rooms, practice and competitive facilities, and publicity (TitleIX

Regulations, 1975; Title IX Policy Interpretation, 1979, cited in Wilde, 1993).
A lengthy and deliberate process was involved in the regulation of Title IX. In 1972, HEW invited 50 concerned national organizations to public briefings held to confront the issues of Title IX. These briefings were held in 12 U.S. cities with more than 3500 people attending. Media articles generated a great deal of interest and debate on the topic. As a result of these meetings, 30 of the 61 sections in the regulation of Title IX were revised. Legal issues throughout the process were confronted by the Justice Department and HEW. A congressional review of the regulation was held in June, 1975, and the Title IX regulation went into effect on July 21, 1975 (Gordon, 1982).

Secretary of HEW at that time, Caspar Weinberger, addressed the importance of Title IX regulations during a press conference in June, 1975. "The law underlying these regulations," he said, "is based on the sound premise that, in a knowledge-based society, equal opportunity in education is fundamental to equality in all other forms of human endeavor . . . The most effective enforcement of all is a public which supports the law.... I certainly hope that the educator charged with carrying out this provision will do so in a spirit that fully embraces the real purpose of the law" (Gordon, 1982).

Supposedly, the penalty for failure to comply with the guidelines outlined by Title IX was loss of federal funds. Despite the receipt of several complaints in 1972, no federal money had ever been withheld from an institution practicing gender discrimination. In fact, delays in investigations of Title IX complaints prompted the Women's Equity Action League (WEAL) to
bring suit against HEW in 1977. The judge ordered in that case a time table to be set up for HEW requiring a timely response to future complaints. In 1981, WEAL filed a contempt of court suit alleging that the OCR had ignored the timetable established by the courts. WEAL charged that the Education Department (ED), to which Title IX enforcement was transferred when HEW was split, "failed to wrap up any investigation within 90 days during the first four months of 1981" (Gordon, 1982). Despite the obvious delay in conducting their investigations, the Education Department continued to operate in this fashion with no action taken against them by the courts (Gordon, 1982).

Several conservative critics believed that Title IX was working too well. Conservatives claimed that all the delays in Title IX enforcement by the OCR were well documented and in line with necessary policies and procedures. Senator Orrin Hatch (R-UT) claimed that overzealous bureaucrats have enforced sex bias law to the point of "social fanaticism." "The Department of Education," went on to say, "in a protracted pilgrimage to the shrine of social activism, has sought to make Title IX the irresistible engine for bulldozing from the school halls of our nation practically all distinctions based on sex" (Gordon, 1982).

Recent statistics show that inequities still exist in athletic programs for men and women. These facts show that in spite of legislation in existence since 1972, great disparities still exist. They need to be abolished.
*Females make up approximately $53 \%$ of our college student population. They represent only $34 \%$ of the college athletes (Women's Sports Foundation, 1994).
*Less that $24 \%$ of college sport operating budgets are allocated to women's
sports (Women's Sports Foundation, 1994).
*Less than $33 \%$ of collegiate athletic scholarship dollars are awarded to women athletes (Women's Sports Foundation, 1994).
*Male college athletes receive over $\$ 179$ million more in scholarship dollars every year (Women's Sports Foundation, 1994).
*Money spent on recruiting female athletes accounts for less that $18 \%$ of the total money spent on recruiting (Women's Sports Foundation, 1994).
*The ratio of male athlete participants to female athlete participants at Division I-A institutions was 2.49:1 (NCAA, 1992).
*The ratio of male athlete participants to female athlete participants at Division II institutions was 2.11:1 (NCAA, 1992).
*The ratio of male athlete participants to female athlete participants at Division III institutions was 1.87:1 (NCAA, 1992).

* In Division I-A institutions, women's programs received only $18 \%$ of the total budget (Raiborn, 1990 cited in Women's Sports Foundation, 1993).
*92\% of local TV news sports coverage goes to men's sports (Women's Sports Foundation, 1994).
*The average annual athletic scholarship dollars to males at Division I schools is $\$ 849,130$ compared to $\$ 372,800$ for females (Women's Sports Foundation, 1993).
*The average annual athletic scholarship dollars to males at Division II schools is $\$ 319,543$ compared to $\$ 148,966$ for females (Women's Sports Foundation, 1993).


## Recent Case Law

The Civil Rights Restoration Act of 1987 did not achieve the immediate results that many
thought it would. In fact, the results of the 1992 NCAA Gender Equity Study revealed that in

1991 women accounted for only $30.9 \%$ of the total number of athletic participants. This percentage was almost identical to the 1984 number of $30.8 \%$ (NCAA Gender Equity Study, 1992). Although it had been almost 20 years since the passage of Title IX, no real progress had been made in establishing more opportunities for women in sport (Heckman, 1992, cited in Wilde, 1993).

## Discrimination

Franklin v. Gwinnett County Public Schools (1992). Almost coincidentally with the increased concerns for providing more opportunities for women, the Supreme Court issued its decision in the Franklin case. Even though this case does not pertain to athletics, it was a landmark case that had a dramatic impact on possible future Title IX litigations (Kellers, 1992, cited in Wilde, 1993).

A female high school student, Franklin, brought a Title IX sexual harassment suit against Gwinnett County Public Schools alleging that the district had failed to stop a teacher from forcing unwanted sexual attention on her for more than a year. The Supreme Court overturned a lower court's decision and unanimously concluded that awarding compensatory damages is an allowable recourse for victims of intentional Title IX discrimination. Although many issues concerning the specific applicability of this case to Title IX remain unresolved, the situation opens the door for redressing the inequities in athletic programs for women and provides a strong financial incentive for institutions to alleviate discrimination practices (Kellers, 1992, cited in Wilde, 1993; Scott and Semo, 1992).

## Elimination of Women's Teams

Several law suits have arisen as a result of colleges and universities eliminating varsity teams in efforts to reduce athletic budgets.

Roberts v. Colorado State University (1993). In June, 1992, Colorado State eliminated its women's varsity softball team and its men's varsity baseball team. After this cutback, women comprised $48 \%$ of the student body and only $38 \%$ of the athletes. These percentages are very comparable to many Division I institutions. The district court found that women's participation in intercollegiate athletics was not proportionate to student enrollment, and no past history of expansion for women's teams was evident. As a result, the court ordered Colorado State to reinstate the women's team, hire a coach, and maintain a competitive schedule. Monetary damages were also awarded to the plaintiffs in the decision. After the trial court's decision, the federal appeals court upheld the earlier decision (Cited in American Council on Education, 1993).

Cohen v. Brown University (1992). In May, 1991, Brown University reduced two women's and two men's varsity teams to varsity club status. Initially, 16 men's and 15 women's varsity teams were offered by the Brown University athletic department. The cuts had no impact on the proportionate participation ratios. Women accounted for $48 \%$ of the student body and $37 \%$ of varsity athletes before and after the cuts. Brown continued to offer a wide range of opportunities for women including 13 varsity sports. A district court, acting on a motion for preliminary injunction, ordered reinstatement of the two women's teams to varsity status. The
appeals court affirmed the lower court's decision (Cohen v. Brown University, 1993).
Favia v. Indiana University of Pennsylvania (1992). In August, 1991, Indiana University of Pennsylvania eliminated funding for women's gymnastics and field hockey along with men's soccer and tennis, reducing each to club sports. These cuts were made by the athletic department in response to a directive issued by the university to reduce its budget. After the cuts, women made up $36.5 \%$ of the varsity athletes and $55 \%$ of the student body. Reinstatement of the two women's teams was ordered by the court. University officials asked the court to allow the addition of women's soccer (40-50 participants) instead of women's gymnastics (10-12 participants). The court's denial of that request is on appeal (Cited in American Council on Education, 1993).

Howlett v. Gordon (1992). California State University at Fullerton (CSUF) eliminated school funding for women's volleyball and men's gymnastics, in January 1992. The women's volleyball team claimed that the elimination of volleyball violated Title IX, by denying them an equal opportunity to participate in varsity athletics. As a result of the cuts, only $24.9 \%$ of all CSUF athletes were women, while they comprised $55.6 \%$ of the student population. In March, 1992, a court disallowed CSUF the opportunity to cut the women's volleyball program.

Disagreement between the two parties was resolved as part of a consent decree wherein CSUF, in addition to reinstating women's volleyball, also agreed to establish a varsity women's soccer program for the 1992-93 season. Further proactive measures also were agreed upon by CSUF to promote more opportunities for women athletes (cited in Wilde, 1993).

## Failure to Create Teams

Alleged refusal or failure to create teams has generated law suits along with the universities willingness to eliminate teams. Universities must display a history of activity seeking to provide opportunities for women.

Cook v. Colgate University (1992). The Colgate women's club ice hockey team claimed that the university violated Title IX by not providing equal opportunities to women. After repeatedly being denied approval for varsity status, the women's ice hockey team felt that they were victims of discrimination. On four occasions the team had applied for approval as a varsity sport, and on each occasion their application denied. In 1990, women accounted for $31 \%$ of the varsity athletes and $46.7 \%$ of the undergraduate student enrollment. At the time 23 varsity sports were offered, 12 for men and 11 for women. Men's ice hockey was one of the varsity sports offered for men. Alleged discrimination was the complaint in comparing men's varsity to women's club ice hockey opportunities(Cited in Wilde, 1993).

In September 1992, Federal Magistrate, David Hurd ordered Colgate to upgrade women's ice hockey to varsity status. After briefly comparing men's and women's opportunities at Colgate, the court conducted a sport specific comparison of men's ice hockey and women's club ice hockey. This was a unique case in that no analysis of the total number of athletic opportunities in relation to the percentage of men and women enrolled at Colgate was investigated. Colgate has appealed the decision and the courts ruling is pending (cited in Wilde, 1993).

University of Texas at Austin. While the law suit against the University of Texas was pending, the university took action to create two new varsity women's teams; therefore no court action or decision was involved. A group of intramural and club team athletes filed suit to gain varsity status in four women's sports. Female participation in intercollegiate athletics was $23 \%$, which the plaintiffs felt was disproportionate to the female undergraduate enrollment of $47 \%$. Historically, no program expansion in women's athletics was evidenced and the participation numbers were clearly out of proportion to the undergraduate enrollment. The university settled the case before trial, by committing to create two new women's teams and that $44 \%$ of its varsity athletes will be women by the year 1996-97 (American Council on Education, 1993).

Auburn University. After the OCR had conducted an investigation and had accepted the university's plan for compliance, a lawsuit was filed. The plan accepted by the OCR would have only required the creation of a varsity soccer program for women. In a settlement won by the female soccer players, the university agreed to pay the plaintiffs damages and legal fees, create and maintain a women's varsity soccer team for five years, fund soccer for $\$ 360,000$ for the first two years, and a build new women's soccer facilities for practices and games. Constructing the new facilities was not part of the $\$ 360,000$ worth of funding for the first two years (American Council on Education, 1993).

## Football and Title IX

Intercollegiate football provides problems for university compliance with Title IX simply because of the number of players each school has participating. For example, in the 1993

Orange Bowl, the University of Nebraska transported 191 football players to Florida for the annual bowl game. Slightly less than 90 players were on scholarship, but all members of the team made the trip. This is typical of many Division I football programs (Bradley, 1994).

Women's athletics have no comparable sport with as many participants. It has long been the case that football has been seen as financing many women's athletic teams. In a study conducted by the Women's Sports Foundation in 1993, only 7\% of college football programs were found to be self-supporting, much less providing for other sports. If football was removed from Division I athletics, the participation ratio for men to women would be 1.27 men athletes for every woman athlete (1.27:1). This, however, does not seem to be the answer (NCAA Gender Equity Study, 1993). With football included, the participation ratio of men to women is 2.24 men athletes for every woman athlete (2.24:1) (NCAA Gender Equity Study, 1993). According to Christine Grant, Women's Athletic Director at the University of Iowa, completely eliminating football in intercollegiate athletics is a ridiculous thought, but downsizing the programs may be a viable solution (Bradley, 1994).

Chuck Nienas, executive director of the 67-member College Football Association, stated, "In most instances, if you eliminate football from the equation, there is a proportionate number of men and women competing in collegiate athletics. There is no sport women play that equates with football in numbers. That's a fact of the nature of the sport" (Bradley, 1994, p.2).

A model for Division I athletic departments to follow may be that of Division III athletic programs, in particular, football. These programs are substantially smaller than their Division

I counterpart. Budgets are much smaller, participation ratios better, and making a profit is not the top priority.

The average operating expenses for Division I athletic departments in 1991 was \$791,284 in contrast to $\$ 168,533$ for Division III athletic departments. Participation ratios varied from 1.87:1 for Division III to $2.24: 1$ for Division I. The numbers show that Division III programs are not completely equitable, but more so than Division I programs.
"No one is shying away from their Title IX responsibilities," says Nienas, "but if you're sponsoring football, proportionality in participation is damn near impossible, unless you get rid of other men's sports" (Bradley, 1994, p.2).

## Title IX and Division III

Division III athletic programs may comply with the components of Title IX better than their Division I counterparts for a variety of reasons. Ron Schipper, former athletic director at Central College(Division III) in Pella, Iowa, stated, "All athletes in our program (men and women) receive an equal opportunity to participate, and the various sports (men and women) receive equitable funding"(personal communication, March, 1994). This indicates a conscious effort on the part of the athletic director to accommodate the interests and abilities of women and men athletes within the athletic department. During the 1992-93 school year, Central College won two national championships in women's basketball and softball. The football team earned a quarter-final round berth in the NCAA playoffs. Wrestling and the men's track team registered top ten national finishes. While these programs were not in complete compliance with Title IX,
these achievements suggest that compliance with Title IX does not detract from competitive success.

Division III administrators have one advantage in comparison to their Division I colleagues. Gender equity can be addressed without the same constraints that often accompany high profile Division I sports of football and basketball (Wickerham, 1993).

Andrea Wickerham, Athletic Director at Luther College in Decorah, Iowa, said, "Division III schools do not necessarily comply perfectly with the guidelines of Title IX, but they do not receive as much media attention and exposure to display the inequities that do exist." (personal communication, November, 1993). She felt Division III schools did a better job of complying with Title IX than Division I schools, but said that there was no reason to become complacent as an athletic administrator.

