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Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

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February 15, 2022

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Abilene Christian University
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Title IX: Girls Call Foul

A dissertation in partial satisfaction
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

by

Robert Marcus Canonico

April 2022

Dedication

This dissertation is first dedicated to my Lord Jesus Christ, through whom all things are made possible. A special feeling of gratitude to my loving parents Robert and Nancy Canonico, who always believed and supported me, this would not have been possible without your unwavering love and support. Thank you for giving me the chance to pursue this milestone in my life. I will always remember the things you taught me, and one specific thing is the determination to reach my goals and to never look back on my life and regret not pursuing my goals. I will always love you and know I can never repay all the things you have done for me in my life.

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Abstract

Few pieces of legislation have had more of an effect on public education in recent years than Title IX of the 1972 Education Amendments. Female athlete participation has increased considerably as a result of this regulation. The purpose of this study, which was conducted in the state of Texas, was to find out how athletic directors—male and female head coaches—felt about their campuses' compliance with Title IX components. The study focused on the results of a survey instrument that included 14 Likert-scale items and a number of demographic questions. The goal of this study was to (a) look at how athletic directors and head coaches of both male and female athletes perceive their school district's level of Title IX compliance, and (b) look at specific patterns that determine whether Texas school districts are in compliance or noncompliance with specific Title IX provisions. The law focuses on equality in athletic opportunities under the following situations: (a) the choice of sports and performance levels (i.e., the successful accommodation of the desires and skills of members of both sexes); (b) the provision of equipment and supplies; (c) the arrangement of games and practice time; (4) the ability to obtain coaching and academic tutoring; (d) the provision of locker rooms, practice rooms, and competitive facilities; (e) advertising; and (f) the recruitment of coaching and academic tutoring. Descriptive and causal-comparative methods were used to analyze the data. The findings showed that regardless of their function, athletic directors, head girls coaches, and head boys coaches in Texas public high schools believed their schools complied with Title IX criteria to a high degree. A descriptive examination of the replies by respondent role revealed minor differences between male and female head coaches. Finally, the study revealed athletic directors should pay greater attention to coaching assignments, salary, and athletic facilities to comply with Title IX of the 1972 Education Amendments.

Keywords: Title IX, athletics, perceptions, athletic director, head coach, high school

Table of Contents

Acknowledgments.....	ii
Abstract.....	iv
List of Tables	viii
List of Figures	ix
Chapter 1: Introduction	1
Statement of the Problem.....	4
Purpose of the Study	4
Research Questions	5
Impact of the Study	5
Key Terms.....	6
Delimitations.....	7
Organization of the Study	7
Chapter 2: Review of the Literature.....	9
The History of Women and Sports Before Title IX.....	9
The History and Development of Regulations, Litigation, and Legislation Under Title IX.....	13
Attaining and Sustaining Title IX Compliance.....	21
Studies on Perception of Title IX Compliance	25
Texas School District Complaints Under Title IX.....	30
Current Concerns Surrounding the Enforcement of Title IX.....	30
Advancement of Women in Sports Since Title IX	34
Summary	35
Chapter 3: Research Methodology and Design	37
Purpose and Research Questions	37
Research Design, Methodological Approach, and Rationale	38
Population	39
Survey Instrument.....	41
Validity and Reliability	43
Data Collection	44
Data Analysis	45
Summary	47
Chapter 4: Findings.....	48
Demographics	49
Research Question 1	50
Research Question 2	55

Research Question 3	57
Research Question 4	59
Additional Measured Indicators of Compliance	61
Summary	64
Chapter 5: Discussions, Conclusions, and Recommendations	65
Summary of Results	66
Research Question 1	66
Research Question 2	67
Research Question 3	68
Research Question 4	69
Additional Indicators of Compliance	70
Limitations of the Study	72
Implications of the Study	73
Future Research Recommendations	75
Summary	76
References	77
Appendix A: Alchemer Surveys	85
Appendix B: IRB Approval	99
Appendix C: Email to Athletic Directors Regarding Distribution of the Survey	100

List of Tables

Table 1. Texas UIL Classifications	40
Table 2. Athletic Directors and Head Coaches Analysis ($N = 419$)	49
Table 3. Applicable Statistical Measures of School Means	51
Table 4. Range of Means: Athletic Directors ($N = 154$)	52
Table 5. Range of Means: Head Coaches for Female Athletes ($N = 150$)	53
Table 6. Range of Means: Head Coaches for Male Athletes ($N = 115$)	54
Table 7. Range of Means: Athletic Directors and Head Coaches ($N = 419$)	55
Table 8. School Means Grouped by Job Title ($N = 419$)	56
Table 9. Summary Table for ANOVA of the Effects of Athletic Director, Head Coaches of Male Athletes, and Head Coaches of Female Athletes	57
Table 10. Classification of Schools, Athletic Directors, Combined Means ($N = 155$)	58
Table 11. Classification of Schools, Head Coaches, Combined Means ($N = 268$)	59
Table 12. Program Component Areas by Item and Program Component Means	61
Table 13. Female Student Population Compared to Population of Female Athletes	62
Table 14. Percentage of Male Coaches Compared to Female Coaches	62
Table 15. Percentage of Male Teams Compared to Female Teams	63

List of Figures

Figure 1. Respondents by UIL Classification ($N = 154$)	40
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Chapter 1: Introduction

Few statutes have had a larger effect on interscholastic and intercollegiate athletics over the last 48 years than Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972. With the passage of Title IX of the 1972 Education Reforms, legislators created the framework for considerable reforms by protecting students from sex-based discrimination in both public and private educational institutions receiving federal funds (U.S. Department of Education, 2012). The Educational Amendments of 1972 are responsible for Title IX (34 C.F.R. Part 106). An important part of Title IX 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 education program or activity receiving federal financial assistance. (Civil Rights Restoration Act of 1987, 1990, §1681)

However, Title IX was slow to make any significant changes in the discrimination within college and high school athletics. The area that saw the most delayed implementation was in public school athletic programs. Suggs (2002) reported, “In 1972 [there were] only a tiny number of colleges and varsity sports for women . . . That year, there were just under 30,000 women in college varsity and recreational programs . . . compared with 170,000 men” (para. 9).

Through the rulings of federal courts, Title IX’s execution started to positively affect American athletics, but there were still hurdles to clear before Title IX would be in full force. However, the law was making a difference, and there continues to be an exponential surge in women playing sports 48 years after Title IX was passed (National Coalition for Women and Girls in Education [NCWGE], 2012). High school girls participating in athletics has increased tenfold over the last 45 years, with Title IX giving women more opportunities to play sports

(NCWGE, 2012). In 2017, the NCWGE reported, “At the 2016 Summer Olympic Games in Rio de Janeiro, the U.S. Olympic team fielded a record 292 female athletes” (p. 1). During the same Olympic Games, women athletes outnumbered the male athletes and made the biggest team of women ever to participate in the history of the Olympics. The above gains show Title IX is working, and females have an escalating interest in athletics. The National Federation of State High School Associations (2019b) reported in 1971-1972, over 3,666,917 males participated in athletics compared to only 294,015 female participants; the most current numbers show 4,534,758 boys and 3,402,733 girls compete in athletics (National Federation of State High School Associations, 2019a).

The Office of Civil Rights (OCR) oversees the enforcement of Title IX in K–12 schools, colleges, and universities (Koller, 2010). The law focuses on equality in athletic opportunities under the following situations: (1) the choice of sports and performance levels (i.e., the successful accommodation of the desires and skills of members of both sexes); (2) the provision of equipment and supplies; (3) the arrangement of games and practice time; (4) the ability to obtain coaching and academic tutoring; (5) the provision of locker rooms, practice rooms and competitive facilities; (6) advertising; and (7) the recruitment of coaching and academic tutoring. (§106.141c). The intent of Title IX was not to mandate special treatment for females in the aforementioned areas—only that they be treated equally (U.S. Department of Education, OCR, 2012). Without question, Title IX has considerably extended chances for high school girls to participate in athletics; nonetheless, females continue to be underrepresented in high school sports participation when compared to their male counterparts (Koller, 2010). There is “little doubt that discrimination in the form of second-class treatment for female athletes is still a fact of life” (p. 405). Koller (2010) believes that this portrayal of girls as second-class citizens is one

of the reasons why high school girls do not join in or continue to participate in school-sponsored sports activities at the same rate as boys.

A critical court case in Title IX implementation is *Cannon v. University of Chicago* (1979). In this case, the judges said that any plaintiff is within the law to bring a Title IX lawsuit that could go directly through the courts without exhausting all their time and energy with administrative procedures. Therefore, Title IX implementation efforts began to grow, especially with high school and college athletes who that started to use the protection granted to them through *Cannon v. The University of Chicago*.

Advocates of gender equity in athletics took a step backward in 1984 with the ruling in *Grove City College v. Bell* (1984). The ruling in *Bell* put limits on Title IX enforcement's latitude to only those athletic teams receiving government funding. The OCR, shortly after the verdict, began limiting its enforcement of Title IX because teams were not receiving federal funds. Congress in 1988 propelled legislation through the enactment of the Civil Rights Restoration Act (1990) that overturned the *Grove City College v. Bell* (1984) case, redefining Title IX's claim on schools that accept federal money for any department within the school.

The U.S. Supreme Court in 1992 gave Title IX even more teeth in their ruling in *Franklin v. Gwinnett County Public Schools* (1992). In the *Franklin* case, the Court found that plaintiffs could be awarded monetary damages for lawsuits filed to impose Title IX guidelines. The lawsuit extended damages by awarding monetary damages to individuals who fell under the *Cannon v. University of Chicago* (1979) ruling. The *Grove City College v. Bell* (1984) and *Franklin v. Gwinnett County Public Schools* (1992) decisions made Title IX a critical issue for interscholastic athletics.

I aimed to take a closer look at the current state of public-school districts' sports programs and their compliance with Title IX mandates in schools across Texas through the perceptions of school district leadership and head male and female coaches.

Statement of the Problem

Substantial advancement has been made in gender equity in school district's sports teams since the adoption of Title IX (Schneider et al., 2010). However, it would be inaccurate to suggest that the majority of school districts comply with Title IX. Schneider et al. (2010) stated, "Resistance, in some circles, to gender equity in athletic departments is a 'constant' as is evident in the numerous Title IX infractions that have been formally documented since the law's establishment" (p. 104). There is little observed research documenting opposition to gender equality problems in Texas high school athletic programs, which is the primary concern that supported the need for the current research. It is important to inquire about the perceptions of Texas school district athletic directors and high school head coaches of their districts' Title IX compliance. Regardless of Title IX's directive for gender equality over 48 years ago, addressing obstacles to female athletic involvement in Texas public school athletic programs remains a challenging issue (Hoffman, 2010).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to (a) examine the perceptions of how athletic directors and head coaches of both male and female athletes perceive their school district's level of compliance with Title IX, and (b) look at specific patterns that determine whether the districts in Texas are in compliance or noncompliance with particular parts of Title IX. An Alchemer survey was sent to athletic directors and varsity coaches of boys' and girls' athletic programs to determine their views and perceptions of compliance or noncompliance with Title IX regulations

within these athletic programs. An accurate depiction of the current status of Title IX compliance must be known to address the challenges of gender equity in athletics (Schneider et al., 2010).

Research Questions

This research concentrated on gender equality under Title IX within Texas public high school athletic programs. The research questions for this study were the following:

RQ1: What are the perceptions of the athletic directors and head coaches in Texas public high schools regarding their school district's Title IX compliance level?

RQ2: What variances occur among the perceptions of athletic directors and coaches of high school boys and girls athletes and sports teams who observe Title IX application?

RQ3: What variance does campus size in a school district have on the observed level of major compliance with Title IX?

