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MP－30．83 HC－\＄1．67 Plus Postage． admission Criteria；Affirmative action；Athletic Programs；Course ling；Iiscriaicatory legislation； ＊Educational Legislation；Bducational Programs； ＊Employees；Equal Protection；＊Federal Aid；＊Federal Legislation；Pinarcial Support；health Services； Higher education；＊Sex．Discrinination；Sex Role；Sex Stereotypes；Social attitudes；Student financial aid； ＊Students；Vocational Education
＊Education fanduents 1972 Title II

The implementing＝egulation for Title IX of the 1972
 and eliminating sex discrimination in education programs and activities．This document focuses briefly on answers to sone of the questions that have arisen around the implementation．The purpose of Title Il is tc prohibit sex discrimination against students and employees of education programs and activities receiving federal funds．It is necessary because of the demonstrated discrimination in
 counseling and counseling materials，vocational education，athletic programs，student health services，and employment pacifies and practices．The educational and social effects of sex discrimination in education programs and activities are also documented．（J\＆F）


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## 1

DISCRIMINATION PRÖHIBITED - No person in the United States, shall, on the ground of race, color, oar national origin, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance, or be so treated on the basis of sex under most education programs or activities receiving Federal assistance.

## WHY TITLE IX?

Why Title IX? What is its purpose? Is it really needed? Is there sex discrimination in education programs and institutions? If so, what'are its effects? Although Title IX was enacted within the Education Amendments of 1972, most educators remained relatively unaware of its implications until the release of its implementing Regulation in June of 1975.

## . Title IX reads that:

no person:. . shall, on the basis of sex. be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activ-: tty receiving Federal financial assistance.

The implementing Regulation establishes detailed criteria for identifying and eliminating sex discrimination in education programs and activities, and sets forth five major compliance requirements which must be completed by July 21, 1976.

As this deadline approaches, questions regarding the purpose and'need for Title IX increase. Thus pamphlet will focus briefly on some of the answers to these questions.

## What is the purpose of Title IX?

The purpose of Title IX is clearly and simply to prohibit sex discrimination against students and employees of education programs and activities receiving Federal funds. The Title IX Regulation proviges that females and males must be afforded equal opportunity with regard to:

- admissions to most education instiations;
- access to and treatment in curricularland extracurricular programs and activities sponsored by education agencies and institutions;
- treatment under regufations and policies governing student benefits, services, conduct and dress;
- access tó employment in education agencies and institutions;
- terms, conditions, and benefits of such employment.

Since the 1954 Supreme Court decision regarding Brown v. the Board of Education, the relationship between equality in education and in society, and the nature of equality in education, have been subjects for public and educator concern. A series of Federal and State antidiscrimination laws has been enacted to betterdefine equality.and to ensure its provision. Title IX is the most recent such law..It is patterned after Titte VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which prohibits discrimination on the basis of race or ethnicity in education agencies and institutions. Titte VI and Title. IX each address major and continuing sources of discrimination and inequality in'eduçation and in society:

## Is Titte $\mathcal{I X}$ reafly necessary-is there sex discrimination in education programs and institutions?

Testimony presented at the Congressional hearings regarding Titłe IX and numerous investi'gations conducted from the late 1960's to the present document the existence and pervasiveness of sex discrithination in our education systems. From early childhood education through graduate education. females and males are exposed to sex discrimination and sex role stereotyping in the curriculum, in extracurricular programs, in regulations and;policies governing student'life, ind physical facilities, in the behavior of education personnel, and in the structure and organization of edacation institutions. Sex discrimination and sex-role stereotyping, whether overt or covert, direct or indirect, function to deny the equal educational opportunity guaranteed by law.