According to Wickerham (1993), a good definition of gender equity is when the men's program would be pleased to accept as its own the opportunities, resources, and overall participation that is currently allocated to the women. This is not simply a Division I issue; all administrators should approach Title IX in a proactive, not reactive mind set (Wickerham, 1993).

Division III athletic departments also my comply more adequately with the components of Title IX simply because of their limited resources. Division III athletics do not provide athletic scholarships, operate on large scale budgets, or have the same philosophy toward educating student-athletes. Title IX has a distinct "Division III" tone, and small colleges should be advocates in Title IX battles in the courts and in the NCAA study of gender equity
(Wickerham, 1993).

## Future Strategies

Gender equity initiatives look good on paper, but the question remains whether institutions have the financial means to improve women's teams without cutting men's teams. Title IX was not intended to enhance women's sports at the expense of the men's programs, but in some cases, that is exactly what has happened.

At the University of Michigan, women's soccer was elevated to a varsity sport from a club sport. As a result, the men's gymnastics team was cut beginning in 1994-95. Taylor, a young women's soccer player at Michigan, stated, "I feel the men's gymnastics team hates women's soccer. We're ecstatic about the fact that we're going varsity, but we can't show how happy we are because it would look like we're happy because of their misfortune" (Lee, 1993; cited in Bradley, 1994).

Iowa State University eliminated men's tennis and gymnastics in 1994, while adding women's soccer to the intercollegiate roster. "Changes were made as a result of the new direction in intercollegiate athletics to accommodate a gender-fair environment," stated Athletic Director Gene Smith. The cuts are estimated to save the university an estimated $\$ 647,700$ over three years. With these cutbacks, ISU will have 9 men's NCAA sports and 11 for women (Kluding, 1994).

University of Iowa administrators have proactively approached Title IX, while being committed to achieving a participation ratio equivalent to its undergraduate population.

Christine Grant, women's athletic director and associate professor at Iowa, has suggested:
*Putting caps on squad sizes in men's sports. Some sports carry many more members than are necessary to practice or compete.
*Encouraging the NCAA to increase scholarship limits for women's sports.
*Allowing scholarships to be divided in all women's sports to attract more participants.
*Adding one or two women's sports since most universities now offer more sports for men.
*Restructuring of the system at the national level so expensive and nonessential practices are eliminated (Grant, 1992, cited in Wilde, 1993).

Many women's activists have waited for the NCAA to pass legislation to improve women's opportunities. Donna Lopiano, Women's Sports Foundation Executive Director, would like to see gender equity initiatives imposed by the NCAA, but does not think it is likely to happen. She says, "I had hopes that the NCAA would come up with some substantial genderequity legislation, especially since 95 percent of the members are out of compliance. Who would vote for it?" (Sherman, 1994).

The Big Ten Conference has actively worked toward improving opportunities for women. In May, 1992, the conference voted 10-1 to require that, within five years, $40 \%$ of participants in intercollegiate athletics at member institutions be women. This was the first college conference to adopt a gender equity plan (Herwig, 1992). Women currently account for $49 \%$ of the student body at Big Ten Schools and $30.5 \%$ of the Big Ten varsity athletes. Some people argued that the 60:40 male to female participation ratio over the next five years was too little
over too long a time period (Moran, 1992).
The University of Iowa has gone a step further in meeting the conference mandate, by providing that by August, 1997, athletic opportunities for women will equal their student population percentage (Press Release, University of Iowa Sports Information Department, April 21, 1992, cited in Wilde, 1993).

Other universities, such as the University of Massachusetts and the University of New Hampshire, announced similar five-year gender equity plans. Their proposals are similar to the Big Ten Conference in providing a 60:40 male to female participation ratio over five years (Herwig, 1992, cited in Wilde, 1993). Rutgers University committed to reaching their gender equity goal over a three-year period by 1995 (Rutgers Forms Equity Plan, 1992, cited in Wilde, 1993).

For the protection of intercollegiate athletics and for the integrity of amateur athletes, NCAA legislation is needed to establish gender equity mandates. Grant Teaff, long-time football coach and athletic director at Baylor University, feels the U.S. Congress will need to intervene to resolve the problem. Teaff says, "In the next five years if this thing is pushed forward without Congress stepping in, football programs are going to be dropped or cut severely" (Bradley, 1994).

While existing as a forerunner in promoting gender equity, the Commissioner of the Big Ten Conference, Jim Delaney, has suggested the following methods for improving women's participation ratios:
*Conducting campaigns to encourage women to join athletic teams even if they don't receive a scholarship.
*Upgrading women's club sports to varsity status.
*Creating junior varsity sports that hold the greatest interest to women, such as volleyball and basketball.
*Establishing size limits on the squad sizes of men's teams, with reductions of 10 percent or more, depending on the size required to practice and compete (Moran, 1992).

## Federal and State Legislation

The "Equity in Athletics Disclosure Act" was proposed in February, 1993, by U.S. Representative Cardis Collins, D-ILL. Components of the bill required that all colleges receiving federal funds disclose their total expenditures for men's and women's athletics (Herwig, February, 1993). In the past, the NCAA has supported such laws as the Federal Student-Athlete Right-to-Know-Act, requiring the public disclosure of student-athlete graduation rates. With this in mind, it would not be surprising if the NCAA adopted legislation similar to the "Equity in Athletics Disclosure Act" (Wilde, 1993).

At the 1994 NCAA Convention, delegates overwhelmingly passed legislation in support of gender equity. According to the new law, member institutions will be expected to abide by Federal and state laws pertaining to gender equity, the NCAA will not create laws that would prevent members from complying with Title IX, and the activities of the NCAA should be conducted in a manner free of gender inequities (NCAA News, 1994, January 19).

Lawmakers in the Florida Legislature introduced bills that would penalize schools that
did not provide equitable athletic opportunities for men and women. The bills allow the state to withhold money from schools that do not abide by the laws or violate Title IX legislation. Passed in 1984, the Florida Education Equity Act required every state university to develop a gender-equity plan to be checked annually by a state agency. Provisions of the plan included consideration of equity in sports offered, scholarships, facilities, and recruiting for male and female athletes. These bills of the Florida Legislature are unique in that they exclude football from the gender-equity equation (Wilde, 1993). This fact raises considerable debate whether any law can be equitable if it excludes football. Similar legislation may be necessary in other states to upgrade the level of women's opportunities.

## NCAA Legislation

Many intercollegiate administrators have been caught in the hot seat concerning gender equity. When the NCAA gender equity task force addressed issues of Title IX, most universities awaited being provided specific guidelines for which to follow concerning Title IX. The NCAA has been reluctant in legislating member schools to follow certain gender-equity guidelines (Hogan, 1993).

The need for NCAA legislation regarding Title IX may become essential, since the Supreme Court ruled in 1992 that monetary damages can be awarded in cases of gender discrimination. It may become a financial necessity that the NCAA pass laws concerning Title IX in order to protect itself from damaging lawsuits (Scott and Semo, 1992, March 4).

NCAA officials could save university administrators a great deal of time and conflict if

Title IX policies were simply imposed on member institutions. Donna Lopiano, Executive Director of the Women's Sport Foundation simply states, "Men and women in sport need to sit down together and decide how to fairly share limited resources" (Hogan, 1993, March 4). It is with this attitude that the following suggestions are provided by Hogan (1993, December 6) for NCAA legislation concerning Title IX.

1. Pass legislation that insists on equity in the following areas that are shared by both sexes (e.g. men's and women's basketball, etc.)
*Number of full and part-time coaches
*Number of athletic scholarships
*Travel opportunities, accommodations, food, etc.
*Tutoring and counseling opportunities
*Access to medical and athletic training facilities
*Practice facilities and time allotment
*Equipment and supplies
*Equality and quantity of locker room
*Recruiting budget
*Marketing budget
*Housing and dining facilities
2. Provide opportunities to both teams of both sexes to raise and retain revenue derived from corporate sponsorship, donations and gate receipts that supplement the individual sport's budget from the university.
3. Determine coaches' salaries and contracts by the marketplace and the amount of money the institution has available to spend for this purpose. Job descriptions should be specific, and any differences should be identified and discussed with head coaches, particularly those that are "same sport, both sexes." Deliberate attempts to discriminate solely on the basis of sex should be vigorously litigated.
4. By 1995-96, offer the same number of intercollegiate sports for men and women, except for the following conditions:
a. Where there are already in place more women's than men's sports.
b. If one of the men's sports is football, the institution must have two more women's sports than men's.
5. Avoid need-based scholarships for Division I student-athletes. The NCAA Gender-Equity Task Force recommended a decrease in the amount of athletics aid not based on need. Such a "Division III" type financial aid approach is an administrative nightmare and significantly increases chance for unfair competition.
6. Once sports have been balanced through "step four", no university or college should be forced to add sports or elevate sports from club to varsity status unless there is evidence of past discrimination.
7. Prohibit colleges and universities form dropping sports solely to achieve gender equity.
8. Do not permit women to play on men's teams or men to play on women's teams.

Issues of gender discrimination have caused considerable change in intercollegiate athletics over the past twenty years since the passage of Title IX in the Education Amendments Act of 1972. What changes will occur in the future years is unknown. Certainly, schools can no longer avoid adhering to Title IX and must address issues of compliance, which at the present seem to be not infrequently defined by the courts.

A good guideline to follow as an athletic administrator in determining whether equal opportunities for women are being provided is the three-prong test used by the Office for Civil Rights.

According to this test, an institution mush show:

* That intercollegiate participation opportunities for its students of each sex are substantially proportionate to its male and female undergraduate enrollments, or
* A history and continuing practice of program expansion responsive to developing interests and abilities of members of the "underrepresented sex," or
* That the interests and abilities of the "underrepresented sex" are "fully and effectively accommodated" by the existing program (American Council on Education, 1993).

While eliminating gender discrimination at offending institutions is the ultimate goal, men and women athletes, coaches, and administrators need to be knowledgeable about Title IX and if necessary pursue litigation, for enforcement (Jacob, 1993).

As Sue M. Durant, an associate professor at Washington State, stated, "Laws are not selfenforcing. For equality to become reality, we must act when that right is denied. We promote equality and eliminate discrimination when we are knowledgeable about the laws, when we become aware of the discrimination which exists, and when we take action. The more we know about the laws, the more leverage we have in addressing the inequities ..." (Durant, 1992, p. 63, cited in Jacob, 1993).

## METHODOLOGY

## Subjects

Five hundred and ten NCAA Division III athletic directors, faculty athletic representatives, and women's basketball coaches were contacted and asked to participate in the study. They represented one hundred and seventy randomly selected schools from the three hundred and forty three NCAA Division III schools that exist in the United States (NCAA Directory, 1993-94). The subjects represented various size schools and athletic departments from a variety of geographical locations. NCAA Division III institutions were selected because the researcher felt they would provide a unique population in terms of issues related to Title IX. NCAA Division III schools represent those institutions that do not offer athletic scholarships to student-athletes. Division III schools must adhere to regulations that fall under the categories of ethical conduct, conduct and employment of athletic personnel, amateurism, recruiting, eligibility, and playing and practice seasons. In the past, NCAA analysis of Title IX issues has focused on larger Division I schools, while Division III schools have received limited attention.

## Instrument

In order to determine the athletic director, faculty athletic representative, and the women's basketball coach's perceptions of Title IX, a survey instrument was designed by the researcher (Appendix A). The first section of the "Title IX Compliance Survey" included fortysix questions representing the twelve conceptual areas outlined by The Final Report of the NCAA Gender-Equity Task Force (NCAA, 1992). These areas include: equipment and supplies
$(\mathrm{N}=4)$, scheduling of games and practice times $(\mathrm{N}=4)$, travel and per diem allowances $(\mathrm{N}=5)$, coaching and academic support services $(\mathrm{N}=3)$, assignment and compensation of coaches and tutors $(\mathrm{N}=3)$, provision of locker rooms and competitive facilities $(\mathrm{N}=4)$, provision of medical and training facilities $(\mathrm{N}=3)$, provision of housing and dining facilities ( $\mathrm{N}=3$ ), publicity and promotions ( $\mathrm{N}=5$ ), recruiting ( $\mathrm{N}=3$ ), support services $(\mathrm{N}=4)$, and admissions/ grants in aid ( $\mathrm{N}=2$ ). Each conceptual area was analyzed by subjects responses to the questions on a Likert Scale ( $1=$ Not At All, $9=$ Totally $)$. Following the conceptual questions, three general questions were asked regarding subjects perceptions of their schools overall compliance with Title IX. It was anticipated that the survey would take ten to fifteen minutes to complete.

Individuals responded using a Likert Scale (1-9) indicating the extent to which they perceived their athletic program provided comparable opportunities for female and male athletes in the areas identified. A score of "1" indicated an individual perceived the athletic department at their institution to be "Not At All" in compliance with Title IX for that specific question, while a "9" indicated the individual perceived that the athletic program at their institution was "Totally" in compliance with the components of Title IX. Subjects were able to respond by circling "NA", if a particular question was not applicable, or if they didn't have the information available to answer a particular question.

The second section of the survey solicited information regarding the demographic characteristics of the sample (race, gender, age, position held, educational background, coaching status, and years of experience). In addition information was requested about the characteristics
of the school (size) and athletic program (number of male and female varsity athletes, women and men's athletic department budgets, number of full and part-time coaches, and number of sports offered).

A Cronbach Alpha was used to determine the reliability of individuals responses to the Title IX items. The validity of the items was based on the previous work of Jacobs (1993). In his study of college women athletes knowledge of Title IX, he developed true-false compliance items which he presented to a panel of nine experts. These experts agreed that the items were accurate representations of the rules outlining Title IX. In addition, the items reflect the review of literature and were derived from various Title IX law cases and settlements.

## Procedure

In order to assess whether differences existed among NCAA Division III athletic directors, faculty athletic representatives, and women's basketball coaches perceptions of their institutions' compliance with Title IX, the Title IX Compliance Survey was distributed to a random sample of one hundred and seventy NCAA Division III institutions. The survey was mailed to each subject bearing the title of Athletic Director, NCAA Faculty Athletic Representative, and Head Women's Basketball Coach at each of the institutions identified.