RQ4: In which Title IX categories do the selected schools' athletic directors and head coaches believe their schools are most and least compliant with Title IX criteria (as stated by the OCR)?

Impact of the Study

Looking at literature on Title IX revealed that most of the examinations included students' assessments of college athletic programs. Similarly, little examination has occurred concerning the effect of regulations on high school sports teams. Furthermore, a smaller amount of data exists for the degree of compliance at public schools throughout Texas.

Title IX is not perfect, as it fails to meet total equitable standards; however, it has undoubtedly increased athletic opportunities for women over the last 48 years (National Collegiate Athletic Associations, 2020). Thus, more needs to be done so Title IX can be the bridge for equal opportunities for females. To comply with Title IX, any school district receiving

funds from the federal government must provide the same opportunities for female athletes as it provides for male athletes. Furthermore, the possibility of losing federal money in Texas school districts because of failing to comply with Title IX rules highlights the need for a study in this field. In addition, due to the decisions in the *Franklin* case, when compensatory damages are available, school districts want to ensure that their schools are compliant under Title IX.

The aim of this study was to provide school leaders with useful information. Even though there was literature that looked at perceptions of principals and college programs regarding Title IX, this study took it a step further by looking at the viewpoints of athletic directors and head coaches of male and female students. For example, knowing that head volleyball coaches in Texas perceived a lower degree of Title IX enforcement than head football coaches might provide valuable awareness into how to address public relations issues surrounding athletic equity efforts. Moreover, if those three groups of school leaders had reasonably similar views, practitioners might be more certain that Texas schools are following Title IX guidelines. If stakeholders now see school districts that have had Office of Civil Rights (OCR) complaints lodged against them as more compliant, then the lessons they have learned will help other school leaders recognize possible issues with their services and work to reduce the costs of an OCR complaint. I conducted this research against a changing political context, and as a result, it should be valuable to public educators who are concerned with issues of equity.

Key Terms

The key terms definitions for this study were the following:

Athletic director. Provides guidelines and direction for the sports programs of a school district. Prepares budgets and allocates expenses on issues, such as compensation for coaches,

team transport, acquisitions of equipment, and maintenance of facilities. Coordinates with coaches about the scheduling of games and practices (Value Colleges, 2021).

Interscholastic athletics. Sports programs that provide Kindergarten–Grade 12 students athletic opportunities in a public-education setting (Encyclopedia.com, 2020). The focus of this research was high school athletic programs (Grades 9–12).

Delimitations

There were some delimitations to this research that could have affected the ability to generalize its findings. Some of the delimitations included the following:

1. The information gathered for this research only looked at school districts in the state of Texas.
2. Only the districts' athletic directors, the head boys' coach of football, basketball, soccer, and baseball, and the head girls' coach of volleyball, basketball, soccer, and softball on each campus were surveyed for this report.
3. The details about Title IX compliance was limited to the respondents' expertise and integrity.
4. The study's findings were hampered by any limitations imposed by the survey methods used.

Organization of the Study

There are five chapters in this dissertation. The first chapter includes an overview of the study as well as some background information on Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, the legislation on which this study is based. Chapter 2 provides readers with an in-depth look at the literature on Title IX and school districts efforts to maintain or achieve compliance with sex equality in sports. The third chapter explores the methods used to perform the analysis,

while the fourth chapter details the unique results uncovered during the research process. Finally, in Chapter 5, the study's findings and consequences for educational professionals are discussed. In addition, Chapter 5 includes suggestions for areas that educational researchers may want to explore in the future.

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature

This literature review is related to the continuing discrimination against females in athletics, which led to the legislation known as Title IX. The literature review (a) gives a clear understanding of the discrimination girls face in athletics, (b) introduces the history of Title IX and sex discrimination among athletic programs at both the college and high school levels, (c) looks at how school districts can attain and sustain Title IX compliance, and (d) explores samples of OCR complaints filed against school districts in the state of Texas and how they were resolved. This literature review is organized according to the perceptions athletic directors and head coaches have toward their district's compliance with Title IX.

To make sure this review is comprehensive, I conducted research through Abilene Christian University's electronic databases. LEXIS-NEXIS was used to find current legal cases on high school athletics and Title IX. The ERIC database is a popular place to find data and information related to Title IX. There is research from articles and books on sexual discrimination, females in sports, and the continued goal of reaching total and complete equality.

The U.S. Department of Education (DOE) website offered crucial research and data needed to look at females in high school athletics. More precisely, the website of the Office of Civil Rights (OCR), which falls under the DOE, was the most helpful website to find reliable data and an understanding of Title IX and female sports participation. Last, I obtained information from the OCR that shows the number of Title IX grievances filed against Texas public schools.

The History of Women and Sports Before Title IX

The evolution of girls' athletics in the United States took place alongside social movements for civil rights (Hanson, 2009). Throughout the history of the United States, females

have organized and fought against gender discrimination, resulting in more opportunities and prominent roles in American society. As African Americans raised awareness of their perceived second-class social status and renewed their demands for equality, they consequently emboldened women to reevaluate how they remained marginalized (Hanson, 2009). According to historian Hanson (2009), the defining moment for the United States and soon-to-be-formed women's movement was the struggle for civil rights. Hanson said, "Women began to demand a larger role in the civil rights movement. Through this, Black women leaders, White women leaders, and hundreds of other women forged a new political identity" (p. 202). From the civil rights movement's, fundamental principles emerged a new feminist camp resulting in more equitable opportunities in employment, education, and athletics, culminating in the passage and implementation of Title IX of the Education Amendments Act of 1972 (Hanson, 2009).

The history of Title IX is the culmination of nearly 170 years of continuous social, cultural, and political resistance to the prevailing masculine notions and expectations of feminine sexuality and behavior. In the United States, athletic competition served as the forum in which boys and men proved their masculinity. In this capacity, sports have served as a method to achieve victory, legitimacy, and manhood. Conversely, women seeking to participate in sports have been historically discouraged and marginalized from athletic competition by sexist ideologies ranging from the fear of women infiltrating a masculine sphere to questioning the durability and capabilities of the female physique (Hanson, 2009).

By the 1930s, the social status of women evolved dramatically (Hanson, 2009). The passage of the Nineteenth Amendment, allowing women to vote, renewed women's vigor to obtain more social, economic, educational, and political freedoms. However, the onset of the Great Depression stunted these gains. The Depression of the 1930s left millions of Americans

unemployed and reemphasized the need for women to remain in the home as the need for women to resume their roles as mothers, wives, and homemakers superseded their desires to pursue athletic endeavors (Hanson, 2009).

The picture of Rosie the Riveter is a part of U.S. history that shows American women's strength at the start of the 20th century (History.com Editors, 2019). At the onset of World War II and the engagement of the United States in the war efforts, American women were forced to work jobs previously filled by men. The return to the workplace provided women with a renewed sense of accomplishment, confidence, and self-esteem. By demonstrating an ability to equally accomplish tasks previously performed by men, many women believed they could achieve similar success on the playing fields of athletic competition. Women were making history during World War II in the workforce, and at the same time, African Americans were also a significant part of the war efforts. Fields (2008) stated, "The women's movement arose directly from the civil rights movement, a movement which itself had begun during World War II when African-Americans resented the racial distinctions in both the military and in the general American culture" (p. 11). There is a strong tie between women's struggles and marginalized groups facing racial segregation and discrimination.

Women's progress in sports during the 1950s and 1960s was directly accredited to a new wave of feminism that emerged from the 20th century's civil rights movement (Suggs, 2005). The civil rights movement challenged existing racist and sexist ideologies that relegated women and people of color to the periphery of economic, education, social, and political opportunities (Suggs, 2005). Because of this push for new civil rights, America's social consciousness changed with the passage and enforcement of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. The passage of the Civil

Rights Act culminated decades of passionate struggle and sacrifice of women to achieve gender equality in the workplace.

The Supreme Court's ruling in *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) ended the policy of "separate but equal" regarding racial exclusion in school districts and established the platform for today's civil rights crusade. According to Theune (2019), "Although neither Brown nor Title IX specifically mentions sports participation, both anti-discrimination laws have changed the landscape of high school and college sports by granting Blacks and women increased access to athletic opportunities previously reserved for white men" (p. e12661).

The 1960s provided significant social advancements for both women and minorities, including the Equal Pay Act of 1963, increased control over women's athletics, the Civil Rights Act of 1964, and the Voting Rights Act of 1965 (Suggs, 2005). Moreover, new laws and federal regulations modified educational policy, allowing access to education to those formerly left out. However, previous legislation failed to protect women from discrimination in education. While Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibited employment discrimination based upon gender, it failed to provide similar education protection, as interscholastic and intercollegiate programs remained excluded from Title VII. Likewise, Title VI of the Civil Rights Act prevented race-based discrimination in education by institutions that receive federal funding but initially mentioned nothing of women as a protected class (Suggs, 2005).

When President Lyndon Johnson embarked on an initiative to accomplish what he named "the Great Society," his mission was a "war on poverty" (Salamone, 1986). One of the most important laws that came from President Johnson during this time is the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Enacting the Civil Rights Act paved the way for Title IX because Title VI prohibited discrimination due to race by any organization that receives federal funding. Modeled after Title

VI, Title IX was ratified to combat the injustices against women in every federally funded program (Passeggi, 2002).

The History and Development of Regulations, Litigation, and Legislation Under Title IX

Gender equality in the United States became a significant political concern in the early 1970s. This political concern was most visible in educational institutions, especially in the women's campaign to participate in athletics (Causby, 2010). Towards the start of the 20th century, females in athletics started to have acceptance in specific areas within the sports community if female undertakings were not seen as being too aggressive. Fields (2008) stated, "Women were not supposed to be overly competitive—that was a masculine trait—and they were to avoid contact which could lead to injury. . . Thus games like tennis, golf, and swimming were, on an amateur level, acceptable" (p. 9).

Women's rights activists found legislative and governmental solutions to influence improvements in the United States' education system to stop gender inequality in education. In 1969, Bernice Sandler, a part-time educator at the University of Maryland, inquired why she was not even considered for a full-time faculty position within her department (Miller, 2020). She was told that despite her strong qualifications, she "came on too strong for a woman" (p. 1). This comment inspired Sandler to campaign to end gender discrimination in education with the support of the Women's Equity Action League (WEAL). In 1970, Edith Green, a legislator from Oregon, held the first congressional hearings on equal opportunities in education and employment for women (Miller, 2020).

In 1971, Sandler, with the assistance of Representative Green and Representative Martha Griffiths of Michigan, began to draft Title IX legislation to be introduced later that year. Representative Green initially intended to amend Titles VI and VII of the Civil Rights Bill

strengthening women as a protected class (Suggs, 2005). However, African-American leaders worried that any amendments to the previous legislation might weaken coverage for Black students. Drawing on the language used in the Civil Rights Act, Green, Griffiths, and Senator Birch Bayh of Indiana created the first piece of legislation specifically prohibiting discrimination in education based on sex. Title IX reads in part:

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. (Civil Rights Restoration Act of 1987, 1990, §1681)

Representative Green, with the support of Representative Shirley Chisholm of New York, the first Black woman elected to Congress, introduced the bill in Congress in 1971 as a separate amendment—Title IX. The hearings lasted seven days and heard testimony from various educational professionals both for and against the bill. Representative Green said, “All I want and all I ask is . . . that if two individuals, a man, and a woman, come to college or university and they have equal credentials and apply for admissions, that they be treated as equal” (Blumenthal, 2005, p. 38). Also, Chisholm argued that during her entire political career, her gender had been a much greater hindrance than the color of her skin. With the assistance of educational associations and their Congressional supporters, the bill was passed in June 1972 and signed into law by then President Richard M. Nixon on June 23, 1972 (Hanson et al., 2009).