Many of the forms of sex discrimination prohibited under Title IX and its implementing Regulation have been systematically documented. Some of this documentation is summarized below

* Admissions practices, and policies of institutions of vocational "education and higher educathon have often been found to disçriminate on the basis of sex:
- In practice if ñet in stated policy, many postsecondary institutions set higher admissions standards for women than for men. A survey conducted by the American Council on Education indicated that of a sample of 188,900 freshmen entering institutions of higher education in 1972, $44 \%$ of the women had high school grade point averages of B-plus, or better. For males, this figure was only $29 \%$. Furthermore, $50 \%$ of the women and only, $38 \%$ of the men were in the top quatter of their high school class. The súrvey also indi-: cated that of these entering students, women were more likely than men to have been high achieverṣ in all types of extracurricular activities exceps science and athletics. ${ }^{1}$
- Many institutions, especially those of graduate education, use an "equal rejection rate" system under which males and females are sorted into sepafate categories in order that equal portions of each group may be accepted. This system usually ensures that the women thus admitted are more qualified than the men. ${ }^{2}$ One study found that $68 \%$ of the women admitted to graduate schools had an undergraduate average of B or better, as opposed to only $54 \%$ of the men admitted. ${ }^{3}$
- In a number of large school systems, secondary institutions of vocational education are or have been completely segregated on the basis of sex. In others; males and females are or have been admitted subject only to strict sex-based quotas. ${ }^{4}$

Awards of financial assistance are often differentially available țo males and females. Studies have shown that women are less likely than men to receive financial assistance in the form of scholarships, fellowships and loans at both the national and institutional levels. ${ }^{5}$

- A national survey of 3,363 college sophomores found that in 1967, the average award of financial assistance ţo men was $\$ 1,001$, while the average award to women was only $\$ 786$. Student employment awarded as part of institutional financial aid packages paid men an average of $\$ 712$ and women an average of $\$ 401 .{ }^{6}$
- According to 1970 testimony in Congressionál hearings on discrimination against worrien, in 1969, women comprised $33 \%$ of the nation's graduate students but received only $28 \%$ of the graduate awards under NDEA, Title IV, and $29 \%$ under NDEA, Title VI. ${ }^{7}$ One report on women and graduate study indicated that only one-quarter of the females enrolled in graduate study received stipends, as compared to almost one-half of the men. ${ }^{8}$
- Sex-restricted scholarships frequently limit the áccess of qualified women to financial aid. In'one farge and prestigious univessity, only $15 \%$ of all sex-restricted funds available in 1969 were restricted to women. ${ }^{9}$

Counseling and counseling materials are a significant source of sex discrimination at all levèls . of education.

- Research indicates that both male and female counselors hold differential perceptions of appropriate academic and career choices for males and females. ${ }^{10}$ Counselors appear to apply traditional role stereotypes to bbth college- ând non-college-bound females ${ }^{11}$ as well as to female college students: ${ }^{12}$
- Sex bias has also been documerted•in instruments úsed in the counseling process: A number of achievement tests have beên found to contain such bias in both content and lan--guage. ${ }^{13}$ Many occupational interest inventọfies list occupations by sex and fail to offer a complete range of occupational choices to females: mañy require differential scoring and interpretation of male and female responses. ${ }^{14}$

Vocational education, which provides a direct link between education and the employntient system, is one the most sex-segregated of all education programs. Of the 136 instractional categories within the nation's vocational education programs, $71 \%$ have enrollmentś of at least $75 \%$ one sex or the other; almost one-half have enrollments $\sigma$ ver ${ }^{\circ} 90 \%$ one sex or the other. ${ }^{15}$ Females predominate in those programs providing preparation for the lower-paying occupations. Sex segregation in vocational education probrams results, from factors ranging from overtly disćriminatory admissions or graduation requirements, through discriminatory coúnseling or counseling instruments. to student choices which may be made on the basis of subtle or covert sex role stereotypes.

Athletic programs provided or sponsored byeducation institutions are another source of pervasive sex discrimination. Studies of athletics in secondary schools and colleges and universi-, ties have repeatedly documented discrepancies in the nature and extent of programs, the availability of coaching seryices, and the equipment ańd facilities"provided for men's and women's sports. ${ }^{16}$

- Analysis of numerous athletic budgets for secondary and postsecondary athletic programs suggests that at the secondary level, the ratio of expenditures, for females and males approximates $\$ 1 / \$ 10$. At the postsecdndary level, the ratio approaches $\$ 1 / \$ 50 .{ }^{17}$
- A 1973 study of the athletic program offered by a school district in one Southwestern city revealed that of $\$ 10$ million worth of athletic facilities and equipment, girls were permitted use of only the tennis courts and tennis balls. ${ }^{18}$ Although this example may be extreme in degree, it is probably not unique.