Each of the one hundred NCAA Division III schools surveyed was selected from a published directory entitled 1992-93 NCAA Directory. The schools surveyed were randomly selected by using a computer program. The athletic director, faculty athletic representative, and women's basketball coach at each selected institution received a survey and letter explaining the
purpose and instructions for completing the survey (Appendix). The survey and letter were mailed and addressed to the position titles of athletic director, faculty athletic representative, and women's basketball coach, not the individual names of the persons holding these positions. The surveys were coded by placing a number on the back page of the survey that identified the school and type of subject. This enabled the researcher to know which individuals responded to the survey.

The letter (Appendix B,C,D) accompanying the survey reviewed the researchers background and rationale for the study. Subjects were told that their responses to the questions and data collected would remain strictly confidential. A self-addressed postage paid envelope was provided. The surveys were mailed out in early September, 1994. Subjects were asked to return the surveys within three weeks. This mailing period, during the preseason of athletic competition and prior to the start of classes, was selected to generate a higher response rate. Rather than using a follow up letter the population was over sampled. A fifty per cent return rate was anticipated. In order to determine the reasons some individuals might fail to return the survey, a limited follow up phone survey was conducted. One athletic director, women's basketball coach, and faculty athletic representative was contacted and asked to provide information regarding their failure to return the survey. Once the data were collected, the information was coded and placed on the computer. The surveys were then discarded and destroyed to ensure confidentiality of the results.

After waiting several weeks for the surveys to be returned, five non-respondents were
contacted to ascertain their reasons for not returning the surveys. Two athletic directors, two women's basketball coaches, and one faculty athletic representative were contacted. One person attributed their lack of interest and limited involvement with the athletic department as reasons why they failed to return the survey. The length of the survey and their limited time schedule was mentioned by two contacts as the basis for their failure to return the survey. One person simply forgot about the study and failed to respond, while another stated that they just never got around to filling it out and returning it.

The Iowa State University Use of Human Subjects in Research Committee reviewed this study and determined that the rights and welfare of the subjects was adequately protected, that confidentiality of the data was assured, that minimal risks were assumed by the subjects, and that informed consent was obtained through appropriate procedures (Appendix G).

## Statistical Analysis

Initially, the demographic data was analyzed and simple frequencies calculated to gain a greater understanding about the characteristics of the sample. This included examining race, gender, age, position, and educational background of the respondents.

Next, responses to the Title IX Compliance Survey were examined by computing the overall sample means and standard deviation for each item. Means and standard deviations were also computed for the athletic directors, faculty athletic representatives, and women's basketball coaches in each of the conceptual areas and general section.

Internal consistency of the scale was assessed using Cronbach's reliability coefficient.

Table 3 summarizes the Cronbach alpha values by conceptual area.
Finally, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine if any statistically significant differences existed on responses to the Title IX Compliance Survey between the athletic directors, faculty athletic representatives, and women's basketball coaches. This was done by conceptual area. Appropriate follow up tests were employed, if significant differences were obtained.

Table 3.

## Cronbach Alpha Coefficient Values by Conceptual Area

| Conceptual Area | Cronbach Alpha Value |
| :--- | :--- |
| Provision of Equipment and Supplies | .47 |
| Scheduling of Games and Practice Times | .39 |
| Travel and Per Diem Allowances | .29 |
| Coaching and Academic Support Services | .57 |
| Assignment and Compensation of Coaches |  |
| and Tutors |  |
| Provision of Locker Rooms and Competitive |  |
| Facilities |  |
| Provision of Medical and Training Facilities |  |
| Provision of Housing and Dining Facilities | .41 |
| Publicity and Promotions | .42 |
| Recruiting | .53 |
| Support Services | .40 |
| Admissions/ Grants in Aid | .35 |
| General | .43 |
| Overall Average | .43 |

## RESULTS

## Age, Gender, and Race of Respondents

In order to better understand the data collected, first a review of the demographic characteristics of the sample will be presented. Five hundred and ten surveys were mailed to 170 athletic directors, 170 faculty athletic representatives, and 170 women's basketball coaches representing 170 different institutions. Completed surveys were returned by 160 subjects for an overall return rate of $31.37 \%$. Sixty nine athletic directors (40.59\%), twenty two (12.94\%) faculty athletic representatives, and sixty eight (40\%) women's basketball coaches returned surveys. One of the respondents did not indicate their position held (Figure 1). Athletic directors and coaches were similarly the most represented in the sample and faculty representatives the least. One hundred and seven different institutions or $62.94 \%$ of the original schools sampled were represented by the surveys returned. Fifteen additional surveys also were returned from schools, which enroll students of only one gender. Those surveys were not included in the statistical analysis.

The gender of respondents was similar with women ( $\mathrm{N}=78$ ) representing $50.64 \%$ of the sample and men $(\mathrm{N}=76) 49.35 \%$. No gender data were available for $3.75 \%$ of the respondents ( $\mathrm{N}=6$ ). This can be seen more graphically in Figure 2.

Further analysis of the data revealed some interesting facts with regard to gender and position held as shown by Table 4. Women were highly under-represented as athletic directors and faculty representatives, while they were over represented as women's basketball coaches.

| Legend |
| :--- |
| $\square$ ATHLETIC DIRECTOR |
| $\square$ FACULTY ATHLETIC REPRESENTATIVE |
| $\square$ WOMENS BB COACH |
| OTHER |



Figure 1. Occupation of Respondents


Figure 2. Gender of Respondents

Table 4.

| Position | Female |  | Male |  | Row Total |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | N | \% | N | \% | N | \% |
| Athletic Director | 19 | 28 | 48 | 72 | 67 | 43.51 |
| Faculty Representative | 4 | 19 | 17 | 81 | 21 | 13.64 |
| Women's BB Coaches | 55 | 83 | 11 | 17 | 66 | 42.86 |
| Column Total | 78 |  | 76 |  | 154 |  |
| Percentage of Total | 50.65 |  | 49.35 |  | 100 |  |

$\mathrm{N}=6$ Missing Cases

A majority $(\mathrm{N}=141)$ of the respondents in the study were Caucasian (88.13\%) with only 4.38\% Black ( $\mathrm{N}=7$ ), and $.63 \%$ Native American $(\mathrm{N}=1)$. No data were available $(\mathrm{N}=11)$ for $6.88 \%$ of the respondents (Figure 3). The low representation of African Americans was not unexpected, but indicates the data represents white male and female perceptions. Race by position may be seen on Table 5.

Table 5.
Race of Athletic Directors, Faculty Representatives and Women's BB Coaches

| Position | Caucasian | Black | Native American | Totals |  |
| :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  | 59 | 4 | 0 | 6342.28 |
| Athletic Director |  |  |  |  |  |
| Faculty Representatives | 20 | 0 | 0 | 2013.42 |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Women's BB Coaches | 62 | 3 | 1 | 6644.30 |  |
| Totals | 141 | 7 | 1 | 149 |  |
|  | $94.63 \%$ | $4.70 \%$ | $.67 \%$ | $100 \%$ |  |

$\mathrm{N}=11$ Missing Cases


Figure 3. Race of Respondents

The mean age of all subjects responding to the survey $(\mathrm{N}=149)$ was 42.28 years with the ages ranging from 24 to 65 years. The athletic directors had a mean age of 47.30 years compared to 34.71 years old for the women's basketball coaches. These age differences may have played a role in the varying perceptions of Title IX Complinace. The faculty representatives were the oldest group in the study with a mean age of 51.45 . No age data were reported by $6.88 \%$ of the respondents $(\mathrm{N}=11)$. Table 6 presents the age of respondents by position held.

Educational Background, Position Held, Years of Experience, and Coaching Status
All respondents indicated having earned some form of higher education. A bachelor's degree $(\mathrm{N}=13)$ was the highest level of education for only $8.13 \%$ of the respondents. Ninety

Table 6.
Age of Athletic Directors, Faculty Representatives and Women's BB Coaches

| Age | Athletic Director | Faculty Representatives | Women's BB Coaches | Totals |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | N | \% |
| 24-28 | 0 | 0 | 13 | 13 | 872 |
| 30-39 | 11 | 3 | 37 | 51 | 3423 |
| 40-49 | 24 | 3 | 12 | 39 | 2617 |
| 50-59 | 24 | 10 | 4 | 38 | 2530 |
| 60-65 | 4 | 4 | 0 | 8 | 537 |
| Totals | 63 | 20 | 66 | 149 |  |
| Percent | 42.28\% | 13.42\% | 44.30\% | 100 |  |

[^0]seven subjects ( $60.63 \%$ ) indicated they had completed their master's degree. Doctoral degrees $(\mathrm{N}=41)$ were held by $25.63 \%$ of the respondents, while $(\mathrm{N}=9) 5.63 \%$ indicated some other level of education (Figure 4). In general the athletic directors had more education when compared to the women's basketball coaches, whereas the faculty representatives had the most education of the three groups. Table 7 shows the education level of the respondents by their position.


Figure 4. Educational Background of Respondents

## Table 7.

Education Level of Athletic Directors, Faculty Representatives and Women's BB Coaches

| Education | Bachelor's Degree | Master's Degree |  | Doctoral Degree |  | Other |  | Total |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | N \% | N | \% | N | \% | N | \% | N | \% |
| Athletic Director | 11.54 | 44 | 67.69 | 19 | 29.23 | 1 | 1.54 | 65 | 42.76 |
| Faculty Representatives | 4.76 | 3 | 14.29 | 17 | 80.95 | 0 | 0 | 21 | 13.82 |
| Women's BB Coaches | $11 \quad 16.67$ | 50 | 75.76 | 5 | 7.58 | 0 | 0 | 66 | 43.42 |
| Totals | 13 | 97 |  | 41 |  | 1 |  | 152 | 100.0 |
| Percentage of Total | 8.55 | 63.82 |  | 26.97 |  | . 66 |  | 100 |  | N = 8 Missing Cases

Analysis of the sample by years of experience in their current job showed that across the sample the average years of experience was 7.89 years. For athletic directors the average years of experience was 8.27 years, while women's basketball coaches had the least experience at 6.50 years. The faculty representatives had the most experience with 11.14 years on the average. Analysis of gender by years experience revealed that on average males had 10.24 years experience compared to 6.92 for the females.

Examination of the data on participation in intercollegiate athletics indicated that a large majority ( $\mathrm{N}=138,86.25 \%$ ) of the overall sample had participated in intercollegiate athletics. Of the athletic directors responding, $93.85 \%$ indicated having participated in intercollegiate athletics, while in college. The faculty representatives had $71.43 \%$ that had participated in athletics. The coaches of women's teams (93.94\%) had a slightly higher level of participation
than athletic directors. Analysis of participation in intercollegiate athletics by gender showed that $92.31 \%$ of the females had participated in college athletics, while participation was slightly less for the men (89.19\%).

The educational level by gender is shown on Table 8. Eighty six percent of the women had a bachelor's degree or master's degree and $14.10 \%$ doctoral degrees. In contrast $40.54 \%$ of the men had doctoral degrees. The age and role of men as academic representatives and athletic directors appear to be reflected in the higher levels of education of the men.

Coaching status also provided some interesting facts with $61.88 \%(\mathrm{~N}=99)$ of the overall

## Table 8.

Educational Level By Gender of Respondents

| Education | Female |  | Male |  | Total |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | N | \% | N | \% | N | \% |
| Bachelor's Degree | 10 | 12.82 | 3 | 4.05 | 13 | 8.55 |
| Master's Degree | 57 | 73.08 | 40 | 54.05 | 97 | 63.82 |
| Doctoral Degree | 11 | 14.10 | 30 | 40.54 | 41 | 26.97 |
| Other | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1.35 | 1 | . 66 |
| Total | 78 |  | 74 |  | 152 |  |
| Percentage of Total | 51.32 |  | 48.68 |  | 100 |  |

respondents indicating that they were coaching at the present time. Forty six percent of the athletic directors were coaching at the time of this survey and forteen percent of the faculty representatives. Those currently coaching had an average of 7.09 years experience, while those not coaching had 8.87 years experience on the job.

## School Enrollment, Number of Varsity Athletes

Institutions responding to the study varied widely in enrollment size with an average of 2,668.18 students ( $\mathrm{N}=107$ ). The enrollments reported ranged from 500 to 14,000 . Sixty three percent $(\mathrm{N}=67)$ reported enrollments of 2,000 or less students, while $37 \%(\mathrm{~N}=40)$ indicated a student body of more than 2,000 . Therefore, the data tends to represent smaller size schools.

The number of male athletes participating at the schools ( $\mathrm{N}=121$ ) surveyed ranged from 50 to 590 , with an average of 218.52 male athletes per school. Female athletes $(N=121)$ had a reported mean participation of 137.12 with a range from 40 to 400 . No data $(N=39)$ were available for $24.38 \%$ of the respondents.

## Men's Sports Offered

The number of men's sports offered at each institution $(\mathrm{N}=153)$ ranged from 5 to 16 with a mean of 9.14 . As can be seen on Table 9, basketball was the most frequently offered male sport and wrestling the least. Football ranked fifth in frequency of offerings.

## Women's Sports Offered

Fewer sports were available to women with a mean score of 8.50 and range of 8 to 15 from the 153 responding schools. No data $(\mathrm{N}=7)$ were available for $4.38 \%$ of the respondents.

Table 9.
Frequency of Male Sports Offered at Division III Schools

\left.| Sport | Frequency |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| N Schools |  |$\right]$ Percentage

Basketball was the most frequently offered sport followed by tennis, volleyball and cross country. Golf and field hockey were the least frequently offered (Table 10). Women's basketball was offered at 146 of the schools surveyed which was identical to the number of schools in the survey that offered men's basketball.

Table 10.

## Frequency of Female Sports Offered at Division III Schools

\left.| Sport | Frequency |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| N Schools |  |$\right]$ Percentage

Summary of Demographic Characteristics of Sample
In summarizing the data about the sample the following three profiles are suggested. In general athletic directors tended to be 47 year old white males with a masters or higher level of education, 8.27 years job experience, former participants in intercollegiate athletics and not
currently coaching. The faculty representatives were typically 52 year old white males possessing a doctoral degree. They too had been college athletes, averaged 11.14 years job experience, and were not currently coaching. Women's basketball coaches on the other hand were generally 35 year old white females with a masters degree level of education, former intercollegiate athletes, had 6.5 years of job experience and were all currently coaching.