What began as an effort to fight sexist hiring and admission practices among America’s higher education institutions evolved into a government mandate requiring equal opportunities for women in education, employment, and sports, as well as providing safe learning environments and protection from sexual harassment. Multiple legal challenges and judicial

interpretations transformed Title IX from a bill about equal educational opportunities into a law that prevents gender discrimination. For example, as historian Suggs (2005) argued, similar to the Civil Rights Act of 1964 in which additional pages of rules and punishments clarified the new law, Title IX required a series of regulations and guidelines published by the executive branch of the federal government to explain how educational institutions should comply. Despite decades of legal interpretation and clarification, Title IX remains highly controversial to this day because of its impact on both women's and men's athletic teams at the middle school, high school, and college levels.

By the time Title IX passed in 1972, women had already made substantial amateur and professional sports advancements. A document in the DOE (2003b) database stated, "In 1971, 294,015 girls participated in high school athletics" (p. 46). As a comparison, in 2017, over 3,400,297 females participated in high school sports. This increase in participation represents more than a 1,000% increase from 1971 (National Federation of State High School Associations, 2019a).

In 1974 the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (HEW) was the designated executive force to carry out Title IX policies. The Secretary of the HEW, Caspar Weinberger, was assigned the challenging task of establishing policies and procedures for the new legislation (Skrentny, 2002). The main difficulty for Weinberger was determining the level to which Title IX would relate to athletics. According to Skrentny (2002), many in Congress pushed Weinberger "to issue regulations much more constrained than the letter of the law" (p. 252). The most significant extent of the determinations to restrict the total effect of Title IX came as an endeavor of Texas Senator John Tower to change Title IX with the goal that there would be no significant bearing on athletics. Senator Tower argued that Title IX legislation was never put in

place to control sports. As part of a proposed Education Amendments bill, Tower recommended an alteration to Title IX in May 1974. Title IX should not apply to intercollegiate athletics, according to his suggestion, “to the extent that such activity does or may provide gross receipts or donations to the institution necessary to support that activity” (Skrentny, 2002, p. 252). After two years of developing guidelines and regulations to better execute the complicated and contentious new law, in May of 1975, the HEW established the initial set of associated policies that would direct the execution of Title IX. The final draft ignored Senator Tower’s “revenue-producing sports” exemption. Instead, it included a series of regulations and provisions for each educational institution to follow. These included separate teams for members of both sexes where the selection of each member is based upon competitive skill, an annual determination of student interest, affirmation efforts to inform the student body of all athletic and training activities, and the provision of equal athletic opportunities (Skrentny, 2002).

On June 4, 1975, President Gerald Ford signed the renovated HEW regulations that contained several more specific provisions regarding gender equity and athletics (Ware, 2014). While the original draft standards had a hazy concept of equal opportunity, the most recent version addressed difficulties, such as establishing specific areas like practice periods, coaching, and facilities that schools must provide so that there were equal athletic opportunities for both sexes (Ackerman, 2011). Furthermore, compliance with Title IX requires more than merely the opportunity for women to try out for men’s teams (Ware, 2014). These new regulations also provided a separate section that teams should be provided by the interest and participation of male and female student athletes. The resolution read, “Neither quotas nor fixed percentages of any type are required under the regulation” (Director, Office for Civil Rights, 1975, para. 27). Under its publicity provisions, the resolution stated the following:

Unequal aggregate expenditures for members of each sex or unequal expenditures for male and female teams will not constitute noncompliance with this section, but the Assistant Secretary may consider the failure to provide necessary funds for teams for one sex in assessing equality of opportunity for members of each sex. (Legal Information Institute, 2020, para. 4)

The regulations stipulate a one-year compliance period for elementary schools and three-year compliance periods for high schools and colleges. Administrators who wanted to move forward and provide equal sporting opportunities to girls breathed a sigh of relief after months of uncertainty and delay, while those opposed to the new law needed to examine the changes that could be required (Ware, 2014).

Although Title IX overcame significant public criticism and legal challenges, more obstructions remained, including an ineffective bureaucracy. By July 1978, high school and college athletic departments filed nearly 100 complaints (DOE, 1979). Despite the transitional grace period provided by the 1975 HEW regulations, questions remained concerning what constituted compliance. In 1978, in an attempt to clarify the definition of compliance, HEW offered a renewed policy interpretation, which stated a school or college achieved compliance with the law if it eliminated “discrimination in financial support and other benefits and opportunities in its existing athletic program” (DOE, 1979, para. 1). Procedures and standards for designing an athletic program that provides equal chances for men and women to meet their interests and skills should be included in an institutional policy.

Even after the three-year transition period, the qualifications of compliance remained problematic (DOE, 1979). Therefore, on December 11, 1979, HEW published a final policy interpretation that varied substantially from the previous policies of 1975 and 1978. The most

significant adaptation of the policy was the clarification of the compliance process and a means to assess it through the establishment of the *three-prong test* (DOE, 2020b).

Unlike previous HEW policy interpretations, the final policy interpretation of 1979 not only clarified the definition of equal opportunity in athletics, but also provided factors and standards by which the OCR could determine whether or not an institution is compliant in providing equal opportunities in education and athletics, or if there are any discrepancies between men's and women's athletics (Ware, 2014). The federal government gave them more clout under Title IX restrictions, thanks to the now-established regulations:

The agency's draft regulations reveal that in the absence of more explicit statutory direction and a shortage of case law dealing with sex discrimination in education, DHEW chose to give the statute an expansive interpretation, substantially expanding its coverage and the agency's powers of enforcement. (Hunt, 1999, p. 61)

A key component coming from the new policy was the broad interpretation that would require even those schools that indirectly got federal help would also be subject to Title IX restrictions. A document from the DOE in 1979 said, "This policy interpretation applies to any public or private institution, person or other entity that operates an educational program or activity which receives or benefits from financial assistance authorized or extended under a law administered by the Department" (Scope of Application, para. 2). Title IX language says that refusal of funding for noncompliance

shall be limited to a particular political entity, or part thereof, or other recipient as to whom such a finding has been made and shall be limited in its effect to the particular program, or part thereof, in which such noncompliance has been so found. (U.S. Department of Justice, 1972, Sec. 1682, para. 1)

The expanded authorization given by Title IX regulations, alongside the private right to bring a lawsuit that was ruled on in the *Cannon v. University of Chicago* (1979) Supreme Court case, appeared to make way for considerable alterations in the methods of activity in sports programs. In the case, The Supreme Court decided that “since the legislation was designed to protect female athletes, the athletes could sue to uphold their rights” (p. 441).

Even though it seemed like there were advances for females in athletics, the development of Title IX’s enactment during the 1980s continued to progress slowly, in large part because of the conservative rules of President Reagan and President Bush. In a *New York Times* article, Taylor (1983) argued the following about the *Cannon v. University of Chicago* case:

as involving a clash of values: the American tradition of valuing diversity and autonomy, especially in colleges, where academic freedom could be stifled by pervasive regulation, versus Washington’s commitment to bar the use of federal funds to subsidize discrimination. (p. 5)

In *North Haven Board of Education v. Bell* (1992) and *Grove City College v. Bell* (1984), the Supreme Court struck down the belief of established control of Title IX. These court findings provided schools with safety because they claimed that Title IX could not apply to schools’ athletic teams since the athletic teams were not getting direct monetary assistance from the federal government. Simultaneously, their far-reaching impact would prompt political organizations to fight to overturn *Grove City College v. Bell* (1984). Many of these organizations would later campaign to help establish the Civil Rights Restoration Act of 1987.

The Civil Rights Restoration Act of 1987 ultimately changed the impact of the *Grove City College v. Bell* (1984) case. That important portion of law throughout the entire existence of Title IX implementation required compliance from all athletic departments accepting

government funds, no matter if getting funds directly or indirectly. Conran (2000) clarified that “The Restoration Act broadly defined the terms ‘program and activity’ [and] extended Title IX coverage to each program, including any athletic programs, sponsored by educational institutions” (p. 33). The law’s central element was that Title IX covered all athletic teams if the institution receives any federal money. The Restoration Act allowed improved efforts on gender equity for female athletics and provided opportunities to bring more lawsuits against schools not following the law’s requirements.

The Supreme Court case *Franklin v. Gwinnett County Public Schools* of 1992 shifted once more the terrain of Title IX. The Supreme Court ruled that monetary damages could be awarded in Title IX cases. The *Franklin* case brought specific employment-law philosophies into Title IX jurisprudence, ruling that because the school officials, in that case, had been aware (or had had notice) that a coach was sexually harassing a high school student and had done nothing about it, the student could recover monetary damages from the school (Cyphert, 2018). Because of the *Franklin* decision, which established there is a private right of action under Title IX and plaintiffs can sue for monetary damages, “private litigation has flourished and has become an important Title IX enforcement tool” (Cyphert, 2018, p. 56).

The OCR had an important year in 1990 from a policy development standpoint because their office released the Title IX Athletics Investigator’s Manual (Bonnette & Daniel, 1990). The manual is divided into 13 sections that the OCR uses when investigating whether schools are following Title IX. In the Introduction of the manual, it states, “This manual is designed to assist investigators of the OCR in the investigations of interscholastic and intercollegiate athletics programs offered by educational institutions required to comply with Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972” (Bonnette & Daniel, 1990, para. 1).

Attaining and Sustaining Title IX Compliance

The OCR (DOE, 2020a) holds the essential duty of authorizing Title IX's restrictions with respect to separation based on sex in America's public schools. School administrators must work with the OCR to get guidance when it comes to following the guidelines required under Title IX.

The HEW was initially assigned the duty of investigations and Title IX enforcement (DOE, 1979). Section 844 of the Education Amendments of 1974 required the DHEW to be the point of contact. The following was pointed out within *A Policy Interpretation: Title IX and Intercollegiate Athletics* (DOE, 1979):

The Secretary of [HEW] shall prepare and publish proposed regulations implementing the provisions of Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 relating to the prohibition of sex discrimination in federally assisted education programs, which shall include intercollegiate athletic activities reasonable provisions considering the nature of particular sports. (1.A., para. 2)

Public schools requested direction from the HEW (and then from the DOE) on how they can adhere to Title IX requirements. The OCR occasionally disperses documentation used to help educational establishments wanting to circumvent occurrences of sex discrimination.

Information from the DOE (1979) said, "By the end of July 1978, the Department [of Health, Education, and Welfare] had received nearly 100 complaints alleging discrimination in athletics against more than 50 institutions of higher education" (II. Purpose of Policy Interpretation, para. 1). Assistance came with the policy interpretation of 1979 that delivered a framework and structure to help resolve complaints filed against schools across the nation. Clarification was given in the policy interpretation: "Many comments by colleges and

universities reflected a serious misunderstanding of the presumption of compliance . . . that failure to provide compelling justification for disparities in per capita expenditures would have automatically resulted in a finding of noncompliance” (DOE, 1979, V(2)).

In the Summary of Final Policy Interpretation section, the DOE (1979) presented the policy interpretation in three clarifying sections:

- Compliance in Financial Assistance (Scholarships) Based on Athletic Ability:
Compliant with the guideline, the administering rule here is that all such help should be accessible on a significantly relative premise to the quantity of male and female members participating in their school’s athletic teams.
- Compliance in equipment and supplies; scheduled practice and game times; per diem for travel; quality of coaching; coaching assignment and compensation; locker rooms, and practice and competitive facilities; medical and training room; housing and dining facilities; publicity; recruitment; and support services.

Following the guidelines above, the leading standard is that all student-athletes ought to get equal treatment, advantages, and opportunities.

- Compliance in Meeting the Interests and Abilities of Male and Female Students:
Under the guideline, the overseeing rule here is that the male and female athletes’ athletic interests and capabilities must be equally and successfully accommodated.
(IV. Summary of Final Policy Interpretation, para. 1)

The key component was the HEW had expressly defined what needed to be considered when coming up with ways to stop sex discrimination and follow Title IX guidelines.