Policies regarding the marital or parental status of students frequently discriminate on the basis of sex.

- The treatment of pregnant females is a common area of discriminatory policits and pracfices: Although over 200,000 young women under 18 give birth in the U.S. each year, ${ }^{19}$ a large percentage of these young women are expelled from school or are pressured to withdraw at the first sign of pregnancy. Although some local education agencies have offered specialized programs for pregnant students, a 1970 stüdy indicated that only onethird of the nation's 17,000 school districts offered preginant students any education services at all. ${ }^{20}$
- At some postsecondary institutions, wọmen have been refused financial aid because of pregnancy or marriage. ${ }^{21}$

Student health services in many institutions of higher education provide full coverage services to males while providing no gynecological services to females. A 1970 survey of 750 institutions performed by the American Association of University Women. revealed that only $43 \%$ provide birth confrol information or counseling; in the others, students are refeked, to physicians outside the institution ${ }^{22}$ (An education institution is under no obligation to provide full-coverage health services to students, but the Title IX Regulation requires that if a university chooses to provide such services these must inchude gynecological services for females.)

Employment policies and practices which discriminate on the basis of sex not only deny opportunity fo individual applicants or staff members but alse result in employment patterns which limit the exposure of both male and female students to role models in nontraditional positions.

> - The existence of discrimimatory policies and practices in elementary-secondary education is suggested by an analysis of the sex composition of personnel in various education posittoris as compared to the sex composition of persons receiving undergraduate and graduate degrees in education. Relevant figures are provided below.

## Percentages of Female Employbes

and Degree Recipients in Education-1970-1971*

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\text { \% female . } \% \text { female }
$$

Instructional stăff . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 67.2\%
Principals. 15.3\%
Assistant Principals ..... $15.0 \%$
*. Central office administrators ..... 25.9\%
Superintendents ..... 6\%B.A. degrees in education74\%
Master's degrees:
-in education ..... 56\%
-in ed. admin ..... 20\%
Doctoral degrees:
-in educ̣ation ..... 21\%
-in ed. admin. ..... 8.5\%
*Figures derived from 1972 National Education Association Research data and the 1974 Digest of Educational Statistics, published by the National Center for Education Statistics, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

The underutilization of qualified women within elementary-secondary education (suggested by the figures which show more women holdingadvanced degrees in education than are employed in the administrative positions for which such degrees could qualify them) indicates the prqbable existence of discriminatory policies and practices.

- Data regarding the employment of wotnen within higher edúcation faculties likewise suggest the existence and prevalence of sex discrimination.
-Although women reecived $12.91 \%$ of the doctoral degrees conferred between 1920 and 1973, in 1974, women were only $10.4 \%$ of all full professors. This 1974 figure represents an increase of .5 percent from 1972. ${ }^{23}$
- A survey by the Educational Testing Service of women and men who earned.their Ph.B's in 1950, 1960, and 1968, indicated that as timè passed, women fell farther behind their male colleagues in both salary and rank. ${ }^{24}$ Although some of the differential in pay and rank may be attributable to relatively feywer years of continuous full-time work by the women, a number of the women surveyed stated that they had experienced career inter- $x$ ruptions which wore themselves due to anti-nepotism rules applied with discriminatory impact upon wonen.
-National figures regarding the employment of women in postsecondary education indicate thát women are heavily concentrated in the lower academic ranks. In 1974, women were:
$10.3 \%^{\prime}$ of all professors;
$16.9 \%$ of all associate professors;
: $27.1 \%$ of all assistant professors;
$40.6 \%$ of all instructors. ${ }^{(25}$
Many other forms of sex discrimination exist in education programs and institutions. Some; possibly because of their very pervasifeness, have not been'subject to the systematic documenta-, tion which has been previously described. They do, however, function to deny equal education to males and females. They include such policies or practices as those which establish:
- differential course or graduation requirements for females and males;
- physical education programs which differentiatè between males and females in required actıvities and available facilities;
- extracurricular activities which are provided on a sex-segregated basis;
- honors and awards for which students are selectèd on the basis of sex;
- policies_governing student dress, conduct or residence which'differentiate on the basis of sex;
- student employment services which differentiate on the basis of sex.