## Analysis of Conceptual Areas

In order to analyze subjects perceptions of their institutions compliance with Title IX, initially means and standard deviations for each item were computed for the entire sample (Table 11). Recalling that a nine point scale was employed ( $1=$ Not At All, $9=$ Totally $)$, it can be seen the highest mean scores had to do with provision of housing and dining facilities, scheduling of games and practice times, and provision of medical and training facilities. The lowest mean scores were observed for general compliance, assignment and compensation of coaches and tutors, and publicity and promotions.

Table 11.
Title IX Compliance Rank Ordered Means and Standard Deviations By Item

| N Item | Mean | Standard <br> Deviation |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| 29. Dormitories were similar in size | 8.94 | .37 |
| 28. Dining facilities were similar in quality | 8.92 | .53 |
| 27. Dormitory housing was similar in quality | 8.90 | .39 |

Table 11. (continued)

| N Item | Mean | Standard <br> Deviation |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 21. Comparable competitive facilities were provided for similar sports | 8.89 | . 57 |
| 6. Provided similar amounts of practice time | 8.79 | . 77 |
| 16. Availability of academic tutoring was similar | 8.79 | 1.18 |
| 36. Male and female recruits received comparable benefits while visiting campus | 8.79 | . 85 |
| 8. Practice times were similar | 8.75 | . 96 |
| 26. Training equipment was comparable | 8.70 | 1.04 |
| 7. Competitive schedules were similar | 8.69 | . 93 |
| 5. Provided similar practice facilities | 8.69 | 1.12 |
| 24. Similar \# of athletic trainers were provided | 8.69 | 1.06 |
| 41. Custodial assistance was proportional to the size of each program | 8.60 | 1.43 |
| 13. Similar quality hotels were provided | 8.58 | 1.20 |
| 15. Tutors spend similar amounts of time with men and women athletes | 8.52 | 1.48 |
| 40. Coaches were provided similar computer access | 8.46 | 1.65 |
| 10. Hotel stays were similar | 8.33 | 1.67 |
| 12. Modes of transportation were similar | 8.32 | 1.66 |

Table 11. (continued)

| N Item | Mean | Standard <br> Deviation |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 42. Comparable number of athletes received non-athletic financial aid | 8.31 | 1.96 |
| 11. Meal allowances were similar | 8.29 | 1.56 |
| 1. Provided equipment of similar quality | 8.26 | 1.41 |
| 38. Secretarial assistance was similar | 8.22 | 1.89 |
| 43. Comparable number of academic scholarships were provided | 8.20 | 1.98 |
| 9. Hotel accommodations were similar | 8.17 | 1.75 |
| 4. Equipment replaced on a similar basis | 8.09 | 1.72 |
| 2. Provided comparable amounts of equipment | 8.06 | 1.68 |
| 39. Equivalent office space was provided for coaches | 8.06 | 2.04 |
| 35. Coaches were allocated similar amounts of release time to recruit | 7.96 | 2.20 |
| 23. Shower facilities were similar | 7.90 | 2.29 |
| 25. The Head Athletic Trainer spent comparable time with men's and women's teams | 7.73 | 2.22 |
| 46. Compliance in comparison to other schools in the conference | 7.73 | 2.11 |
| 20. Similar quality locker rooms were provided | 7.72 | 2.46 |
| 33. SID submitted a comparable \# of stories for men's and women's sports | 7.72 | 2.01 |

Table 11. (continued)

| N Item | Mean | Standard <br> Deviation |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 31. Media guides had similar quality | 7.70 | 2.10 |
| 37. Similar recruiting budgets | 7.68 | 2.46 |
| 34. A similar \# of SID personnel were assigned to cover men's and women's sports | 7.67 | 2.20 |
| 3. Similar equipment budgets provided | 7.65 | 2.23 |
| 22. Locker rooms were of similar size | 7.61 | 2.38 |
| 18. Number of coaches for men's and women's basketball was similar | 7.42 | 2.59 |
| 30. Publicity budgets were similar for men \& women | 7.37 | 2.22 |
| 45. Overall, the athletic department complied with Title IX | 7.33 | 2.23 |
| 32. SID office spent comparable time promoting men's and women's sports | 7.26 | 2.28 |
| 14. Coaches receive similar amounts of time for coaching and other duties | 7.23 | 2.46 |
| 19. Coaching experience for men's and women's teams was comparable | 7.15 | 2.42 |
| 17. Similar coaches received comparable salaries | 6.84 | 2.88 |
| 44. Proportion of male/female athletes to the male/ female undergraduate enrollment was similar | 5.35 | 2.85 |

For ease of understanding and further analysis, the items were next grouped by the conceptual areas from which they were drawn and means and standard deviations computed. The number of items categorized by conceptual area is shown on Table 12, while Table 13 shows the rank order of the obtained means.

## Table 12.

Title IX Compliance Number of Items By Conceptual Area

| Conceptual Area | N of Items |
| :--- | :--- |
| Provision of Equipment and Supplies | 4 |
| Scheduling of Games and Practice Times | 4 |
| Travel and Per Diem Allowances | 5 |
| Coaching and Academic Support Services | 3 |
| Assignment and Compensation of Coaches and Tutors | 3 |
| Provision of Locker Rooms and Competitive Facilities | 4 |
| Provision of Medical and Training Facilities | 3 |
| Provision of Housing and Dining Facilities | 3 |
| Publicity and Promotions | 5 |
| Recruiting | 3 |
| Support Services | 4 |
| Admissions/Grants in Aid | 2 |
| General Compliance | 3 |

Table 13.
Title IX Compliance Rank Ordered Means and Standard Deviations By Conceptual Area

| Conceptual Area | Mean | Standard Deviation |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Provision of Housing and Dining Facilities | 8.91 | .32 |
| Scheduling of Games and Practice Times | 8.73 | .76 |
| Provision of Medical and Training Facilities | 8.36 | 1.15 |
| Support Services | 8.34 | 1.33 |
| Travel and Per Diem Allowances | 8.34 | 1.31 |
| Admissions/Grants in Aid | 8.30 | 1.73 |
| Recruiting | 8.13 | 1.50 |
| Coaching and Academic Support Services | 8.11 | 1.36 |
| Provision of Equipment and Supplies | 8.06 | 1.41 |
| Provision of Locker Rooms and Competitive Facilities | 8.03 | 1.62 |
| Publicity and Promotions | 7.43 | 2.02 |
| Assignment and Compensation of Coaches and Tutors | 7.17 | 2.10 |
| General Compliance | 6.80 | 2.01 |

These means on a nine point scale ranged from 8.91 to 6.80 . In 10 of the 13 conceptual areas the means were 8.03 or higher. This suggests the sample tends to perceive that their programs are to a large extent in compliance with Title IX.

Analysis by role of respondent (Appendix F) showed the mean scores obtained for items by conceptual area were lower for the women's basketball coaches than those of athletic directors and faculty athletic representatives. The athletic directors generally had the highest scores followed by the faculty representatives and then the women's basketball coaches. Athletic directors and faculty representatives tended to respond more similarly than coaches.

## Provision of Equipment and Supplies

In order to determine whether observed differences by conceptual area varied by role analysis of variance was employed. This analysis by provision of equipment and supplies for the overall sample eventuated in a mean of 8.06 and standard deviation of 1.41. Significant differences were found in perceptions between athletic directors, faculty athletic representatives and women's basketball coaches $\mathrm{F}(2,151)=15.30, \mathrm{p}<.05$. This can be seen more graphically in Figure 5. The Scheffe follow up test indicated that the athletic directors and faculty athletic representatives scored these items significantly higher than the women's basketball coaches (Table 14). This means that the athletic directors and faculty athletic representatives felt that their institutions did a better job in complying with the components of Title IX in reference to providing equipment and supplies, than did the women's basketball coaches. No significant difference existed between the athletic directors and the faculty representatives.

Table 14.
Means and Standard Deviations for Equipment and Supplies By Position

|  | Number of <br> Respondents | Mean | S.D. | F-Test |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Athletic Director | 68 | 8.63 | .80 | $15.30 * * *$ |
| Faculty Representative | 21 | 8.48 | .73 |  |
| Women's BB Coaches | 65 | 7.33 | 1.96 |  |

$* * *=.001$

## Scheduling of Games and Practice Times

As shown on Figure 5, significant differences also were obtained between the groups $\mathrm{F}(2,155)=5.42, \mathrm{p}<.05$ with regard to perceptions of scheduling games and practice times. Scheffe follow up test indicated athletic directors scored these items significantly higher than the women's basketball coaches. No significant differences were found between the faculty representatives and athletic directors or between the faculty representatives and women's basketball coaches. Further statistics are shown on Table 15.


Figure 5. Mean Scores by Conceptual Area and Position

Table 15.
Means and Standard Deviations For Scheduling of Games and Practice By Position

|  | Number of <br> Respondents | Mean | S.D. | F-ratio |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Position | 69 | 8.93 | .28 | $5.42 * *$ |
| Athletic Director | 21 | 8.74 | .57 |  |
| Faculty Representative |  | 88 | 8.52 | 1.04 |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| Women's BB Coaches | 68 |  |  |  |
| $*=.01$ |  |  |  |  |

## Travel and Per Diem Allowances

Significant differences also were found between the groups $\mathrm{F}(2,152)=12.69, \mathrm{p}<.05$, on the items which focused on travel and per diem allowances. This also may be seen more graphically in Figure 5. The Scheffe follow up test indicated that the athletic directors and faculty athletic representatives scored these items significantly higher than women's basketball coaches (Table 16). No significant differences were found between the athletic directors and the faculty athletic representatives.

Table 16.
Means and Standard Deviations For Travel and Per Diem Allowances By Position

|  | Number of <br> Respondents | Mean | S.D. | F-ratio |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Position | 69 | 8.73 | .77 | $12.69 * * *$ |
| Athletic Director | 18 | 8.92 | .16 |  |
| Faculty Representative | 68 | 7.78 | 1.67 |  |
| Women's BB Coaches | 68 |  |  |  |

## Coaching and Academic Support Services

Analysis of the data on coaching and academic support services also produced significant differences between the groups $\mathrm{F}(2,56)=5.45, \mathrm{p}<.05$ (Table 17). The Scheffe follow up test indicated that the athletic directors scored these items significantly higher than the women's

Table 17.
Means and Standard Deviation For Coaching and Academic Services By Position

| Position | Number of <br> Respondents | Mean | S.D. | F-ratio |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Athletic Director | 17 | 8.86 | .27 | $5.45 * *$ |
| Faculty Representative | 9 | 8.41 | .72 |  |
| Women's BB Coaches | 33 | 7.65 | 1.63 |  |

** $=.01$
basketball coaches. The faculty athletic representatives did not differ significantly from the athletic directors and women's basketball coaches. This is shown on Figure 5.

## Assignment and Compensation of Coaches and Tutors

As shown on Table 18, significant difference also existed between the groups $\mathrm{F}(2,129)$ $=13.09, \mathrm{p}<.05$, with women's basketball coaches scoring these items on assignment and compensation of coaches and tutors significantly lower than the athletic directors and faculty athletic representatives (Figure 6). Athletic directors and faculty representatives did not differ significantly.

Table 18.
Means and Standard Deviation For Assignment \& Compensation of Coaches By Position

|  | Number of <br> Respondents | Mean | S.D. | F-ratio |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Athletic Director | 65 | 7.90 | 1.49 | $13.09 * * *$ |
| Faculty Representative | 15 | 7.67 | 1.58 |  |
| Women's BB Coaches | 52 | 6.10 | 2.45 |  |

*** $=.001$


Figure 6. Mean Scores by Conceptual Area and Position

## Provision of Locker Rooms and Competitive Facilities

An analysis of data on locker rooms and competitive facilities, which can be seen more graphically in Figure 6 also showed significant difference existed between the groups $F(2,154)$ $=4.76, \mathrm{p}<.05$. Athletic directors again scored these items significantly higher that the women's basketball coaches (Table 19). The faculty representatives scores did not differ significantly from the women's basketball coaches or athletic directors.

Table 19.
Means and Standard Deviation For Provision of Locker Rooms By Position

|  | Number of <br> Respondents | Mean | S.D. | F-ratio |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Athletic Director | 69 | 8.35 | 1.06 | $4.76 * *$ |
| Faculty Representative | 20 | 8.44 | .90 |  |
| Women's BB Coaches | 68 | 7.58 | 2.09 |  |
| $* *=.01$ |  |  |  |  |

## Provision of Medical and Training Facilities

As illustrated by Figure 6 and Table 20, significant differences were found between the groups in terms of their perceptions of provision of medical and training facilities $F(2,149)=$ 4.76, $\mathrm{p}<.05$. Again the women's basketball coaches scored these items significantly lower than the athletic directors. No significant differences were found when comparing the faculty athletic

Table 20.
Means and Standard Deviation For Medical and Training Facilities By Position

|  | Number of <br> Respondents | Mean | S.D. | F-ratio |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Position | 66 | 8.58 | .95 | $4.76 * *$ |
| Faculty Representative | 19 | 8.70 | .63 |  |
| Women's BB Coaches | 67 | 8.05 | 1.35 |  |

** $=.01$
representatives scores with the athletic directors and women's basketball coaches.

## Provision of Housing and Dining Facilities

In terms of providing housing and dining facilities (Table 21) the athletic directors scored these items significantly higher than the women's basketball coaches $F(2,89)=3.99, p<.05$. No significant differences existed between the faculty representatives and athletic directors scores or between the faculty representatives and the women's basketball coaches (Figure 6). The scores with regard to housing and dining facilities were the highest of any conceptual area in the study.

Table 21.
Means and Standard Deviation For Housing and Dining Facilities By Position

|  | Number of <br> Respondents | Mean | S.D. | F-ratio |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Athletic Director | 37 | 9.00 | 0 | $3.99 *$ |
| Faculty Representative | 10 | 9.00 | 0 |  |
| Women's BB Coaches | 45 | 8.81 | .45 |  |

* $=.05$


## Publicity and Promotions

With regard to publicity and promotions, analysis of variance again produced a significant difference between the groups $\mathrm{F}(2,144)=6.33, \mathrm{p}<.05$. This can be seen more graphically in Figure 7. Athletic directors scored these items significantly higher than the women's basketball coaches (Table 22). The faculty athletic representatives scores did not differ significantly from those scores of the athletic directors or women's basketball coaches.