The policy interpretation provided an easy way to follow Title IX policies (DOE, 1979). The policy for compliance is known as the “three-prong test” for athletics participation:

An institution may (1) provide participation opportunities for male and female students that are substantially proportionate to their enrollment, or (2) demonstrate a history and continuing practice of program expansion for the underrepresented gender, or (3) fully and effectively accommodate the interest and abilities of the underrepresented gender.

(Beam et al., 2004, p. 3)

At the high school level, the courts pushed athletic programs during the 1980s and 1990s to follow Title IX laws. The OCR saw a rise in concerns that schools had to use a quota system to comply with the legislation, especially in accommodations of preferences and skills.

Additional guidance did not come until 1996, when the OCR published the *Clarification of Intercollegiate Athletics Policy Guidance: The Three-Part Test* (DOE, 1996). Assistant Secretary for Civil Rights Norma Cantu saw that more clarification was needed for the three-prong test, which is a test that determines if student athletes of both sexes are given the same opportunities to participate in (DOE, 1996, para. 2).

Through the new guidelines, Secretary Cantu wanted to clear up any misconceptions concerning the law's compliance. In the published guidelines, Cantu's main points included the following:

The three-part test furnishes an institution with three individual avenues to choose from when determining how it will provide individuals of each sex with nondiscriminatory opportunities to participate in intercollegiate athletics. If an institution has met any part of the three-part test, OCR will determine that it meets this requirement. (DOE, 1996, para. 4).

Furthermore, she proclaimed, "It is important to note that under the Policy Interpretation, the requirement to provide nondiscriminatory participation opportunities is only one of many

factors that the OCR examines to determine if an institution complies with the athletics provision of Title IX” (para. 5).

Secretary Cantu clarified that schools only had to follow Title IX’s guidelines by proving they met any of the three measures needed to comply with the policy interpretation of 1979 (DOE, 1996). The main reason Secretary Cantu cleared this up was that many institutions began terminating male sports. The elimination of these male teams decreased male opportunities to compete because of the “substantial proportionality” element of the three-prong test. To ease tension, Cantu wrote that

cutting or capping men’s team will not help an institution comply with part two or part three of the test because these tests measure an institution’s positive, ongoing response to the interests and abilities of the underrepresented sex. Ultimately, Title IX provides institutions with flexibility and choice regarding how they will provide nondiscriminatory participation opportunities. (DOE, 1996, para. 16)

As a final point, the 1996 clarification tried to give schools “more information regarding the specific elements of an appropriate assessment of student interest and ability” (DOE, 1996, para. 16).

In June 2002, the Commission on Opportunities in Athletics committee was set up by Secretary of Education Rod Paige to investigate if further directives on Title IX and intercollegiate athletic requirements were necessary (DOE, 2003a, para 3). Furthermore, the committee was created to handle the additional need for instruction on the enforcement standards of the DOE (DOE, 2003a, para. 3).

In April 2004, the OCR sent a memo out named “Title IX Responsibilities” in reply to their evaluation of several federally funded colleges and universities’ compliance standing.

Examples of the deficiencies identified by the investigations include the failure to designate and adequately train at least one employee to coordinate the recipient's Title IX responsibilities, the failure to have and disseminate notice of the nondiscrimination policy, and the failure to adopt or publish required Title IX grievance procedures to address sex discrimination claims. The most frequently cited problem was the failure to effectively disseminate notice of the Title IX coordinator's identity and contact information required by the Title IX regulations. (DOE, 2004, para. 2)

Assistant Secretary for Civil Rights Kenneth L. Marcus wrote a letter outlining the DOE's promise to have a strong execution of Title IX regulations. The letter provided the names and information for regional offices of the OCR.

Studies on Perception of Title IX Compliance

There is not a lot of evidence in the literature on the perceptions of athletic directors and head coaches of high school athletic programs on the problems of gender equity and Title IX compliance. Also, there is even less data on issues dealing with the effect of perceptions in high school athletics, including those of gender and sports coached.

McLemore (1998) studied the occurrences and reasons for Title IX complaints in Texas and found that the OCR reviewed 32 sex discrimination complaints between 1992 and 1996 connected to Texas school districts. During this period, the number of complaints was a significant increase compared to the ten complaints filed in Texas the previous eight years. Even more eye-opening, between 1973 and 1984, only ten complaints were filed with the OCR. As Title IX was pushed to the forefront of community dialog during the 1990s, the number of people wanting reprieve under Title IX requirements rose dramatically. McLemore (1998) stated, "The findings indicate that during this recent time period [1992–1996] not only were the highest

number of complaints filed but also, the highest number of resolutions of complaints requiring change by the education institution have occurred” (p. 111).

To provide a comprehensive understanding of athletic directors’ and coaches’ perceptions of compliance under Title IX, I wanted to get data from athletic directors and head girls and boys coaches. Maddox (1995) found that “Texas principals perceived that Title IX had been implemented fairly extensively” on their campus (p. 142). Maddox reported, “The survey instrument requested information on the equitable treatment of the sexes on the campus relative to athletics and physical education. The principals believed that their campuses were providing equal treatment in this area” (p. 143).

Likewise, in a study at the University of Georgia where perceptions of principals were researched, Braddock (1999) found that “the principals of both genders perceived that they were in compliance with Title IX in the day-to-day operations of their school athletic program” (pp. 110–111). Braddock also found that principals’ perception of compliance was the following: “Males had a tendency to score higher on the operational [Title IX] compliance statements, but there was no significant statistical difference between male and female responses” (p. 111).

Conran’s research of college and high school athletic directors supported Braddock’s 1999 finding: “There was overall agreement that the provisions to support men’s and women’s athletic programs are provided for equally” (2000, p. 146). Any sensible individual may assume these observations concerning the perceptions of secondary administrators in Texas. Nevertheless, looking at the data accumulated through the survey, I sent this study to determine the outcomes of high school athletic directors and head coaches of both male and female high school sports to gain a stronger understanding of compliance with the schools chosen. To give readers essential background information into the complexity, range, and nature of various

complaints reviewed by the OCR, a descriptive summary is given on a few Title IX grievances opened in Texas public high schools.

Hollingsworth (2005) conducted a study at the University of North Texas researching the perceptions of Texas high school principals and head coaches in Education Service Center Region 11 and determined that “most school leaders believed that their schools are equal in terms of the treatment of male and female athletes” (p. 81). As a result, the data suggested that the polled school officials believed Title IX compliance was high. This research supports Conran’s findings from a 2000 survey of Division III college sports directors and high school athletic directors, which found that “there was overall agreement that the provisions to support men’s and women’s athletic programs are provided for equally” (p. 146).

Beam et al. (2004) conducted a study that demonstrated why Title IX compliance is so critical. According to Beam et al., the California legislature passed Assembly Bill 2295 in 2002, which requires the California Department of Education and the California Postsecondary Commission to investigate Title IX compliance in the state’s high schools, community colleges, and universities. Beam et al. utilized a survey and site visits to select high schools in conducting the study. Findings from the study included the following:

Participation data reveal that only 26% of the 125 reporting high schools complied with Title IX based on proportionality. . . . On average, although girls composed 49% of the high school population, only 41% of the high school athletes in this sample were girls. In addition, boys had nearly two more varsity teams, on average, than did girls. (2004, p. 5)

Most athletic directors do not know if they meet the participation criteria, according to Beam et al. (2004), because they do not collect and review participation data.

Schneider et al. (2010) argued that improvement has been made toward gender equality since Title IX was implemented. However, they identified and stated the significance of correctly evaluating how much institutions are giving equal opportunities for male and female athletes under Title IX compliance areas. Even though this study did not deal directly with high school athletics, it helps show the perceptions and compliance of athletic programs within the college ranks. The NCAA Senior Women's Administrators (SWAs) were given a survey to look at their perceptions of compliance in 841 areas under NCAA institutions. The SWA was a dependable resource in providing accurate assessments of gender equality compliance. The results from the survey found that 70% of SWAs either strongly agreed or agreed that out of the 13 compliance areas, 11 were being handled fairly. The results also showed that they disagreed strongly or disagreed that athletic teams were equal in publicity (31%), locker room facilities (71%), coaching (70%), recruitment (73%), and tutoring (74%). Schneider et al. (2010) highlighted that continuous effort was needed to reach maximum equality within all 13 compliance areas.

In research by Kenney (2013), she looked at NJCAA college coaches' perceptions concerning the three-prong test used for Title IX compliance. In her study, Kenney (2013) also focused on coaches' perceived understanding of Title IX and similar compliance problems, perceived comfort level speaking with administration about compliance issues, and consistencies in their perceptions based on gender, sport coached, years' experience coaching, and geographic region (Kenney, 2013). Coaches' expectations indicated that most coaches feel that participation and scholarship opportunities are equal. Unfortunately, DOE data have a different outcome. This contradiction and specific survey of responses shows the need for more thorough preparation and education of coaches of what constitutes Title IX violations, improved NJCAA leadership on the

question of gender equality, and an expanded responsibility and accountability at both the athletics department and college administrative levels (Kenney, 2013).

Kenney (2013) discovered that approximately 30% of respondents did not feel comfortable addressing gender equality and Title IX problems with school administrators. Only 34.7% of coaches knew who their Title IX administrator was at their school (Kenney, 2013). Other ways of resolving issues are needed if problems are not being safely resolved in the athletics department and on campuses. Coaches, faculty, staff, and students should be informed about the different methods for resolving gender inequity, as well as whistleblower safety. Kenney (2013) discovered that gender was an important element in perceptions. Males believed that there was equality between males and females when looking at opportunities to receive scholarships, delivery of benefits and services, and level of accommodations (Kenney, 2013). It is important to have increased female leadership in administrative positions within the athletic department and on campuses in general.

Last, in Kenney's study the state of Florida is the only state in the NJCAA organization that has established state legislation guaranteeing gender equality in schools. Kenney (2013) found that "Florida was one of the highest scoring in perceptions of equity in opportunities for scholarships and in level of comfort discussing gender equity and Title IX issues with supervisors" (p. 43). The law in Florida should serve as a blueprint for initiatives around the country to promote gender equality in sports.

The following are some main results and insights gleaned from Kenney's inquiry into coaches' perceptions: The majority of coaches agree that participation and scholarship resources are fairly distributed among male and female athletes. Conversely, the data from the DOE point to something different. This disparity, as well as some survey responses, point to the need for

more and/or better Title IX training and understanding among coaches, strengthened NJCAA leadership on gender equality, and increased responsibility and accountability at both the athletics department and college administrative levels (Kenney, 2013).

Texas School District Complaints Under Title IX

Through the OCR, the following information was provided for specific school districts found in Texas.

- A list of school districts in some Texas regions who have had Title IX complaints against them and who have been investigated by the OCR. More specifically, the districts that have received a compliance review from the OCR;
- School districts in Texas that are under compliance reviews currently;
- The detailed claims of complaints against each district that is under a compliance review.
- Evaluation and resolution letters.

From the request, the total number of complaints filed in Texas with the OCR in 2020 was at 33. Out of the 33 complaints, 21 came from school districts located throughout the state of Texas. From 2016 to 2020 more than 323 OCR complaints were filed in Texas. The filed complaints reflect both small school districts (one with a student population of 561) and large school districts (one with a student population of 210,000).

Current Concerns Surrounding the Enforcement of Title IX

One of the most significant disputes after a quick review of Title IX's information is the elimination of male athletic teams at universities and colleges. Rivals of current Title IX implementation contend that male athletic opportunities are being eliminated at a disproportionate rate than female athletics because athletic offices are utilizing the substantial

proportionality aspect of the three-prong test (McBride et al., 1999; Shelton, 2000). The 1996 OCR explanation letter also guards a school's decision to eliminate or cap men's athletic teams to follow the three-part proportionality test. Shelton (2000) explained that intercollegiate schools are using the "Secretary's now overt invitation to eliminate male athletic opportunities as a means of achieving Title IX compliance" and "men's athletic teams in the so-called non-revenue or Olympic sports were eliminated at an alarming rate" (p. 256).