All of the above constitute policies or practices which are prohibited under Title IX.
One additional area which has been the subject of much public attention is sex-role sterebtyping and sex discrimination in textbooks and instrictional materials. Numerous studies have documented that from preschool through graduate level, texts and instructional materials in virtually every subject area or discipline present limiting and stereotyped images of both females and males. Females are largely "invisible; when, they do appear, they are usually portrayed as passive and emotional creatures defined primarily by their relationships to men, or as curious diversions briefly interrupting the male course of political, economic, scientific or artistic endeayor. Males are generally portrayed in opposite but equally stereotyped roles: they are usually striving and achieving in adventure, career or public roles, with little family or emotional life and few human limitations. ${ }^{26}$ Bias in textbooks and instructional materials is ${ }^{\circ}$ explicitly not covered in the body of the Title IX Regulation. The Preamble to the Regulation does, however, acknowledge the issue as one of concern, particularly at the elementary-secondary leyel. It further recommends the development by State and local education agencies of criteria for the selection of nonbiased materials.

What are the effects of sex discrimination in education programs and activities?
-Sex discrimination in education programs and activities functions not only to deny the rights of individuals to that equality of opportunity to which they are legally entitled but also to affect the ability of individuals to participate fully in other'societal institutions and benefits.

Although it is difficult to separate the direct effects of sex discrimination in education from a larger pattern of societal sex stereotyping, several recent studies suggest possible relationships
between discrımination and stereotyping in education and academic and career outcomes. R'ecent data from the National Assessment of Educational Progress indicate that there are significant differences in academic achievement by males and females. According to Assessment figures published in 1975

- Males outperform females in four of the eight major subject areas examined: mathematics, . science, social studies and citizenshıp.
- In the other four learning areas, females consistently outperform'males in only one, writing, and maintain a slight advantage in one otherg music.
- In the other two subjects, reading and literature. females outperform males until age 9 , and then decline in relative performance until, by ages $26-35$, they lag behind males
- In the male-dominated areas (mathematics, science, social studies and citizenship), males and females show scholastic understandings that are fairly equal until the onset of adolesceñce By age 13, however, females begin a decline in performance which continues downward through age 17 and into adulthood. ${ }^{27}$

A review of research regarding basic psychological sex differences suggests that the extent and degre of of these sex differences in achievęment are not explainable by basic sex differences in abilities. ${ }^{28}$ Although research indicates that males do exceed females in mathematical and visualspatial ability, which is consistent with their superior performance on the mathematics sections of the Assessment, it also indicates that females have greater verbal ability than do males. It is thus difficult to explain the consistent performance deficits of females in such largely verbal areas as social studies and"citizenship and their ultimate decline in reading and literature achievement on the basis of basic ability differences.

It is more plausible, however; to identify some of the sources of these differences in education programs which discriminate and stereotype on the basis of sex. Male áchievement in science may be facilitated by science textbooks which, beginning at elementary school, are the most male-dominated of any subject area; ${ }^{29}$ it may be reinforced by guidance counselors who discourage the participation of females in scíence programs, ${ }^{30}$ and it may be shaped belative dominance of men in science teaching positions. The performance deficit of females in an area as apparently neutral as citizenship may be in part accounted for by government textbooks which largely omit or denigrate the role of females in the political institutions of the nation. ${ }^{31}$

Another study suggests the effect which sex discrimination in educational employment may have upon student outcomes and achievement. In a sample of women derived from three successive editions of Who's Who of American Women, there was a strong positive correlation between the number of women faculty on a campus and the number of women achievers graduating from -that campus. ${ }^{32}$ Women students on campuses where women are denied faculty positions as a result of sex discrimination are thus denied role models to support their academic success and ultimate achievement.

Title IX is an important tool for the improvement of education practice and institutions so that they may more effectively meet the individual needs of all students and the needs of our society for the fuller utilization of the talents within it. The criteria and procedures for compliance which are specified in its implementing Regulation provide guidelines for efforts by education agencies and institutions to modify policies and practices which discriminate on the basis of sex and remedy their effects. The data summarized in this pamphlet suggest that this process cannot begin too soon.
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