Table 22.
Means and Standard Deviation For Publicity and Promotions By Position

|  | Number of <br> Respondents | Mean | S.D. | F-ratio |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Position | 67 | 7.91 | 1.80 | $6.33 * *$ |
| Athletic Director | 18 | 7.98 | 1.48 |  |
| Faculty Representative | 62 | 6.76 | 2.20 |  |
| Women's BB Coaches | 62 |  |  |  |
| $* *=.01$ |  |  |  |  |

## Recruiting

As shown in Table 23, a significant difference also was found between the groups in their perceptions of recruiting $\mathrm{F}(2,110)=5.26, \mathrm{p}<.05$. Athletic directors scored these items significantly higher than the women's basketball coaches (Figure 7). The women's basketball coaches and athletic directors scores did not differ significantly from those of the faculty athletic representatives.

Table 23.

## Means and Standard Deviation For Recruiting By Position

|  | Number of <br> Respondents | Mean | S.D. | F-ratio |
| :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Position | 51 | 8.56 | 1.24 | $5.26^{* *}$ |
| Athletic Director | 16 | 8.25 | 1.45 |  |
| Faculty Representative |  |  |  |  |
| Women's BB Coaches | 46 | 7.61 | 1.64 |  |
| $* *=.01$ |  |  |  |  |

## Support Services

An analysis of variance of data on support services, which can be seen more graphically in Figure 7 also showed a significant difference existed between the groups $\mathrm{F}(2,134)=9.34$, $\mathrm{p}<.05$. The Scheffe follow up test indicated that the athletic directors and faculty athletic representatives scored these items significantly higher than the women's basketball coaches (Table 24). No significant difference existed between the athletic directors and faculty athletic representatives.

Table 24.

Means and Standard Deviation For Support Services By Position

|  | Number of <br> Respondents | Mean | S.D. | F-ratio |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Position | 62 | 8.66 | .80 | $9.34 * * *$ |
| Faculty Representative | 21 | 8.77 | .62 |  |
| Women's BB Coaches | 54 | 7.76 | 1.77 |  |

***=. 001


Figure 7. Mean Scores by Conceptual Area and Position

## Admissions/ Grants in Aid

With regard to admissions/grants in aid, the groups were the most in agreement with no significant difference found between the groups $\mathrm{F}(2,68)=1.11, \mathrm{p}<.05$ (Table 25). This can be seen more graphically in Figure 8.


Figure 8. Mean Scores by Conceptual Area and Position

Table 25.
Means and Standard Deviation For Admissions/ Grants in Aid By Position

|  | Number of <br> Respondents | Mean | S.D. | F-ratio |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Position | 23 | 8.74 | .86 | 1.11 |
| Faculty Representative | 9 | 8.22 | 1.33 |  |
| Women's BB Coaches | 39 | 8.06 | 2.13 |  |

## General

Analysis of general compliance data, which can be seen more graphically in Figure 8 once again showed a significant difference existed between the groups in terms of general compliance issues such as the proportionality test of male to female athletes, compliance in comparison to other conference schools, and the overall compliance of the athletic department $\mathrm{F}(2,129)=4.76, \mathrm{p}<.05$. The Scheffe follow up test indicated that the faculty athletic representatives scored these items significantly higher than the women's basketball coaches (Table 26). No significant differences were found between athletic directors and faculty representatives or basketball coaches.

Table 26.
Means and Standard Deviation For General Compliance By Position

|  | Number of <br> Respondents | Mean | S.D. | F-ratio |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Athletic Director | 59 | 7.08 | 1.57 | $4.76 *$ |
| Faculty Representative | 17 | 7.68 | 1.07 |  |
| Women's BB Coaches | 56 | 6.23 | 2.46 |  |

*=. 05

In summary it was shown that athletic directors and women's basketball coaches differed significantly on eleven of the thirteen conceptual areas. Faculty athletic representative's perceptions were more like the athletic directors than the coaches of women's basketball.

On a 9 point scale 5 is the midpoint. For the overall sample all conceptual categories were scored 6.80 or higher. Seventy six percent of the conceptual categories (10) were scored 8.03 or higher indicating that athletic directors, faculty representatives and coaches perceived their programs to be more in compliance than not in compliance with Title IX.

Athletic directors and faculty representatives had mean scores of 8.22 or higher in 10 conceptual areas. In the remaining three areas the scores did not fall below 7. The women's basketball coaches on the other hand had mean scores of 8 or higher in only five conceptual areas. They scored between 7.33 and 7.78 on five conceptual areas and 6.10 and 6.76 on three areas. Clearly, coaches tend to believe to a lesser extent than athletic directors and faculty representatives that their programs are in compliance with Title IX.

## DISCUSSION

The results indicated that athletic directors, faculty athletic representatives, and women's basketball coaches differed significantly in their perceptions of their institutions compliance with Title IX. In twelve of the thirteen conceptual areas significant differences were obtained supporting the hypothesis that the athletic directors and faculty athletic representatives had similar perceptions of their programs compliance with Title IX, that differed significantly from women's basketball coaches. In order to enhance the discussion of differences by conceptual area, means by item and significant differences between athletic directors, faculty representatives and women's basketball coaches will be noted.

## Analysis of Conceptual Areas

## Provision of Equipment and Supplies

Items on the provision of equipment and supplies generated some of the larger statistically significant differences in mean scores. Four items (Table 27) addressed the issue of providing equipment and supplies. The women's basketball coaches had lower scores than the athletic directors and faculty representatives on all four items. The coaches' scores were all below 7.65 , whereas the athletic directors and faculty representatives had scores that were all higher than 8.13. The discrepancy was most notable for the item "similar equipment budget provided".

These differences may be attributed to the fact that equipment is one of the areas where historically and perhaps currently many of the inequities occur with regard to Title IX. Coaches
who order and use equipment appear to believe inequities exist to a greater extent than those less involved with directing the teams. Coaches, predominantly women in this sample, appear to perceive less than athletic directors and faculty representatives that women's teams are not equitable in terms of amount, quality, budget, and replacement of equipment and supplies. Buying and replacing uniforms, providing practice clothes, and purchasing safety gear are all part of providing equipment for student-athletes. It may be that equipment budgets have not kept pace in the coaches eyes with equipment needs. Coaches who have the most direct contact with athletes and use of equipment may be more aware of disparities and more sensitive to inequities.

## Table 27.

Means and Standard Deviations by Item and Position for Equipment and Supplies

| Item | Ath. Dir. |  | Fac. Rep. |  | BB Coach |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | S.D. | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. |  |
| 1. Provided equipment of <br> similar quality | $* * * 8.77$ | .73 | $* * * 8.55$ | .74 | 7.65 | 1.81 |
| 2. Provided comparable <br> amounts of equipment | $* * * 8.65$ | 1.07 | $* * * 8.50$ | .74 | 7.31 | 2.08 |
| 3. Similar equipment <br> budgets provided | $* * 8.13$ | 1.87 | $* * 8.29$ | 1.59 | 6.92 | 2.56 |
| 4. Equipment replaced <br> on a similar basis | $* * * 8.75$ | .74 | $* * * 8.50$ | .67 | 7.27 | 2.27 |

(Asterisks indicate a significant difference from women's basketball coaches)
$* * *=.001 \quad * *=.01 \quad *=.05$

## Scheduling of Games and Practice Times

The scheduling of games and practice times historically included many instances of preferential treatment given to men's teams (Table 28). Athletic directors and women's basketball coaches disagree to a significant extent on whether or not similar practice facilities and times are available today. Women's and men's teams often share practice and competition facility. Historically, men's teams have held priority in terms of use of facilities. While this has changed, apparently coaches of women's teams don't see the treatment of women's teams as equitable as athletic directors or faculty representatives. Athletic directors consistently higher ratings may be due to the substantial changes that have been made, while coaches ratings may indicate that such changes do not put women's teams on comparable footing with men's teams.

Table 28.
Means and Standard Deviations by Item and Position for Scheduling Games \& Practices

| Item | Ath. Dir. |  | Fac. Rep. |  | BB Coach |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. |

## Travel and Per Diem Allowances

Women's basketball coaches scored items related to travel and per diem allowances significantly lower than athletic directors and faculty athletic representatives. As can be seen on Table 29 coaches scores were lower on all items, particularly hotel accommodations. Athletic directors and faculty representatives seem to believe more strongly that men's and women's teams have similar quality hotels and modes of transportation. Coaches, on the other hand, who are traveling and staying at hotels do not endorse such comparability of women's and men's

Table 29.

Means and Standard Deviations by Item and Position for Travel \& Per Diem Allowances

| Item | Ath. Dir. |  | Fac. Rep. |  | BB Coach |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. |
| 9. Hotel accommodations were similar | ***8.65 | 1.07 | ***8.84 | . 68 | 7.50 | 2.23 |
| 10. Hotel stays were similar | ***8.78 | 1.14 | ***8.89 | . 46 | 7.71 | 2.09 |
| 11. Meal allowances were similar | ***8.67 | 1.15 | ***8.84 | . 50 | 7.75 | 1.93 |
| 12. Modes of transportation were similar | **8.71 | . 88 | **8.81 | . 60 | 7.76 | 2.25 |
| 13. Similar quality hotels were provided | **8.86 | . 77 | **9.00 | 0 | 8.19 | 1.57 |
| ***=.001 ***=.01 *= | . 05 |  |  |  |  |  |

teams. Coaches are especially discrepant from the faculty representatives. This may be due to the fact that coaches of women's teams personally have more actual experience with transportation and housing than faculty representatives or it may be that coaches are comparing their sport to men's revenue sports, which often enjoy greater benefits.

## Coaching and Academic Support Services

In the area of coaching and academic support services, the question which showed the greatest difference between coaches, athletic directors and faculty athletic representatives was amount of time allocated for coaching, recruiting, teaching, and other duties (Table 30). Traditionally, coaches of men's teams have been allocated more time to be on the road recruiting.

Table 30.
Means and Standard Deviations by Item and Position for Coaching \& Academic Services

| Item | Ath. Dir. |  | Fac. Rep. |  | BB Coach |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. |
| 14. Coaches received similar amounts of time for coaching and other duties | g <br> ***8.34 | 1.53 | ***7.82 | 1.84 | 5.96 | 2.78 |
| 15. Tutors spent similar amounts of time with men and women athletes | 8.89 | . 47 | 8.56 | 1.33 | 8.30 | 1.83 |
| 16. Availability of academic tutoring was similar | 9.00 | 0 | 9.00 | 0 | 8.56 | 1.69 |
| ***=. $001 \quad * *=.01 \quad * .05$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Coaches of women's teams suggest, even at Division III, that this may still be occurring. It appears that faculty representatives may be more aware of this than athletic directors.

Perceptions of the availability and amount of time tutors spend working with men and women athletes does not significantly vary between coaches, athletic directors and faculty representatives. All groups tend to assign these high scores suggesting such services are provided equitably. It should be noted that this is one of the conceptual areas where several of the respondents chose to answer the questions by selecting "NA" and so the data has limitations.

## Assignment and Compensation of Coaches and Tutors

Discrepancies between coaches and athletic directors was most dramatic in the area of comparable salaries (Table 31). Title IX regulations, indicate that comparable treatment does not necessarily imply equal salaries. Recently law suits have challenged differences in salaries of coaches of women's and men's teams. Coaches of women's teams have claimed that they have similar responsibility and therefore deserve more comparable salaries.

In Division I programs, coaches' salaries of men's basketball often are two to four times higher than coaches of women's teams. A 1994 study conducted by the Women's Basketball Association found that $88 \%$ of Division I men's basketball head coaches earned in excess of $\$ 60,000$, while only $32 \%$ of the women's basketball head coaches earned more than $\$ 60,000$ (Des Moines Register, 1995). At Division III this also appears to be an issue, with coaches perceptions being more negative than administrators. Similarly, coaches tend to feel the number of coaches assigned to men's and women's teams is not as equitable as administrators and faculty
representatives.

Varying perceptions may be due to how people equate salary. For example, if only the amount paid is considered then coaches perceptions may reflect the reality of Division III salaries. If on the other hand years experience, coaching record and athletic playing experience are considered then athletic directors may not see the salaries of coaches of men's teams as unfairly higher than coaches of women's teams.

## Provision of Locker Rooms and Competitive Facilities

The significant differences between coaches, athletic directors and faculty representatives

Table 31.
Means and Standard Deviations by Item and Position for Coaches \& Tutors Compensation

| Item | Ath. Dir |  | Fac. Rep. |  | BB Coach |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. |  |
| 17. Similar coaches receive <br> comparable salaries | $* * * 8.08$ | 1.99 | $* * * 7.50$ | 1.86 | 5.11 | 3.21 |
| 18. Number of coaches for <br> men's and women's basketball <br> was similar | $* * 8.27$ | 1.57 | 7.64 | 2.80 | 6.48 | 3.04 |
| 19. Coaching experience for <br> men's and women's teams was <br> comparable | 7.42 | 2.08 | 6.76 | 2.21 | 6.99 | 2.79 |

$* * *=.001 \quad * *=.01 \quad *=.05$
regarding locker rooms and competitive facilities may have a historical basis (Table 32). Historically, facilities and competitive arenas were designed for men's teams. As women's involvement increased sometimes women inherited former men's facilities, but rarely had new facilities and competition sites built specifically for them. Often if a particular sport generated a larger portion of the athletic departments revenue then that particular sport received an upgraded facility. This is especially true if such a facility would increase revenues generated from that sport. Until Title IX, schools were not required to have similar facilities and competitive sites. While it was possible to share competitive sites, provisions for locker rooms

Table 32.
Means and Standard Deviations by Item and Position for Locker Room Facilities

| Item | Ath. Dir |  | Fac. Rep. |  | BB Coach |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. |
| 20. Similar quality locker rooms were provided | **8.23 | 1.96 | **8.45 | 1.37 | 6.97 | 2.96 |
| 21. Comparable competitive facilities were provided for similar sports | 8.96 | . 12 | 8.86 | . 47 | 8.81 | . 82 |
| 22. Locker rooms were of similar size | 7.94 | 2.01 | 8.19 | 1.44 | 7.10 | 2.85 |
| 23. Shower facilities were similar | 8.23 | 1.99 | 8.30 | 1.95 | 7.46 | 2.60 |

and showers in many instances lagged because of funding. Former men's facilities or facilities designed for more limited women's programs in many instances may not be comparable to those for more established men's programs. The means indicate that the quality of women's locker rooms are not viewed by coaches as comparable. Athletic directors and faculty representatives higher scores indicate that they view such differences as minor.