The issue is most common in intercollegiate athletics; however, the seriousness of the controversy still needs to be discussed in this study, even though this study focuses on compliance with regulations in high school athletics. Shelton (2000) stated, "The OCR Secretary's literal interpretation of Title IX through its substantial proportionality test created a loophole that allows schools to achieve Title IX compliance by elimination of athletic, educational opportunities and ignores the educational purpose of the 1972 law" (p. 259). Shelton also believed the purpose for Title IX was "increasing the participation opportunities for female student-athletes" (p. 259). Shelton stated that eliminating opportunities for male athletes to achieve compliance with Title IX goes against the legal intent of the law itself. Finally, Shelton (2000) was worried that the discussion about whether the implementation of Title IX leads to the removal of men's teams misdirects focus from the most significant issue: the continued advancement of women's opportunities, which was essentially the purpose of the legislation on Title IX.

The increase in female enrollment in colleges and universities may positively impact colleges and universities; conversely, it can be a serious problem if looking at compliance with Title IX. In a report about issues influencing Title IX compliance in intercollegiate athletics, Calkins and Coleman (2000) found a strong connection among the number of college students at

a school and compliance with Title IX. Calkins and Coleman put forward potential motives for this relationship and discussed why increasing female enrollment rate might cause problems for school administrators:

All participants discussed funding sources and how important the amount allocated is to compliance with Title IX. When there are more undergraduates at a school, there is a larger amount of the total student fees allocated to the athletic program. Also, if there are more students at a school, there is the potential for more ticket sales at sporting events, which is another funding source for athletic programs, including women's programs. Although an increase in the number of undergraduates may increase funding, as the number of female students increases, unless there is an equivalent increase in male students, then compliance becomes more difficult. (2000, pp. 131–132)

The dismissal of men's team to maintain a substantially proportionate number of participants in sports was the focus of discussion by the Opportunity in Athletics outlined in the Bush administration's report *Open to All: Title IX at Thirty* (DOE, 2003b). The report says, "The Commission heard a great deal of testimony about the troubling loss of athletic opportunities for male athletes at the collegiate level" (p. 22).

Despite significant progress in leveling the playing field between the percentage of female athletes and the total percentage of females enrolling in colleges and universities across the United States, there is still a gender gap. Because of this, colleges and universities may be short on the resources to provide additional women athletic programs that the substantial proportionality test requires. Porto (2003) stated the following:

Many colleges have responded . . . by disbanding men's non-revenue teams (e.g., wrestling, swimming, and gymnastics) in order to free up funds with which to establish

additional women's teams. This strategy usually angers athletes and coaches . . . and breeds hostility toward Title IX. (p. 59)

The Commission is clearly taking a tighter approach to resolve disputes by substantively acknowledging each part of the problem in its recommendation (DOE, 2003b):

While everyone benefits from increased athletic participation by girls and women, no one benefits from artificial limitations on athletic opportunities for either gender.

Enforcement of Title IX needs to be strengthened toward ending discrimination against girls and women in athletics and updated, so that boy's and men's athletic opportunities are preserved. (p. 22)

An additional present-day issue surrounding Title IX revolves around the notion that, in helping females attain equality, this may cause major hurdles for Black athletes. Alex Wood, the head football coach at James Madison University and vice president of the Black Coaches Association, was quoted by Greenlee (1997):

If you increase opportunities for one group, I'm not so sure that you do not wind up denying another group. . . . And because there is only so much money available to operate a college sports program, somebody will inevitably get the short end of the stick. (pp. 1–2)

Intensifying this problem is that most women's teams that have been added recently are sports typically not played by Black athletes. Greenlee (1997) contended that

Black athletes . . . will have to broaden their athletic horizons if they want to earn college athletic scholarships. In other words, Blacks will have to begin taking up sports other than football, basketball, and track, because there will not be any expansion in those sports. (pp. 2–3)

Greenlee (1997) believes there is a struggle that relates to equal opportunities between gender and race. To balance the chances for men and women in obtaining scholarships, colleges and universities may decrease the number of scholarships offered to males. Wood said, “In football, a large number of the players are Black. So, when you start cutting scholarships, you not only take away the opportunity to play, you take away the opportunity to go to school” (as cited in Greenlee, 1997, p. 2).

Even though there are difficulties in ethnic minority male athlete participation, a female’s path to enter university sports is even narrower. Hammer (2003) reported, “Relative to White women, African-American women compete at lower rates in college. NCAA records, for example, show they appear in critical mass primarily on basketball and track and field teams” (p. 1).

Advancement of Women in Sports Since Title IX

When Title IX was approved in 1972, boys had 3,666,917 participants, which is 324,591 more than girls had in 2016 (National Federation of State High School Associations, 2019a, 2019b). In a 2016 article, Fink reported, “Women’s sport are still woefully underrepresented in all types of media and sportswomen are rarely acclaimed solely for their athletic abilities. Instead, the focus is often on their physical appearance, femininity, and heterosexuality” (p. 331). However, the figures show the success that Title IX has accomplished through equality for both male and female high school athletics. Statistics show that there has been an improvement with female athletes participating in athletics since the passage of Title IX in 1971. An NCWGE report (2017) stated the following:

During the 1971-1972 school year, fewer than 300,000 girls participated in high school athletics . . . In 2015-2016, the number of female athletes had climbed by more than tenfold to nearly 3.2 million, or 41% of all high school athletes. (p. 8)

Looking at numbers from the DOE (2019), females participating in high school athletic programs is ten times greater than in 1972, the year Title IX was enacted. This participation is a growth of over 1,000% (National Federation of State High School Associations, 2019a).

Skrentny (2002) argued, “Title IX would have little impact until there were regulations stating what forbidding sex discrimination in education meant” (p. 249).

Summary

I discovered that discrimination has always been a part of a woman’s life, especially in athletics, after researching the literature linked to Title IX of the Education Amendment Act of 1972. Although there has been tremendous advancement in females’ participation in high school and college sports, females must push through to overcome public views of the right role women and girls must play in athletics.

Brown v. Board of Education (1954), a landmark racial segregation decision by the Supreme Court, emphasized the history of civil rights in the United States, including the rise of Title IX and other legislation aimed at extending equal rights under the law to all Americans. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 and Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 were passed in response to the extension of equal rights. Policies and regulations began to evolve and materialize because of the adoption of laws across the country and numerous significant Title IX court judgements.

As a final point, some people believe that efforts to provide women with more opportunities have amplified the difficulties faced by minorities in obtaining athletic chances.

The reason for this occurrence, in large part, is that minorities do not play the sports that are increasing on campuses. Therefore, women and minorities' continuing fight to participate in athletics on an equal playing field remains.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology and Design

Chapter 3 outlines the reasoning behind the research and the research inquiries that guide the examination of the obtained information. Additionally, the overall examination proposal and method are defined. Below is an explanation of samples found in this study and the steps used to ensure the development of an effective and dependable instrument. Next, the steps used to collect all the data are outlined. Last, I discuss the data analysis based on the four research questions and provide some closing thoughts.

It is well-known that sports are a positive thing, because they help shape stronger communities by giving people mental and physical energy, self-confidence, and tenacity. For this reason, the revolution in female athletics gives an encouraging outlook for the future (Rothman, 2017). Few school administrators would dispute that Title IX positively influences the provision of sports and education for women athletes in the United States. Even though many people advocate that Title IX needs to be stronger and expanded, some believe Title IX has an overall negative impact on students' participation in sports competitions, especially when it results in men's teams being canceled (Davis, 2002). Therefore, an effort was made to obtain an inside understanding of the level at which school districts in Texas are deemed to comply with Title IX guidelines. The effort used to obtain an inside understanding was to survey Texas high school athletic directors and high school head coaches of both male and female athletes.

Purpose and Research Questions

This study measured the views of athletic directors and head high-school girls' and boys' coaches on whether they believed their school has been following the guidelines of Title IX. I aimed the research specifically at athletic directors and head coaches that work in school districts within the state of Texas. By administering an Alchemer (2021) survey to athletic directors and

head girls' and boys' coaches, an objective understanding was expected of whether school districts were currently compliant or noncompliant from the different perspectives of those surveyed. The four questions used for this research were the following:

RQ1: What are the perceptions of the athletic directors and head coaches in Texas public high schools regarding their school district's Title IX compliance level?

RQ2: What variances occur among the perceptions of athletic directors and coaches of high school boys and girls athletes and sports teams who observe Title IX application?

RQ3: What variance does campus size in a school district have on the observed level of major compliance with Title IX?

RQ4: In which Title IX categories do the selected schools' athletic directors and head coaches believe their schools are most and least compliant with Title IX criteria (as stated by the OCR)?

Research Design, Methodological Approach, and Rationale

This study applied quantitative methodology with a descriptive/causal-comparative systems approach. It was necessary to investigate the usage of various survey measurements to assure a credible method of acquiring information particular to Texas high schools. The Alchemer (2021) survey (Appendix A) was developed to ask about compliance with Title IX and was sent out to athletic directors and head coaches of girls' and boys' athletic programs.

Hinkle et al. (2002) stated, "The variables measured on the interval or ratio scales are quantitative variables. It is assumed that quantitative variables have underlying continuity; that is, they can take on any value on the measurement scale" (p. 16). Once replies from each survey were received, they were assigned a specific value regarding the respondents' perception of their school district, campus, and team compliance under Title IX.

Most measurements came from the Likert-scale questions on the Alchemer (2021) survey. Upon receiving the survey responses, I assigned mean scores to the research questions to determine if they were measurable using statistical analysis. Other inquiries had to have a descriptive examination because sometimes data groups would not meet the similarity theory essential for the examination. I decided in different examples that if the sub-population was too little, it would be improper to consider quantitative measurement. The particular idea of the different measurable examinations utilized in this exploration study is depicted in more depth in the Analysis of Data section of this chapter.

Population

Athletic directors and high school head coaches located in Texas were the group of educators surveyed for data. This group of traditional high school campuses included Grades 9–12.

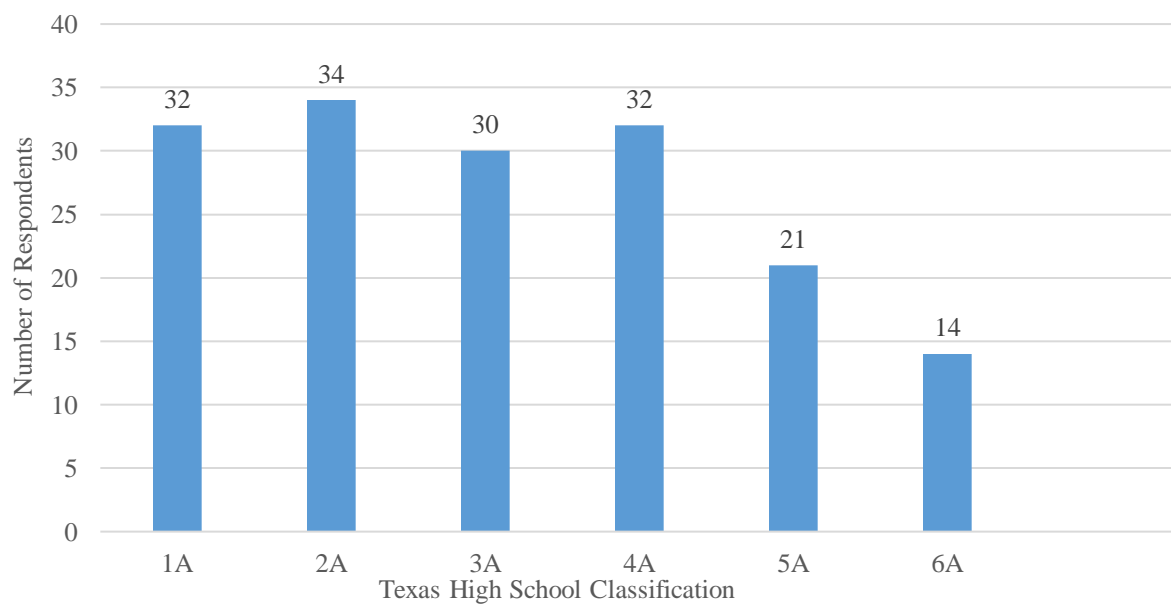
Two-hundred and nine school districts in Texas participated in the study. One athletic director from each of the 209 school districts participated. For each of the 209 school districts, I surveyed head coaches of male sports—football, basketball, soccer, and baseball. Also, from the 209 school districts, head coaches of female sports—volleyball, basketball, soccer, and softball—were surveyed. This study’s potential population included 207 athletic directors and 1,656 head coaches for boys’ and girls’ sports for a possible total of 1,863 respondents.