## Provision of Medical and Training Facilities

Again in the area of providing medical and training facilities coaches tend to see the training equipment provided favored men's teams (Table 33). Some sports such as football due to the nature of the activity require a great deal more trainers than for example golf. In addition,

Table 33.

Means and Standard Deviations by Item and Position for Medical \& Training Facilities

| Item | Ath. Dir |  | Fac. Rep. |  | BB Coach |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | S.D. | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. |  |
| 24. Similar number of athletic <br> trainers were provided | 8.80 | 1.02 | 8.82 | .66 | 8.54 | 1.18 |
| 25. The Head Athletic Trainer <br> spent comparable time with <br> men's and women's teams | 8.05 | 1.78 | 8.58 | 1.07 | 7.19 | 2.69 |
| 26. Training equipment was <br> comparable | $* 8.91$ | .54 | 8.77 | .69 | 8.46 | 1.41 |
| $* * *=.001$ | $* *=.01$ | $*=.05$ |  |  |  |  |

revenue sports and athletes have historically enjoyed more services and training equipment such as a weight room facility, rehabilitative equipment, whirlpool, and personnel. These have often been provided on the basis of the status of the teams, with revenue sports possessing the highest status. The perception that this is still true to some extent is suggested by the mean scores.

## Provision of Housing and Dining Facilities

The differing perceptions of housing and dining facilities appeared rather minimal. Coaches, athletic directors and faculty representatives most disagreement was associated with "dormitory housing of similar quality" (Table 34). These minimal differences may be attributed to the fact that most Division III women athletes eat in the same cafeteria as the men and live in

Table 34.
Means and Standard Deviations by Item and Position for Housing \& Dining Facilities

| Item | Ath. Dir |  | Fac. Rep. |  | BB Coach |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | S.D. | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. |  |  |
| 27. Dormitory housing was <br> similar in quality | $* 9.00$ | 0 | 9.00 | 0 | 8.78 | .55 |  |
| 28. Dining facilities were <br> similar in quality | 9.00 | 0 | 9.00 | 0 | 8.82 | .77 |  |
| 29. Dormitories were similar <br> in size | 8.98 | .15 | 9.00 | 0 | 8.88 | .51 |  |
| $* * *=.001 \quad * *=.01$ | $*=.05$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |

the same dormitories. The fact is that most Division III institutions don't have dormitories or dining facilities specifically for athletes, therefore, men and women athletes use the same facilities.

## Publicity and Promotions

The obtained means for publicity and promotions indicate this area as problematic in terms of equal treatment of women's and men's teams (Table 35). Various law suits at Division I schools have reported that women's teams have lower promotion budgets, lower quality media guides, fewer reporters assigned and stories submitted (NCAA, 1992). The mean scores suggest this is true to some extent in Division III programs as well. Coaches again are significantly different from athletic directors in seeing such inequities.

Division III institutions, perhaps more than Division I schools, are limited by budgets for publicity and promotions. When money is scarce, limited funds are perceived to be spent on more visible sports such as football and men's basketball. The mean scores were the lowest for the item "SID spent comparable time promoting men's/women's sports". The obtained means showed that athletic directors, faculty representatives, and coaches felt that their schools did not provide equitable treatment with regard to this item. Athletic directors and faculty representatives are somewhat removed from this process and may not realize the inequities that exist, whereas coaches are directly involved and take notice of such situations. Athletic directors and faculty representatives probably don't notice the publicity and promotion items simply because they have several other administrative duties and usually a sports information director

Table 35.
Means and Standard Deviations by Item and Position for Publicity and Promotions

is responsible for the publicity and promotional items.

## Recruiting

The significant differences between athletic directors and coaches in the area of recruiting are most pronounced in the area of budgets and release time (Table 36). Traditionally, coaches of men's teams such as football and basketball have been given larger budgets and more time to
recruit. Apparently in Division III, coaches still view this as more of and issue than athletic directors. Again this may be due to the fact that they are trying to find time to recruit and do it on the budget determined by the athletic director. If coaches of women's teams perceive they have less time for coaching and other duties (item 14) then it's logical they don't believe they have similar release time to recruit. The lower the mean score for recruiting budgets also suggests coaches are feeling it is more difficult to recruit due to limited economic resources.

## Support Services

In support services (Table 37) coaches and athletic directors differed from coaches in terms of secretarial assistance and computer access. It's not unusual for men's basketball and

Table 36.
Means and Standard Deviations by Item and Position for Recruiting

| Item | Ath. Dir |  | Eac. Rep. |  | BB Coach |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. |  |
| 35. Coaches were allocated <br> similar amounts of release <br> time to recruit | $* 8.50$ | 1.78 | 8.05 | 2.07 | 7.34 | 2.50 |
| 36. Male and female recruits <br> received comparable benefits <br> while visiting campus | 8.92 | .38 | 8.95 | .22 | 8.62 | 1.22 |
| 37. Similar recruiting budgets | $* * * 8.37$ | 1.79 | 8.06 | 2.10 | 6.77 | 2.93 |
| $* * *=.001 \quad * *=.01$ | $*=.05$ |  |  |  |  |  |

football coaches to have their own secretaries, whereas the rest of the athletic department usually has the services of one secretary. Likewise, computer access may be a function of resource allocations. Often revenue sports have their own computer systems, while other teams must use general computer services or share athletic department computers.

## Admissions/Grants in Aid

Scholarships or admissions/grants in aid was the only conceptual area in the survey that did not generate significant differences between the subjects (Table 38). This is no doubt due

Table 37.
Means and Standard Deviations by Item and Position for Support Services

| Item | Ath. Dir |  | Fac. Rep. |  | BB Coach |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. |  |
| 38. Secretarial assistance was <br> similar | $* * * 8.71$ | 1.17 | $* * * 8.86$ | .47 | 7.47 | 2.49 |  |
| 39. Equivalent office space was <br> provided for coaches | 8.37 | 1.55 | 8.59 | 1.30 | 7.58 | 2.53 |  |
| 40. Coaches were provided <br> similar computer access | $* * * 8.88$ | .47 | $* * * 8.91$ | .29 | 7.86 | 2.37 |  |
| 41. Custodial assistance was <br> proportional to the size of each <br> program | 8.86 | .99 | 8.76 | 1.09 | 8.27 | 1.83 |  |
| $* * *=.001$ | $* *=.01$ | $*=.05$ |  |  |  |  |  |

to the fact that NCAA Division III institutions can only provide non-athletic financial aid and academic scholarships. Many of the subjects felt that the questions were not applicable with $55.63 \%(\mathrm{n}=89)$ not responding to these particular questions. Respondents also may have felt that since Division III student-athletes do not receive athletic scholarships, the questions were inappropriate.

Table 38.
Means and Standard Deviations by Item and Position for Admissions/Grants in Aid

| Item | Ath. Dir |  | Fac. Rep. |  | BB Coach |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. |
| 42. Comparable number of <br> athletes received non-athletic <br> financial aid | 8.70 | 1.47 | 9.00 | 0 | 7.89 | 2.35 |
| 43. Comparable number of <br> academic scholarships were <br> provided | 8.48 | 1.55 | 7.44 | 2.65 | 8.18 | 2.07 |

## General

The general compliance questions (Table 39) produced the lowest mean scores for the items dealing with proportionality of participation. All groups similarly scored athletic participation by gender as not reflecting well the undergraduate enrollment. In the review of literature, it was noted that a common cause for finding schools guilty of being out of
compliance with Title IX was failure to have athletic participation proportioned to the gender ratio of the undergraduate enrollment. The means suggest that this is an issue in Division III schools as well as Division I. The significant differences between coaches, athletic directors, and faculty representatives also correlates with numerous earlier items which indicate that coaches who work with athletes and conduct programs are more critical of athletic departments compliance. It is interesting that the general scores are considerable lower than the scores in the conceptual areas. This may be attributed to the fact that other areas of Title IX compliance need to be addressed and examined.

Table 39.
Means and Standard Deviations by Item and Position for General Compliance

| Item | Ath. Dir |  | Fac. Rep. |  | BB Coach |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. |
| 44. Proportion of male/female <br> athletes to the male/female <br> undergraduate enrollment <br> was similar | 5.21 | 2.67 | 5.45 | 2.77 | 5.47 | 3.10 |
| 45. Overall, the athletic dept. <br> complied with Title IX | $* * * 7.91$ | 1.50 | $* * * 8.42$ | .90 | 6.42 | 2.73 |
| 46. Compliance in comparison <br> to other schools in the <br> conference | $* * * 8.23$ | 1.43 | $* * * 8.85$ | .49 | 6.85 | 2.63 |
| $* * *=.001 \quad * *=.01$ | $*=.05$ |  |  |  |  |  |

The general questions had the lowest mean scores of any on the entire survey. These scores indicate that in certain areas compliance with Title IX has improved, but in Division III programs there is still need for improvement. Interestingly, faculty representatives assigned higher scores to the general items than did athletic directors. Faculty representatives may be somewhat removed from the athletic department so they don't see the whole picture, whereas the athletic directors may be more knowledgeable about existing situations. The faculty representatives may have a tendency to look more favorably upon existing programs due to lack of information or because they are seeking to give such programs a positive image.

In eleven of the thirteen conceptual areas athletic directors viewed their programs as significantly more in compliance with Title IX than did the women's basketball coaches (Table 40). An item by item (Appendix C) analysis showed significant differences on twenty eight of the forty six items on the survey. Faculty athletic representatives like athletic directors saw Division III programs as significantly more in compliance than women's basketball coaches on five of the thirteen conceptual areas. They differed significantly on eighteen of the forty six items. No significant differences by conceptual area or item was found between athletic directors and faculty representatives.

Inequities exist for a variety of reasons in intercollegiate athletics. Men often times occupy the administrative positions of power and don't address the inequities that are prevalent to provide women equal opportunity. Athletic directors and faculty representatives are abstracted from the programs and may not see the day to day activities and needs of the athletes
to correct the inequities. Historically, women athletes have not been treated on an equal basis with men. Progress has been made, and it may be the progress rather than status of programs upon which athletic directors and faculty representatives focus. They may think equality has been achieved, while the reality of the women's programs and coaches of women's teams experiences suggest a great deal of work toward equality has yet to be done.

Table 40.
Significant Differences Between Athletic Directors (AD), Faculty Representatives (FAR),
and Women's Basketball Coaches (WBB) by Conceptual Area

| Conceptual Area AD | AD--WBB | AD--FAR | WBB--FAR | F-Ratio |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Equipment (Q1-Q4) | *** | -- | *** | 15.30 |
| Games (Q5-Q8) | ** | -- | -- | 5.42 |
| Travel (Q9-Q13) | *** | -- | *** | 12.69 |
| Academics (Q14-Q16) | ** | -- | -- | 5.45 |
| Salary (Q17-Q19) | *** | -- | *** | 13.09 |
| Locker Rooms (Q20-Q23) | 3) ** | -- | -- | 4.76 |
| Training (Q24-Q26) | ** | -- | -- | 4.76 |
| Housing (Q27-Q29) | * | -- | -- | 3.99 |
| Publicity (Q30-Q34) | ** | -- | -- | 6.33 |
| Recruiting (Q35-Q37) | ** | -- | -- | 5.26 |
| Support (Q38-Q41) | *** | -- | *** | 9.34 |
| Scholarships (Q42-Q43) | -- | -- | -- | 1.11 |
| General (Q44-Q46) | -- | -- | * | 4.76 |
| $* * *=.001 \quad * *=.01$ | * $=.05$ | -- =No significance difference |  |  |

## SUMMARY

The purpose of this study was to determine whether differences existed among NCAA Division III athletic directors, faculty athletic representatives, and women's basketball coaches in their perceptions of their institutions compliance with the Title IX third component of the three prong test utilized by the courts--the accommodation of men and women student-athletes' interests and abilities.

In order to conduct the study, the "Title IX Compliance Survey" (Appendix A) was developed. The survey included forty six questions representing twelve conceptual areas and three general questions to which subjects responded on a nine point scale ( $1=$ Not at All, $9=$ Totally ) indicating their perceptions of their schools compliance with Title IX. Demographic information regarding gender, race, age, educational background and position held was also solicited.

A Cronbach Alpha was used to determine the reliability of individuals responses to these questions. The reliability scores ranged from .57 to .29 with the highest in the areas of providing equipment and supplies, academic support services, and provision of housing and dining facilities. Recruiting, travel and hotel accommodations, and scheduling of games had the lowest reliability scores. The obtained correlations suggest that respondents answered questions in a somewhat consistent manner. The validity of these questions was based on the previous work of Jacob (1993), a review of literature and previous Title IX law cases and settlements.

Five hundred and ten NCAA Division III athletic directors, faculty athletic
representatives and women's basketball coaches were contacted and asked to participate in the study. They represented one hundred and seventy randomly selected schools from the three hundred and forty three NCAA Division III schools that exist in the United States (NCAA Directory, 1993-94).

Completed surveys were returned by 160 subjects ( $31.37 \%$ ) from 107 different institutions (62.94\%). Sixty nine athletic directors (40.59\%), twenty two (12.94\%) faculty representatives, and sixty eight (40\%) women's basketball coaches returned surveys. The gender of the sample was comparable with 78 women ( $50.65 \%$ ) and 76 men ( $49.35 \%$ ).

Women were over represented as coaches ( $83 \%$ ) and under represented as athletic directors (28\%) and faculty representatives (19\%). A large majority of the sample were white Caucasians ( $88.13 \%$ ) and had completed master ( $60.63 \%$ ) or doctoral degrees $(25.63 \%)$. In terms of job experience the sample averaged 7.89 years with faculty representatives having the most (11.14), coaches the least (6.5) and athletic directors falling in between at 8.27 years. This pattern also appeared with the data on age with faculty representatives having the highest mean age (51.45), followed by athletic directors (47.30) and coaches (34.71). A large majority (90.79\%) had participated in intercollegiate athletics. Sixty two women's basketball coaches ( $40.79 \%$ ), sixty one athletic directors ( $40.13 \%$ ) and fifteen faculty representatives ( $9.87 \%$ ) indicated having participated in intercollegiate athletics while in college. A substantial percentage of athletic directors (46\%) and smaller percentage of faculty representatives (14\%) were currently coaching.