The respondents to the survey came from rural and suburban to large urban schools, which the state of Texas labels as 1A (smallest school size) to 6A (largest school size). The school districts represented in this study fall into one of the following classifications (see Table 1).

Table 1*Texas UIL Classifications*

Conference	Enrollment
6A	2,220 and above
5A	1,230 to 2,219
4A	515 to 1,229
3A	230 to 514
2A	105 to 229
1A	104 and under

Figure 1 shows how many of the respondents were in the different state conferences out of the total respondents.

Figure 1*Respondents by UIL Classification (N = 154)*

Survey Instrument

The DOE in 1990 developed the *Title IX Athletics Investigator's Manual* to give guidelines and clarity for leaders charged with making sure interscholastic athletics programs were following Title IX mandates for nondiscrimination based on gender (Bonnette & Daniel, 1990). Thirteen program areas are addressed in the manual (34 C.F.R. 106.41(c)(1)); however, this study was limited to high school athletics, so it did not address the programs that are only found in intercollegiate athletics, such as recruitment of athletes, tutoring, housing, dining facilities, and scholarships. Only the 10 program areas listed below were used for this study:

1. Accommodation of athletic interests and abilities
2. Equipment and supplies
3. Scheduling of games and practice times
4. Travel and per diem allowance
5. Opportunity to receive quality coaching
6. Assignment and compensation of coaches
7. Locker rooms, practice, and competitive facilities
8. Medical and training facilities and services
9. Publicity
10. Support services. (Bonnette & Daniel, 1990, p. 1)

The *Title IX Athletics Investigator's Manual* is what the OCR uses when investigating Title IX complaints. Interscholastic athletics investigations may be limited to those program components in which a complainant has made allegations” (Bonnette & Daniel, 1990, p. 8). Per the guidebook, it was determined that interscholastic athletic programs usually only fall under the 10 components listed above.

To determine diverse school leaders' perspectives of Title IX compliance, I constructed a survey instrument based on the 10 key program components (as described by the 1990 *Title IX Investigator's Manual*). In addition, the Georgia Department of Education's 2015 *Gender Equity in Sports Resource Manual* proved to be a useful tool in developing the survey questions. The "School Compliance Report" section of the manual was particularly useful in the creation of the survey instrument. In certain cases, I used the same wording of questions for the survey instrument.

There were two distinct surveys: Title IX Compliance Survey for Athletic Directors and Title IX Compliance Survey for High School Head Coaches. The athletic directors' survey was divided into four sections, and the head coach's survey was divided into two parts.

Section I of the athletic directors' survey requested information on the gender of the athletic directors. Section II had 14 questions created to measure perceptions regarding the 10 components of a program that the OCR described as an athletics program's key elements for compliance with Title IX. The 14 questions encompassed a Likert scale, which gave respondents the ability to specify their opinions on the different areas of their athletic programs. The Likert scale used numbers 1 to 4 with 1 = *not equal*, 2 = *somewhat not equal*, 3 = *somewhat equal*, and 4 = *equal*. Section III included four questions that deal with the student population, student-athlete population, number of coaches, male and female, and the number of different teams by student-athlete gender. Section IV included three questions about whether the school has done interest surveys for the girls on campus to provide information on whether female sports need to be added. The last questions asked whether the district had added female sports in the last 10 years, and at what Texas high school level the school competes: 1A–6A.

A survey was created to determine the perceptions of head coaches of male and female athletes of the campus's level of compliance under Title IX regulation with high school athletic programs. Part I of the head coaches' survey asked the gender of the coach completing the survey, then it asked the coach to put an X by the coaching position that best describes their role on the campus (i.e., head coach of either male or female sports). Part II of the head coaches' survey used a Likert scale and used the same 14 questions as asked on the athletic director's survey. The 14 questions asked on the coaches survey was created to measure perceptions regarding the 10 components of a program that the OCR described as an athletics program's key elements for compliance with Title IX. The 14 questions encompassed a Likert scale, with 1 = *not equal*, 2 = *somewhat not equal*, 3 = *somewhat equal*, and 4 = *equal*, which gave respondents the ability to specify their opinions on the different areas of their athletic programs.

Validity and Reliability

The Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Abilene Christian University approved the survey questions' validity and reliability. To determine the content validity in the surveys, the survey documents were assessed by using a panel of experienced public education administrators that included two college professors who teach education, two high school principals, two athletic directors, two high school head coaches (one male head coach and one female head coach), and two central office administrators. These administrators and coaches were not part of the survey group used in this study. The panel was asked to look at the survey's format, user-friendliness, instructions, and questions to ensure that sentence structure was precise and easy to understand. The panel was also asked to give feedback on how the survey instrument could be improved. Specifically, the panel was given a document containing the four research questions

used in this study and a list of open-ended questions to fill out. The following questions were used:

1. Please look at the organization of the study instrument. Is it simple to read, appropriately outlined, and easy to use?
2. Please look closely at the instructions on the survey. Are they easy to read and understand? Will those being surveyed understand what to do?
3. Please examine the survey questions closely. Are the questions worded in a way that are easy to answer?
4. Do you think the survey will provide the needed information to effectively answer the research questions attached?

After reviewing the suggestions from the doctoral dissertation committee, and the objective inquired group outside those used for this research data, I made changes deemed necessary to improve the content and clarity of the final survey form to be sent to athletic directors and head coaches in Texas.

Data Collection

The Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Abilene Christian University gave their authority to perform the study before I collected data (see Appendix B). After the IRB approved the data collection tool, I emailed the athletic directors and head coaches of varsity football, varsity volleyball, varsity boys' and girls' basketball, varsity boys' and girls' soccer, varsity baseball and varsity softball throughout Texas school districts via an Alchemer (2012) email that included an informed consent document and a link to the Alchemer (2021) survey instrument. The email sent had specific instructions on how to complete the athletic director survey and the male and female head coaches survey on his or her campus (see Appendix C). Athletic directors

and head coaches who had not completed the survey by the initial deadline were contacted again and requested to complete it by a certain date. After the specific date to participate had elapsed, the online survey data were gathered to determine the percentages of surveys returned from athletic directors and head coaches.

Data Analysis

I analyzed the surveys of athletic directors and head coaches to see if athletic directors and head coaches believed their high schools were in compliance of the-Title IX program components. The athletic director surveys contained questions that were important to identify potential patterns related to distinctive characteristics, such as Texas high school classifications and the level of interest in athletic programs on high school campuses.

In the survey, athletic directors and head coaches were asked to check the box they believed best described the program components that fall under Title IX on their high school campuses. The answers gauged contributors' views on equality or inequality with respect to each program component. When the data were received from the survey, those who responded in a way that indicated the participants' view of their campuses' handling of athletes to be *equal*, then they were assigned a score of 4. The responses that fall under *not equal* received a 1. The Likert scale in the survey used the numbers 1 to 4: 1 = *not equal*, 2 = *somewhat not equal*, 3 = *somewhat equal*, and 4 = *equal*. The scope of conceivable mean scores through the reactions on the survey tool fall between 1.00 and 4.00. The high range means score (3.0–4.0) suggested a high degree of apparent equality, and the neutral range mean score (2.0–2.9) and low range mean score (1.00–2.49) indicated a low degree of equality.

This study was conducted through quantitative research and was designated as descriptive research, which Locke et al. (2010) say is a “form of research that captures and displays a graphic picture of some aspect(s) of a situation-expressed in numbers” (p. 96).

Using a proper survey tool, athletic directors and head coaches reacted to an assortment of inquiries dependent on the OCR measures to determine their school’s Title IX compliance. Research Question 1 supplies data about the athletic directors and head coaches’ complete examination regarding Title IX compliance of athletic teams on their campus.

In exploring Research Question 2, a causal-comparative design was the ideal way to decide if a correlation existed among the three different situations of the athletic directors and head coaches and their perceptions of compliance with Title IX. Therefore, I utilized an analysis of variance (ANOVA) when deciding if the reactions changed because of the respondents’ different roles.

I also used an ANOVA for Research Questions 3 and 4 to decide the apparent compliance stages regarding the program parts being measured. The ANOVA helped decide if a connection existed concerning the district administrator’s recognitions and the accompanying factors, separately. In addition, a descriptive method in answering Research Question 3 helped determine if there was a correlation with Title IX questions through the OCR and the district administrators’ perceptions of compliance.

Research Question 4 was examined through an ANOVA. Looking at each program’s components, the survey questions responses were gathered to investigate whether measurably critical connections occurred among the program components and the degree of compliance shown in the reactions of the athletic directors and head coaches surveyed.

Summary

In Chapter 3, I described the developments of the two Alchemer research survey tools and the methodology. The motivation for this study was to decide the perceptions of athletic directors and head coaches on the level of compliance of Texas campuses under Title IX and its program components, precisely as they apply to high school sports. This study consisted of 207 Texas school districts that were found throughout Texas. Each high school campus received a survey sent to the athletic director and the head coaches of girls' and boys' athletic teams. A survey instrument was created that reflected the interscholastic athletic program components defined by the OCR. To ensure the survey was reliable, a group of administrators provided feedback on the survey's content validity. The quantitative research in this study was primarily from descriptive statistics and causal-comparative statistical methods.

Chapter 4: Findings

This study sought to: (a) understand the perceptions of athletic directors and head coaches of girls' and boys' athletic teams of compliance under Title IX of their school district's athletic programs; and (b) analyze particular trends that show whether districts in the state of Texas are compliant or noncompliant with Title IX. Chapter 4 is structured by the four research questions.

RQ1: What are the perceptions of the athletic directors and head coaches in Texas public high schools regarding their school district's Title IX compliance level?

RQ2: What variances occur among the perceptions of athletic directors and coaches of high school boys and girls athletes and sports teams who observe Title IX application?

RQ3: What variance does campus size in a school district have on the observed level of major compliance with Title IX?

RQ4: In which Title IX categories do the selected schools' athletic directors and head coaches believe their schools are most and least compliant with Title IX criteria (as stated by the OCR)?

I used various compliance indicators of Title IX from the DOE's *Title IX Athletics Investigator's Manual* to produce the survey tool. The additional compliance indicators were (a) districts who asked their female students what sports they would like to have added, (b) the difference between female population in high schools, and how many of those female students participate in athletes on the campus, (c) breakdowns of the percentage of female coaches compared to male coaches, and (d) the number of athletic teams that are offered to female students in contrast to those offered to male students. These actions give readers further information that the study's research questions alone may not convey.