The items related to Title IX asked subjects using a scale to indicate to what extent they viewed the programs with which they were associated as in compliance with Title IX. All of the conceptual areas had mean scores that were 6.80 or higher which indicated that respondents tended to perceive their institutions to be more in than out of compliance with Title IX. The items represented 13 different conceptual areas. Provision of housing and dining facilities (8.91), scheduling of games and practice times (8.73), and provision of medical and training facilities (8.36) had the highest mean scores. Areas of lowest perceived compliance were publicity and promotions (7.43), assignment and compensation of coaches and tutors (7.17), and general items (6.80).

Significant differences, however, were found by conceptual area in eleven of the thirteen conceptual areas and on 28 of the 46 items. Athletic directors and faculty representatives tended to view their programs as significantly more in compliance with Title IX than did women's basketball coaches. No significant differences by conceptual area or items were found between athletic directors and faculty representatives, although faculty representatives only differed significantly from coaches on five of the thirteen conceptual areas.

Athletic directors and women's basketball coaches failed to differ significantly only in terms of their perceptions regarding admissions/ grants in aid and the general items. Women's basketball coaches failed to differ from faculty representatives only in the areas of scheduling games, academic support, locker rooms, training facilities, housing, publicity, recruiting, and admissions/ grants in aid. Athletic directors and women's basketball coaches differed most
significantly in the areas of provision of equipment, travel and hotel accommodations, salary, support services, and general items.

A variety of reasons may have eventuated in the obtained differences with regard to Title IX. Explanations for the differences in perceptions between the athletic directors, faculty representatives, and women's basketball coaches were attributed to contact with programs, age, gender and the historical trends of women's participation in sport. Coaches, who have the most direct contact with the athlete's day to day, appear to have a different view of issues related to equity than the athletic directors and faculty representatives. Women's basketball coaches or any coaches of women's teams obviously may be more sensitive to Title IX due to their gender or concern with women athletes equitable treatment in sport. The positions of power within athletic administration are often held by men, who may believe in equity, but find it difficult to accommodate the interests of women and therefore see things as more ideal than they are. Historically, women have not been provided equivalence of opportunities and even though progress has been made coaches of women's teams appear more sensitive to the disparities that still exist.

Athletic directors and faculty representatives expressed similar views with regard to Title IX compliance. Athletic directors obtained the highest mean scores in the areas of housing, scheduling, academics, scholarships, and travel. They scored lowest on publicity, and salary items. Faculty representatives perceived housing, travel, support services, scheduling, and training as the areas of highest compliance. Items on salary, and publicity were the areas they
viewed their programs to be least in compliance with Title IX. Interestingly, no significant differences were observed between the athletic directors and faculty representatives in any of the conceptual areas.

Coaches on the other hand differed significantly from the athletic directors and faculty representatives in numerous areas. The most significant differences occurred in the areas of equipment, travel, salary, and support services. Women's basketball coaches viewed their programs as most compliant in the areas of housing, scheduling, scholarships, and training. Coaches assigned the lowest compliance scores to salary and publicity. This is consistent with what court law suits and settlements have found (NCAA, 1992).

Division III schools are unique thus far in that no litigation has taken place ordering these schools to change their programs to adequately comply with the components of Title IX. Some presumed this may be due to program differences since athletic scholarships are not given. In a study released by the NCAA in 1992, the participation rate of athletes compared to the student body male/female ratio was more equitable at the Division III level than at Division I. Like Division I, Division III athletic programs, however may have similar problems since football and men's basketball generate the most revenue and interest and cost the most money to operate. This study suggests at least from the coaches perspective that inequities observed at Division I may exist to some extent in Division III.

Issues of male/female proportionality, overall compliance with Title IX, and Title IX compliance comparison with other schools were included in the general items section of the
survey. Interestingly, these scores were significantly lower than the other conceptual areas. The lower mean scores suggest that the athletic directors, faculty representatives, and coaches realize inequities exist at their institutions in terms of complying with Title IX. The perceived inequities may exist because of the number of athletic scholarships awarded to men and women or by the failure of schools to have athletic participation numbers proportional to the gender ratio of the undergraduate enrollment. These two areas are part of the three prong test used in determining Title IX compliance, but were not included in the Title IX Compliance Survey for this study. This may explain why the mean scores for the general items were much lower than the other questions on the survey. The administrators and coaches may have felt that the general questions tapped into an area where more of the inequities existed rather than in the other conceptual areas included in the survey. Since athletic scholarships are not awarded by Division III schools, it may be anticipated that several of the perceived inequities that do exist pertain to student athlete male/female participation numbers when compared to the gender ratio of the undergraduate enrollment. Many administrators and coaches may not have the education and experience to determine what compliance with Title IX entails. This may explain the different perceptions obtained in this study.

Since perceptions vary by individual, it can be expected that as more people are sampled and as those people hold different positions and job titles, a wide variety of perceptions will be gathered. One of the most difficult obstacles to overcome concerning Title IX may be addressing the various perceptions that exist. In looking at compliance issues one person may
feel that a particular department is out of compliance with respect to Title IX, whereas another person may have the perception that compliance in the same department is excellent. Compliance obviously in this kind of research is in the eye of the beholder. The challenge appears to be to provide accurate information upon which to base these perceptions. More education and exposure to Title IX would assist in this process.

In reviewing the results of the study, limitations included sampling method, response rate, length of the survey, lack of interest, attitude of respondents, and timing of the study. The goal of this study was to have a return rate of $50-60 \%(\mathrm{~N}=255$ to 306$)$. Only $31.37 \%(\mathrm{~N}=160)$ was obtained. In telephone conversations with non-respondents, it was noted that a shorter survey might have improved subjects willingness to participate in the study (personal communication, 1994). Only $13.8 \%(\mathrm{~N}=22)$ of the faculty representatives returned completed surveys. This was attributed to their lack of interest and involvement with the athletic department (personal communication, 1994). The timing of the study may have been influenced by the current publicity surrounding Title IX in the media. Title IX continues to be a very hot topic that generates a lot of interest and attention and respondents may be tired of hearing about it and not interested in returning the survey. Institution representatives also may feel uncomfortable providing this information because they don't know if they comply with the guidelines of Title IX or are concerned about the negative image that may be created for their school. Perhaps sampling the senior woman athletics administrator (SWA) would have facilitated a better response rate, since these individuals are often times more in touch with the
athletic department than the faculty athletic representatives.

## RECOMMENDATIONS

Gender equity continues to be a hot topic in intercollegiate athletics receiving a great deal of attention from the NCAA, conference officials, school administrators, and coaches. There appears to be no quick and easy solution to issues of equity except continued legislation, enforcement and support of Title IX. Difficult issues confront equity in sport such as how to provide comparable programs without reducing opportunities and funding for existing men's programs.

Through the course of this study, other possible areas of investigation were identified. The following suggestions for further research in the area of Title IX and NCAA athletics are presented:

1. Compare perceptions with actual compliance to determine accuracy of perceptions.
2. Extend the study to a greater number of coaches in different sports to determine if Title IX issues and perceptions are sport specific.
3. Compare the athletes perceptions of Title IX compliance with the coaches.
4. Compare a large sample of men and women coaches across sports to determine whether gender differences exist.

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The primary person responsible for assisting in the completion of this project was Dr. Sharon Mathes. She served as my major professor answering many questions when I know she was getting tired of talking to me. She definitely deserves a great deal of credit and recognition for the completion of this project. The commitment of time and energy that she put into this paper certainly deserves a heart felt thank you.

## APPENDIX A. TITLE IX COMPLIANCE SURVEY

## TITLE IX COMPLIANCE SURVEY

In 1972, Title IX was passed as part of the Education Amendments Act to provide equal opportunities for men and women. This federal statute states that, "No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance..."

To what extent do you believe that your school is in compliance with Title IX? Please indicate using the scale provided, your perception of your school's degree of compliance with Title IX. For example, circling a "1" indicates that you perceive your athletic program is "Not At All" in compliance with Title IX. Circling a "9" indicates that you believe your program is "Totally" in compliance with Title IX. If the question does not apply to your program or if you lack the information to answer the question, please circle "NA".

To what extent does your athletic department provide "comparable opportunities"
for female and male athletes in the following conceptual areas?
Provision of Equipment and Supplies:

1. Men's and women's teams are provided equipment of similar quality?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
2. Women's and men's teams are provided comparable amounts of equipment for their sport?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
3. Similar amounts of money are budgeted to women's and men's teams for the purchase of equipment?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
4. Equipment is replaced for men's and women's teams on a similar basis?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
Scheduling of Games and Practice Times:
5. Men's and women's teams of the same sport, that compete in the same facility, are provided similar opportunities to practice in that facility?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
6. The amount of practice time allocated to men's and women's teams of the same sport, that share a facality, is substantually equal?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
7. Both men's and women's teams have challenging competitive schedule, based on their abilities (e.g. number of games scheduled, level of competition)?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
8. Men's and women's teams of the same sport that share a facility are provided equal opportunities regarding the tume of day practices are scheduled (e.g. prime practice time-3:00-5:00p.m.)?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA

## Travel and Per Diem Allowances:

9. When teams are traveling, athletic departments spend similar amounts of money for men's and women's hotel accommodations?

## Not At All 123456789 Totally NA

10. The length of stay at hotels before and after competitive events away from school are similar for women's and men's teams in comparable sports?

## Not At All 123456789 Totally NA

11. Men and women athletes receive similar meal allowances when traveling?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
12. Men and women athletes use comparable modes of transportation when traveling to competitive events (e.g. bus, plane, vans, etc.)?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
13. Men and women athletes receive hotel accommodations of similar quality?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA

## Coaching and Academic Support Services;

14. When assigning coaching responsibilities, coaches of women's and men's teams have a similar percentage of their time allocated for coaching, and other duties (e.g. teaching, administrative duties, etc.)?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
15. Academic tutors spend comparable amount of time working with men and women athletes?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
16. The availability of academic tutoring for female and male student-athletes is similar?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
Assignment and Compensation of Coaches and Tutors;
17. Coaches of men's and women's teams of the same sport receive similar salaries?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
18. The number of coaches for men's and women's basketball is similar?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
19. The coaching experience of coaches of women's teams is comparable to that of men's teams?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA

## Provision of Locker Rooms and Competitive Facilities:

20. Female and male basketball players are provided locker rooms of similar quality?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
21. Men's and women's teams of the same sport compete (play competitive games) in comparable faciluties?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
22. Female and male basketball players are provided locker rooms of similar size?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
23. Men's and women's basketball players are provided similar shower facilities?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA

## Provision of Medical and Training Facilities:

24. The number of athletic trainers provided to men's and women's teams is based on each teams needs?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
25. The Head Athletic Tramer spends a comparable amount of time with women's teams, as with the men's teams?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
26. Comparable training equipment is provided to the men's and women's teams (e.g. weight lifting facility)?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA

## Provision of Housing and Dining Facilities:

27. The university housing (dormitories) provided for men and women athletes is of similar quality?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
28. The dining facilities provided for men and women athletes is of similar quality?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
29. Men and women athletes live in dormitories of similar size?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA

## Publicity and Promotions:

30. The sports information office spends comparable amounts of money for men's and women's media guides, posters, and brochures?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
31. Media or information guides used to promote men's and women's sports are of similar quality (e.g. size, color, \# of pages, etc)?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
32. The sports information office devotes a comparable amount of time promoting men's and women's sports?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
33. A comparable number of storles are submitted to newspapers by the sports information department to promote women's and men's basketball?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
34. A similar number of sports information personnel are assigned to cover women's teams as are assigned to cover men's athletics?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA

## Recruiting:

35. The amount of release time allocated to coaches of men's and women's teams in order to recruit is similar?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
36. During an official recruiting visit, prospective female and male student-athletes receive comparable benefits, (e.g. room and board accommodations, campus tours, etc.)

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
37. The recruiting budget is similar for men's and women's basketball?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA

## Support Services:

38. The amount of secretarial assistance provided to men's and women's programs is proportional to the size of each program? Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
39. Coaches of men's and women's teams are provided with equivalent office space?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
40. Coaches of men's and women's teams are provided similar access to computer facilities?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
41. The amount of custodial assistance provided to men's and women's programs is proportional to the size of each program?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA

## Admissions/Grants in Aid:

42. A comparable number of male and female athletes receive non-athletic financial aid (loans)?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
43. Men and women athletes receive a comparable number of academic scholarships?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA

## General Questions:

44. The proportion of males to females in the undergraduate enrollment is comparable to the proportion of male and female student-athletes?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
45. Overall, the athletic department is in comphance with the vanous components of Title IX?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA
46. In comparison to other schools in our conference, our athletic department is very much in complance with the various components of Title IX?

Not At All 123456789 Totally NA

## Background Information

In order to better understand the information previously provided, please answer each of the following questions by responding appropriately?
46. Gender:
Male
__ Female
47. Position Held: $\qquad$ Athletic Director
48. Faculty Athletic Representative
49.

Head Women's Basketball Coach
50. Race: $\qquad$ Caucasian _ Black $\qquad$ Hispanic _ Native American _Other
51. Educational Background:
__ Bachelor's degree Master's degree
52.
__ Doctoral degree
54.
_ Other
55. Age $\qquad$
56. Major field of study for Bachelor's degree?

If you have a graduate degree(s), what was your major
57. field(s) of study? $\qquad$
58. Did you participate in intercollegiate athletics?
Yes _II yes, how many sports? $\qquad$
59.
No $\qquad$
60. Do you currently coach?

Yes
No $\qquad$
61(H). If yes, please indicate which sport(s)
62(A). Head Coach ___ Assistant Coach $\qquad$
63. What is the approximate enrollment of your school? $\qquad$
64. What is the approximate number of varsity athletes at your school?