Demographics

In June of 2021, the Alchemer (2021) survey—the Title IX Compliance Survey—was sent through email to the athletic directors and head coaches of football, girls’ volleyball, boys’ and girls’ basketball, boys’ and girls’ soccer, boys’ baseball, and girls’ softball. The athletic directors and head coaches of boys’ and girls’ athletic teams within their district filled out the survey. The overall response percentage for athletic directors surveyed was 31% (154 of 500), and a total percentage for the head coaches surveyed was 26.5% (265 of 1,000). Of the 154 athletic directors who returned the survey, 94% were male and 6% were female. Looking at the 265 respondents of head coaches, the percentage of head coaches of female teams who returned the survey were 64% men (97 men), 35 % were women (53 women). All 265 head coaches I surveyed were men.

Table 2 focuses on the percentages of athletic directors, head coaches of male athletes, and head coaches of female athletes I surveyed. There were a total of 419 respondents in the survey, 154 (36.8%) were athletic directors. Out of the 419 respondents 150 (35.8%) were head coaches of female athletes and 115 (27.4%) were head coaches of male athletes.

Table 2

Athletic Directors and Head Coaches Analysis (N = 419)

Respondent group	%	<i>n</i>
Athletic Director	36.8	154
Head Coaches–Female Athletics	35.8	150
Head Coaches–Male Athletics	27.4	115

Research Question 1

“What are the perceptions of the athletic directors and high school head coaches in Texas public high schools regarding their school district’s level of Title IX compliance?” I analyzed the responses to Alchemer survey Questions 1-14 on the second section of the athletic director and high school coach’s survey. Question 1 assessed the answers to the 1-14 survey questions and was intended to provide comprehension of the overall perception of compliance in Texas school districts.

The 14 Alchemer survey questions match up with one of the program components described by the DOE in the *Title IX Athletics Investigator’s Manual*. The 14 survey questions were arranged in a Likert-scale format, athletic directors and head coaches checked the individual answer with one of the following: 4 = *equal*, 3 = *somewhat equal*, 2 = *somewhat not equal*, or 1 = *not equal*.

For the replies, a “school mean” was found, which is the mean score for the athletic directors’ and head coaches’ perceptions of Title IX compliance at each of their school districts. The overall mean average for all athletic directors surveyed was 3.8. The overall mean average for head coaches of female athletes was 3.09 and for head coaches of male athletes, the mean average was 3.70. The data reflects a large gap in the perception of Title IX compliance between athletic directors with a mean of 3.8, and coaches of female athletes, who had a mean of 3.09 (see Table 3). That head coaches of male athletes had a mean average of 3.70 indicates that they had similar perceptions of Title IX compliance as athletic directors.

Table 3*Applicable Statistical Measures of School Means*

Category	Overall <i>M</i>	<i>Mdn</i>	Mode	<i>M</i>	
				Lowest	Highest
Athletic Director	3.80	3.93	4.00	1.60	4.00
Head Coaches of Females	3.09	3.21	3.86	1.57	4.00
Head Coaches of Males	3.70	3.93	4.00	1.14	4.00
Combined Total from Athletic Directors and Head Coaches Surveyed	3.51	3.79	4.00	1.14	4.00

The means of the athletic directors at the high school campuses ranged from 1.60 to 4.00. Only the scores of 38 athletic directors were lower than 3.80 out of 154 respondents. Seventy-five percent of the composite school averages fell between 3.80 and 4.00, which is a significant finding. This can also be explained as only the scores of 25% of athletic directors means fell below 3.80, showing the athletic directors' perception of compliance with Title IX in Texas is high. Fully 50% of athletic directors rated their school at 4.00 (see Table 4).

Table 4*Range of Means: Athletic Directors (N = 154)*

Range	%	<i>n</i>
0–2.49	1.3	2
2.50–2.74	2.6	4
2.75–2.99	1.3	2
3.00–3.24	1.3	2
3.25–3.49	3.9	6
3.50–3.74	12.3	19
3.75–3.99	27.3	42
4.00	50	77

The scores of head coaches of female athletes ranged between 1.57–4.00. Of the 150 respondents, the scores of 83 head coaches of female athlete were higher than 3.09. An important outcome shows that 55% of the composite school means ranged between 3.09–4.00. This can also be explained as the scores of 45% of head coaches of female athletes fell below 3.09. The most significant finding for coaches of female athletes is that 25% of their scores fell between 0 and 2.49, showing that head coaches of female athlete's perception of compliance with Title IX in Texas are significantly lower than athletic directors and head coaches of male athletic teams (see Table 5).

Table 5*Range of Means: Head Coaches for Female Athletes (N = 150)*

Range	%	<i>n</i>
0–2.49	24.6	37
2.50–2.74	8.7	13
2.75–2.99	8.0	12
3.00–3.24	12	18
3.25–3.49	7.3	11
3.50–3.74	18.7	28
3.75–3.99	16.0	24
4.00	4.7	7

The scores of head coaches of male athletes fell between 1.14 to 4.00. Out of 115 responses, the scores of 74 head coaches of male athletes were higher than 3.75. An important outcome is that 65% of the composite scores ranged between 3.75–4.00. This can also be explained as the scores of 35% of head coaches of male athletes fell below 3.75, showing that head coaches of male athletes perceive their programs' compliance with Title IX as high (see Table 6).

Table 6*Range of Means: Head Coaches of Male Athletes (N = 115)*

Range	%	<i>n</i>
0–2.49	6	7
2.50–2.74	0	0
2.75–2.99	1	1
3.00–3.24	6	7
3.25–3.49	5	6
3.50–3.74	17	20
3.75–3.99	23	26
4.00	42	48

Even though the mean of all those surveyed was 3.51, the median of those surveyed was 3.79. A descriptive analysis does yield some interesting findings in the data. In the bottom half of the scores (198 composite school means), only 37 were responses from athletic directors, 40 from male athletes' head coaches of male athletes, and a large number of 121 from the head coaches of female athletes. Only three athletic directors and six head coaches of male athletes, as compared to 42 head coaches of female athletes, reported the lowest 51 scores of 2.5 or lower.

Among the respondents (209) who scored in the upper half of the scale (3.8 or higher), 117 (56%) were athletic directors, 63 (30%) were head coaches of male athletes, and 63 (30%) were head coaches of female athletes. The school means of 130 respondents totaled 4.00. This shows that the 130 respondents' perceptions of their athletic programs were equal in all the survey tool's metrics. Fifty-three of the 130 (42%) were linked to responses from both head coaches of male and female athletes, and 75 (57%) from athletic directors. Therefore, no

significant statistical gap existed in the school districts surveyed between athletic directors and head coaches of female and male athletes (see Table 7).

Table 7

Range of Means: Athletic Directors and Head Coaches (N = 419)

Range	%	<i>n</i>
0–2.49	10.5	44
2.50–2.74	4.1	17
2.75–2.99	3.7	16
3.00–3.24	7.1	30
3.25–3.49	5.5	23
3.50–3.74	15.3	64
3.75–3.99	20.5	86
4.00	33.0	130

Research Question 2

Research Question 2 was created to examine whether differences exist in the perceived degree of Title IX applicability between Texas athletic directors and high school head coaches of male and female athletes. Applying an analysis of variance calculation, or ANOVA, I compared the resulting means of athletic directors, head coaches of male athletes, and head coaches of female athletes. Eliminating apparent outlier scores, the test of homogeneity of variances was conducted and revealed a significance of .3270 ($p > .05$), thus, the data did not meet the homogeneity assumption. The p -value was less than .001, therefore the difference is considered to be extremely statistically significant. The data showed a significant difference between athletic directors, head coaches of female athletes, and head coaches of male athletes; $F = 52.0778$. A post-hoc analysis revealed that the head coaches of female athletes ($n = 101$, $M =$

3.09, $SD = .74$) had a significantly lower degree in the perceived degree of Title IX applicability than both athletic directors ($n = 154$, $M = 3.80$, $SD = .40$) and coaches of male athletes ($n = 166$, $M = 3.70$, $SD = .59$). Athletic directors and head coaches of male athletes were not significantly different. The null hypothesis that there is no difference in the perceived degree of Title IX applicability between athletic directors, female head coaches, and male head coaches was rejected. See Table 8 for descriptive and Table 9 for inferential statistics related to these analyses. The data revealed an extremely low variance of .16 (highest bias) from athletic directors. The head coaches of male athletes variance fell significantly higher (lower bias) than athletic directors with a variance of .45. The data also show that head coaches of female athletes had the highest variance (lowest bias) at .55. Coaches of female athletes at a .55 variance shows that there is a large gap in how athletic directors, who only had a .16 variance, and coaches of female athletes perceived the degree of Title IX applicability in their athletic programs (see Table 8). In conclusion, there appears to be a difference in how athletic directors and head coaches of female athletes view how Title IX is applied to their athletic programs.

Table 8

School Means Grouped by Job Title (N = 419)

Category	Group Mean	SD	V	N
Athletic Director	3.8	.40	.16	154
Head Coach–Females	3.09	.74	.55	101
Head Coach–Males	3.70	.59	.35	166

Table 9

Summary Table for ANOVA of the Effects of Athletic Director, Head Coaches of Male Athletes, and Head Coaches of Female Athletes

	Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Overall Perception	Between Groups	34.0500	2	17.025	52.0678	0.0000
	Within Groups	136.6765	418	.3270		
	Total	170.7265	420			

Research Question 3

The University Interscholastic League (UIL) is the regulatory body for extracurricular, interscholastic competition in Texas public schools. The UIL oversees each high school's competitive classifications or conferences. The classifications are widely used to arrange for a frame of reference about the school's size in a wide variety of discussions. According to the UIL Constitution, the conferences are now based on enrollment (2020, see Table 1).

The goal of Research Question 3 was to see if there was a statistical difference in the perceived degree of Title IX implementation based on the state classification of schools. Athletic directors were asked to include their high school's state classification as part of the survey tool. Using the answers of the athletic directors, a combined mean was calculated for the individual schools (see Table 8).

The combined means were then categorized into 1A through 6A state classifications for the schools (see Tables 10 and 11). The data were then evaluated by the standard deviation between the six school groups. After finding the standard deviation, the determination was the data did not have a normal distribution. After removing the persons whose responses were the

same number (an athletic director or coach who graded all categories with a 3 or a 4), one standard deviation still approached or exceeded the upper limit. It was thus decided the responses were not normally distributed.

The athletic director's standard deviations between classifications do have a significant discrepancy in the standard deviation between schools from the 6A classification (0.61) and schools from the 4A classification (0.14). A *t*-test was acquired for the 4A classification and the 6A classification. On average, athletic directors in the 4A classification had better scores ($n = 28$, $M = 3.91$) than athletic directors in the 6A classification ($n = 14$, $M = 3.70$). The difference was not statistically significant, and the *p*-value was 0.0875 ($p > .05$). The effect size was 0.4745. The data showed that the 6A classification had the highest variance of .37 (low bias) compared to the 4A classification that had a low variance of .07 (high bias). See Table 10.

Table 10

Classification of Schools, Athletic Directors, Combined Means (N = 154)

Classification	Group Mean	<i>SD</i>	<i>V</i>	<i>n</i>
1A	3.80	.52	.20	32
2A	3.81	.28	.07	34
3A	3.82	.29	.08	30
4A	3.91	.14	.07	28
5A	3.57	.54	.21	17
6A	3.70	.61	.37	14

Looking at the standard deviation of head coaches it can be determined that head coaches at the 1A level have the lowest standard deviation at 0.51 (Table 11). The highest standard deviation of 0.75 comes from schools in classification 4A. A *t*-test was acquired for the 1A

classification and 4A classification to determine their p -value. On average, head coaches in the 1A classification had higher scores ($n = 20$, $M = 3.56$) than head coaches in the 4A classification ($n = 41$, $M = 3.27$). The difference was not statistically significant because the p -value equaled .1243 ($p > .05$). The effect size was .4522. There appears to be no statistical difference in how head coaches at the 1A level and 4A view how Title IX is being applied. The data did show that the 4A classifications had the highest variance of .56 (low bias) compared to the 1A classification that had a lower variance of .25 (higher bias).