Men
Women $\qquad$
65. What is your athletic department budget?

| Men's | $\$$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| Women's |  |

66. How many years have you held your current position? $\qquad$
67. How many full time coaches of men's teams do you have? $\qquad$
68. How many part time coaches of men's teams do you have? $\qquad$
69. How many full time coaches of women's teams do you have? $\qquad$
70. How many part time coaches of women's teams do you have? $\qquad$
71. How many men's sports are offered? $\qquad$
72. How many women's sports are offered? $\qquad$
Please indicate the sports offered at your school by placing an ( $x$ ) on the line in front of each sport and indicate the gender of the head coach by circling $\mathbf{M}$ for male and $\mathbf{F}$ or female shown in parentheses.

Men's:

| 73. | _Football | 74. | ( $\mathrm{M} / \mathrm{F}$ ) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 75. | Cross Country | 76. | (M/F) |
| 77. | _Basketball | 78. | (M/F) |
| 79. | Track \& Field | 80. | ( $\mathrm{M} / \mathrm{F}$ ) |
| 81. | __Golf | 82. | (M/F) |
| 83. | __Tennis | 84. | ( $\mathrm{M} / \mathrm{F}$ ) |
| 85. | _Soccer | 86. | (M/F) |
| 87. | __Baseball | 88. | (M/F) |
| 89. | _Swimming | 90. | (M/F) |
| 91. | __Wrestling | 92. | ( $\mathrm{M} / \mathrm{F}$ ) |
| 93. | _Other, | 94. | (M/F) |
| 95. | please s |  |  |

Women's:

| 96. | _Volleyball | 97. | ( $\mathbf{M} / \mathrm{F}$ ) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 98. | _Cross Country | 99. | ( $\mathbf{M} / \mathrm{F}$ ) |
| 100. | _Basketball | 101. | ( $\mathbf{M} / \mathrm{F}$ ) |
| 102. | Track \& Field | 103. | ( $\mathbf{M} / \mathrm{F}$ ) |
| 104. | _Golf | 105. | ( $\mathbf{M} / \mathrm{F}$ ) |
| 106. | Tennis | 107. | ( $\mathbf{M} / \mathrm{F}$ ) |
| 108. | Soccer | 109. | ( $\mathrm{M} / \mathrm{F}$ ) |
| 110. | _Softball | 111. | ( $\mathbf{M} / \mathbf{F}$ ) |
| 112. | __Swimming | 113. | ( $\mathbf{M} / \mathrm{F}$ ) |
| 114. | _Field Hockey | 115. | ( $\mathbf{M} / \mathbf{F}$ ) |
| 116. | _Other, | 117. | ( $\mathbf{M} / \mathrm{F}$ ) |
| 118. | please specify |  |  |

Thank you very much for the information you have provided. If you would like information regarding the results of this study, please write your name and address at the bottom of the page. This will be detached from the survey and when the study is completed, you will be sent a summary of the findings.

APPENDIX B. LETTER TO WOMEN'S BB COACH

August 29, 1994
Dear Head Women's Basketball Coach:
I am a graduate student at Iowa State University in the department of Health and Human Performance completing my master's degree in sport management. I am conducting research on Title IX compliance at NCAA Division III institutions. The focus of my research is on Athletic Directors, NCAA Faculty Athletic Representatives, and Head Women's Basketball Coaches perceptions regarding their institutions compliance with Title IX. As a graduate from a Division III school, I am interested in determining to what extent the less publicized Division III programs have coped with historical inequities in athletic programs.

In 1972, Title IX was passed as part of the Education Amendments Act to provide equal opportunities for men and women. This federal statute states that, "No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance..." In order to assess your perception of your school's degree of compliance with Title IX you will be asked to respond to questions drawn from twelve conceptual areas identified by the Final Report of the NCAA Gender-Equity Task Force (NCAA, 1992).

In addition, in order to better understand your answers, you will be asked to provide background information about yourself and program. Participation in this study is completely voluntary and your responses are confidential. Your name will not appear on the survey and once coded the data will be destroyed. The success of this study depends upon your willingness to assist me. I am requesting that you take 10-15 minutes to complete the survey and return it in the enclosed envelope by September 15,1994 . I want to thank you in advance for your cooperation and input into this study. Your contribution is very important and appreciated.

Sincerely,

Kevin L. Sanger

## APPENDIX C. LETTER TO ATHLETIC DIRECTOR

August 29, 1994
Dear Athletic Director:

I am a graduate student at Iowa State University in the department of Health and Human Performance completing my master's degree in sport management. I am conducting research on Title IX compliance at NCAA Division III institutions. The focus of my research is on Athletic Directors, NCAA Faculty Athletic Representatives, and Head Women's Basketball Coaches perceptions regarding their institutions compliance with Title IX. As a graduate from a Division III school, I am interested in determining to what extent the less publicized Division III programs have coped with historical inequities in athletic programs.

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Sincerely,

Kevin L. Sanger

## APPENDIX D. LETTER TO FACULTY ATHLETIC REPRESENTATIVE

August 29, 1994
Dear Faculty Athletic Representative:
I am a graduate student at Iowa State University in the department of Health and Human Performance completing my master's degree in sport management. I am conducting research on Title IX compliance at NCAA Division III institutions. The focus of my research is on Athletic Directors, NCAA Faculty Athletic Representatives, and Head Women's Basketball Coaches perceptions regarding their institutions compliance with Title IX. As a graduate from a Division III school, I am interested in determining to what extent the less publicized Division III programs have coped with historical inequities in athletic programs.

In 1972, Title IX was passed as part of the Education Amendments Act to provide equal opportunities for men and women. This federal statute states that, "No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance..." In order to assess your perception of your school's degree of compliance with Title IX you will be asked to respond to questions drawn from twelve conceptual areas identified by the Final Report of the NCAA Gender-Equity Task Force (NCAA, 1992).

In addition, in order to better understand your answers, you will be asked to provide background information about yourself and program. Participation in this study is completely voluntary and your responses are confidential. Your name will not appear on the survey and once coded the data will be destroyed. The success of this study depends upon your willingness to assist me. I am requesting that you take 10-15 minutes to complete the survey and return it in the enclosed envelope by September 15, 1994. I want to thank you in advance for your cooperation and input into this study. Your contribution is very important and appreciated.

Sincerely,

Kevin L. Sanger

## APPENDIX E. COMPARISON OF MEAN SCORES ON TITLE IX COMPLIANCE ITEMS BY POSITION

## Comparison of Mean Scores by Item and Position

| Item | AD-WBB | FAR-WBB | AD-FAR |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. Provided equipment of similar quality | *** | *** | -- |
| 2. Provided comparable amounts of equipment | *** | *** | -- |
| 3. Similar equipment budgets provided | * | * | -- |
| 4. Equipment replaced on a similar basis | *** | *** | -- |
| 5. Provided similar practice facilities | * | -- | -- |
| 6. Provided similar amounts of practice time | ** | -- | -- |
| 7. Competitive schedules were similar | -- | -- | -- |
| 8. Practice times were similar | -- | -- | -- |
| 9. Hotel accommodations were similar | *** | *** | -- |
| 10. Hotel stays were similar | *** | *** | -- |
| 11. Meal allowances were similar | *** | *** | -- |
| 12. Modes of transportation were similar | ** | ** | -- |
| 13. Similar quality hotels were provided | ** | ** | -- |
| 14. Coaches receive similar amounts of time for coaching and other duties | *** | *** | -- |

$* * *=.001 \quad * *=.01 \quad *=.05 \quad$ (Astericks indicate significance level)
AD--Athletic Director WBB--Women's Basketball Coach
FAR--Faculty Athletic Representative

## Comparison of Mean Scores by Item and Position

| Item | AD-WBB | FAR-WBB | AD-FAR |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 15. Tutors spend similar amounts of time with men and women athletes | -- | -- | -- |
| 16. Availability of academic tutoring was similar | -- | -- | -- |
| 17. Similar coaches received comparable salaries | *** | *** | -- |
| 18. Number of coaches for men's and women's basketball was similar | ** | -- | -- |
| 19. Coaching experience for men's and women's teams was comparable | -- | -- | -- |
| 20. Similar quality locker rooms were provided | ** | ** | - |
| 21. Comparable competitive facilities were provided for similar sports | -- | -- | -- |
| 22. Locker rooms were of similar size | -- | -- | -- |
| 23. Shower facilities were similar | - | -- | -- |
| 24. Similar \# of athletic trainers were provided | -- | -- | -- |
| 25. The Head Athletic Trainer spent comparable time with men's and women's teams | -- | -- | -- |
| 26. Training equipment was comparable | * | -- | -- |

$* * *=.001 \quad * *=.01 \quad *=.05 \quad$ (Astericks indicate significance level)
AD--Athletic Director WBB--Women's Basketball Coach
FAR--Faculty Athletic Representative

## Comparison of Mean Scores by Item and Position

|  | Item |  | AD-WBB | FAR-WBB | AD-FAR |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 27. Dormi | housing | similar in quality | * | -- | -- |
| 28. Dining | cilities we | ilar in quality | -- | -- | -- |
| 29. Dormi | es were | r in size | -- | -- | -- |
| 30. Publicit women | budgets | imilar for men \& | ** | -- | -- |
| 31. Media | des had | r quality | ** | -- | -- |
| 32. SID of men's and | spent co men's sp | able time promoting | * | -- | -- |
| 33. SID su men's and | itted a co men's sp | able \# of stories for | *** | *** | -- |
| 34. A simi cover men | \# of SID nd wom | nnel were assigned to ports | ** | ** | -- |
| 35. Coach release tim | were allo <br> orecruit | similar amounts of | * | -- | -- |
| 36. Male a benefits wh | female $r$ visiting | s received comparable us | -- | -- | -- |
| 37. Similar | cruiting |  | *** | -- | -- |
| $* * *=.001$ | **=. 01 | *=. $05 \quad$ (Asteric | ks indicate | ificance leve |  |
| AD--Athle | Director | WBB--Women | Basketbal | ach |  |
| FAR--Faculty Athletic Representative |  |  |  |  |  |

## Comparison of Mean Scores by Item and Position

|  | Item |  | AD-WBB | FAR-W | AD-FAR |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 38. Secret | assistan | as similar | *** | *** | -- |
| 39. Equiv coaches | office sp | was provided for | -- | -- | -- |
| 40. Coach | vere prov | similar computer access | *** | *** | -- |
| 41. Custo of each pr | assistanc am | proportional to the size | -- | -- | -- |
| 42. Comp non-athle | ble numb inancial | athletes received | -- | -- | -- |
| 43. Comp were prov | ble numb d | academic scholarships | -- | -- | -- |
| 44. Propo female un | n of male graduate | ale athletes to the male/ llment was similar | -- | -- | -- |
| 45. Overa <br> Title IX | he athletic | artment complied with | *** | *** | -- |
| 46. Comp the confer | ce in com e | son to other schools in | *** | *** | -- |
| $* * *=.001$ | **=. 01 | *=. $05 \quad$ (Asterick | ks indicate | ificance |  |
| AD--Athl | Director | WBB--Women's | Basketball | ach |  |
| FAR--Faculty Athletic Representative |  |  |  |  |  |

## APPENDIX F. COMPARISON OF MEAN SCORES BY POSITION AND CONCEPTUAL AREA

Comparison of Mean Scores by Position and Conceptual Area

| Conceptual | Athletic Director |  |  | Faculty Rep. |  |  | Women's BB Coach |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | ---: |
| Area | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. | F-Ratio |  |
| Equipment | 8.63 | .80 | 8.48 | .73 | 7.33 | 1.96 | 15.30 |  |
| Games | 8.93 | .28 | 8.74 | .57 | 8.52 | 1.04 | 5.42 |  |
| Travel | 8.73 | .77 | 8.92 | .16 | 7.78 | 1.67 | 12.69 |  |
| Academics | 8.86 | .27 | 8.41 | .72 | 7.65 | 1.63 | 5.45 |  |
| Salary | 7.90 | 1.49 | 7.67 | 1.58 | 6.10 | 2.45 | 13.09 |  |
| Locker Rooms | 8.35 | 1.06 | 8.44 | .90 | 7.58 | 2.09 | 4.76 |  |
| Training | 8.58 | .95 | 8.70 | .63 | 8.05 | 1.35 | 4.76 |  |
| Housing | 9.00 | 0 | 9.00 | 0 | 8.81 | .45 | 3.99 |  |
| Publicity | 7.91 | 1.80 | 7.98 | 1.48 | 6.76 | 2.20 | 6.33 |  |
| Recruiting | 8.56 | 1.24 | 8.25 | 1.45 | 7.61 | 1.64 | 5.26 |  |
| Support | 8.66 | .80 | 8.77 | .62 | 7.76 | 1.77 | 9.34 |  |
| Scholarships | 8.74 | .86 | 8.22 | 1.33 | 8.06 | 2.13 | 1.11 |  |
| General | 7.08 | 1.57 | 7.68 | 1.07 | 6.23 | 2.46 | 4.76 |  |

## APPENDIX G. HUMAN SUBJECTS FORM

## Checklist for Attachments and Time Schedule

The following are attached (please check):
12x. Letter or written statement to subjects indicating clearly:
a) purpose of the research
b) the use of any identifier codes (names, "I's), how they will be used, and when they will be removed (see Item 17)
c) an estimate of time needed for participation in the research and the place
d) if applicable, location of the research activity
e) how you will ensure confidentiality

1) in a longitudinal sturdy, note when and how you will contact subjects hater
g) participation is voluntary; nonparticipation will not affect evaluations of the subject
13. $\geq$ Consent form (if applicable)
14. $\square$ Letter of approval for research from cooperating organizations or institutions (if applicable)
15. $\triangle$ Data-gathering instruments
16. Anticipated dates for contact with subjects:

First Contact
September 10, 1994
Monch/Day/Yerr

## Last Contact

$\qquad$
17. If applicable: anticipated dare that identifiers will be removed from completed survey instruments and/or audio or visual tapes will be erased:

October 31, 1994

> Month / Day / Year
18. Signaure of Departmental Executive Officer Date Depanment or Administrative Unit

Signature redacted for privacy $\frac{8 / 2 i / 94}{7}$ Signature redacted for privacy
19. Decision of the University Human Subjects Review Commiace:
_ No Action Required

Signature redacted for

Patricia M. Keith
Name of Committee Chairperson


[^0]:    $\mathrm{N}=11$ Missing Cases