Table 11

Classification of Schools, Head Coaches, Combined Means (N = 268)

Classification	Group Mean	<i>SD</i>	<i>V</i>	<i>n</i>
1A	3.56	.51	.25	20
2A	3.23	.71	.49	28
3A	3.43	.60	.36	57
4A	3.27	.75	.56	41
5A	3.24	.73	.52	66
6A	3.42	.75	.56	56

Research Question 4

The 14 Likert-scale questions on the survey instrument were organized by the OCR-defined program component sections (34 C.F.R. 106.41(c)(1)) in the *Title IX Athletics Investigator's Manual*.

1. Accommodation of athletic interests and abilities
2. Equipment and supplies
3. Scheduling of games and practice times

4. Travel and per diem allowance
5. Opportunity to receive quality coaching
6. Assignment and compensation of coaches
7. Locker rooms, practice, and competitive facilities
8. Medical and training facilities and services
9. Publicity
10. Support services. (Bonnette & Daniel, 1990, p. 1)

For each of the 14 survey questions, an item mean was calculated using data from all 419 respondents' surveys. A program component mean was calculated using the item means. After I categorized each item by program component, I assessed the data using a one-way ANOVA to check if any statistically significant differences occurred between the groups. With a significance of .062 ($p > .05$) the athletic directors, head coaches of male teams and head coaches of female teams met the homogeneity assumptions needed to consider the ANOVA. The ANOVA yielded a significance of .1269 ($p > .05$), which was not statistically significant. The greater differentiations were on the availability of accommodations of interest and abilities and for coaches' assignments and compensation.

A descriptive analysis of the data shows several intriguing aspects. The lowest-ranking question was associated with the coaches' assignment and compensation (3.42). While it was the lowest of all responses, it had a relatively high variance ($M = 3.42$; ANOVA = 1.36). Similarly, the second-lowest ranked question asked whether girls' sports was publicized on the same level as boys ($M = 3.45$ and ANOVA = 1.22). Respondent's highest means came on the survey question that discussed accommodations of interest and abilities for both male and female athletes ($M = 3.76$ and ANOVA = .52). The second-highest mean score also went to a survey

question with very low variance. This survey question asked whether girls were allowed to participate in sports ($M = 3.73$ and $ANOVA = 0.53$). As will be discussed in Chapter 5, the findings may have repercussions for school administrators who want to ensure their schools are in compliance with the program components of Title IX (see Table 12).

Table 12

Program Component Areas by Item and Program Component Means

Program component area	Item	Composite
Equipment and Supplies	1, 2	3.50
Accommodations of Interest and Abilities	3	3.76
Scheduling of Games and Practice	4	3.71
Coaching and Tutoring Opportunities	5, 6	3.67
Coaches Assignment and Compensation	7, 13	3.42
Facilities	8, 9, 10, 14	3.73
Athletic Budget	12	3.47
Publicity	11	3.45

Additional Measured Indicators of Compliance

Data were gathered to provide further information about the state of Title IX compliance in Texas high schools. Athletic directors were asked in one of the survey questions if their high school has surveyed female students to assist with finding which female sports should be available on high-school campuses. Seventy percent of the 154 athletic directors polled said their high school campuses had not surveyed female students, while 30% said they had.

Another non-perception-based metric of Title IX compliance looked at the number of female student-athletes compared to the total female population of high schools, with the goal of

achieving “substantial proportionality,” as defined by the OCR. I was able to determine the magnitude of any “opportunity gap” that may have occurred at the schools whose athletic directors responded to the population items by comparing the claimed number of female students on campus with the reported proportion of female athletes (see Table 13).

Table 13

Female Student Population Compared to Population of Female Athletes

Female population gaps	% Female students	% Female athletes	Opportunity gap
Largest Gap	54	33	.21
Smallest Gap	54	60	-.06
Mean	48	44	.04
Median	50	38	.12

The percentage of female coaches versus male coaches in the state classification level, 1A through 6A, is the third measure of compliance. Practitioners may find such information useful as one indicator of Title IX compliance in Texas high schools (see Table 14).

Table 14

Percentage of Male Coaches Compared to Female Coaches

State classification level	% Male coaches	% Female coaches	<i>n</i>
1A	74.0	26.0	19
2A	41.0	59.0	30
3A	71.0	29.0	55
4A	67.5	32.5	40
5A	56	44	66
6A	61	39	56

The data submitted by 148 athletic directors revealed the lowest percentage of female coaches, with one school reporting no female coaches and six athletic directors claiming they were unsure of the number of female or male athletes. The highest percentage of female coaches was reported by 2A schools and 5A schools. Females made up 59% of the coaching staff at 2A schools, according to the survey. The reporting 5A programs had 44% female coaches, which was the second-highest percentage. The smallest number of female head coaches was seen in the 1A classification where only 26% of coaches were females.

Finally, the proportion of male athletic teams and the percentage of female athletic teams were compared in the same way (Table 15). Because co-ed teams are offered by just a handful of schools, the percentages may not always equal 100. With 155 out of 361 teams allotted to females, 1A programs had the lowest percentage of female teams recorded by a school (43%). The 5A and 3A campuses had the most female teams, according to reports. They both said they had 51% and 50%, respectively.

Table 15

Percentage of Male Teams Compared to Female Teams

State classification level	% Male teams	% Female teams	<i>n</i>
1A	57	43	361
2A	51	49	443
3A	50	50	406
4A	51	49	467
5A	49	51	336
6A	55	45	1,269

Summary

The results of the data analysis used to answer the four research questions were presented in Chapter 4. I analyzed the data collected from the participating athletic directors and head coaches on the Title IX Compliance Survey to answer Research Questions 1–4. The most essential element of this chapter focused on the multiple analyses conducted regarding each research question. The study’s findings described how the data were handled and provided crucial information. I also presented an overview of data relating to other Title IX indicators that were not expressly addressed in the four questions.

Chapter 5: Discussions, Conclusions, and Recommendations

In Chapter 5, I restate the research problem and review the main procedures of my study. In addition, this chapter addresses the data outcomes established in Chapter 4 and explores the implications of the analysis for the public education profession and for studies being done in the future.

As stated in the problem statement in Chapter 1, my goal in this study was to analyze the extent to which district athletic directors and head coaches view certain Texas public school districts to be compliant with Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972. The school district's administration normally consists of the district's athletic director, the head coach of boys' athletic teams, and the head coach of girls' athletic teams. During the process of analyzing the results, I mainly used a quantitative approach. The study group consisted of 154 athletic directors and 265 head coaches in public school districts located throughout Texas.

I was using the program components described in the OCR's Title IX *Investigator's Manual* and survey questions from the Georgia Department of Education's (2015) *Gender Equity in Sports Resource Manual*. I created a survey tool consisting of 14 Likert-scale questions designed to assess the views of athletic directors and head coaches about the compliance of their campuses under Title IX. For head coaches and athletic directors, a survey instrument was created. The survey instrument for athletic directors contained a unit that asked athletic directors to include demographics-related data as well as other measures of compliance with the law by the school districts.

An Alchemer (2021) survey was emailed to 500 school district athletic directors in Texas. Another 1,000 Alchemer surveys were distributed to the head coaches of both male and female athletic programs within the school districts in Texas. By surveying these three different groups

of school leaders, I obtained a more realistic understanding of the perceptions of compliance under Title IX in Texas public schools.

This chapter starts with a summary of the four chapters. After an overview of the research, I discuss the outcomes and any possible drawbacks. Part of Chapter 5 constitutes potential actions for practitioners and suggests future research guidelines in the future.

Summary of Results

Despite finding studies examining college athletic directors' and high school principals' perceptions (Conran, 2000; Thomas, 2001), I aimed to explore the perceptions of public high school athletic directors and head coaches of male and female teams to produce more generalizable findings. The survey specifically asked athletic directors and head coaches to score their schools on 14 questions measuring the program components of Title IX as specified by the OCR. In addition, I requested demographic information from athletic directors, which included the school district's state classification (size) and specific questions on the number of athletes and coaches in high schools throughout Texas to make links between schools based on metrics. The study's findings are discussed in the order in which the research questions were posed and in a way that is consistent with Chapter 4's conclusions.

Research Question 1

For this question, I asked: "What are the perceptions of the athletic directors and high school head coaches in Texas public high schools regarding their school district's level of Title IX compliance?" The data consisted of all 419 respondents, with 36.8% of the respondents being athletic directors, 35.8% head coaches of female athletes, and 27.4% head coaches of male athletes. Descriptive methods were used to analyze Research Question 1, as explained in Chapter 4. Each responder who expressed their overall impressions of the school's Title IX compliance

was given a composite school mean. To put it another way, the combined means were created to provide a quantitative assessment for the somewhat nebulous idea of compliance perception. The mean ratings ranged from 1.14–4.00, but the median of 3.79 and mode of 4.00 are significantly more indicative of the respondents' general attitudes. With 53.6% reporting school averages ranging from 3.75–4.00, and 33.1% reporting a 4.00, it was apparent that most athletic directors and head coaches believe their schools treat male and female athletes equally. As a result, the numbers revealed the school athletic directors and head coaches that were surveyed believe their school's Title IX compliance is high. This result adds credibility to the study conducted by Conran's 2000 study that looked at high school athletic directors and Division III college athletic directors and concluded, "There was overall agreement that the provisions to support men's and women's athletic programs are provided for equally" (p. 146). However, the most significant finding for coaches of female athletes is that 25% of their scores fell between 0 and 2.49, showing that head coaches of female athlete's perception of compliance with Title IX in Texas are significantly lower than athletic directors and head coaches of male athletes.

Research Question 2

Maddox's (1995) study, discussed in Chapter 2, looked at principals in Texas, and he noted, "Texas principals perceived that Title IX had been implemented fairly extensively" in their schools (p. 142). Likewise, Thomas (2001) determined, "The majority of [athletic] administrators believed that their school complied with Title IX" (p. 51). To acquire more insight into such a judgment, I analyzed the responses of campus leaders and head coaches.

For Research Question 2: "What variances occur among the perceptions of athletic directors and coaches of high school boys and girls athletes and sports teams?" This question was answered by analyzing and comparing the variances among the perceptions of athletic

directors and head coaches of male and female athletes who observe Title IX application.

Knowing the past of female athletes detailed in Chapter 2, it is plausible to suppose that coaches of female athletes saw more inequalities in the treatment of male and female athletes before such research. Similarly, it is reasonable to assume that head coaches of male athletes would have a far more accepting view of Title IX compliance. The 419 composite school means utilized in Research Question 1 were gathered for this research question's analysis. The information was divided into three categories:

- Athletic directors
- Head coaches of male athletes
- Head coaches of female athletes

A descriptive analysis generated a meaningful link. The head coaches of female athletes had the lowest group mean of 3.09. The athletic directors had the highest group mean of 3.80. The group mean of coaches of male athletes was 3.70. When compared to the replies of the head coaches of male athletes and athletic directors, it appears that the head coaches of female athletes have a significantly less favorable opinion of their school's Title IX compliance. Head coaches of female athletes believe that males and females are treated differently than male athletic directors and head coaches of male athletes.

Research Question 3

This question asked, "What variances does campus size in a school district have on the observed level of major compliance with Title IX?" In this study, I aimed to see if schools in Texas school districts were judged to be more or less compliant as a function of their population size. According to the UIL's classifications—1A, 2A, 3A, 4A, 5A, or 6A—I sorted the cumulative composite means of the reporting schools from smallest to largest. The data were

evaluated by the standard deviation between the six school groups. After finding the standard deviation, the determination was that the data did not have a normal distribution. After removing the persons whose responses were the same number (an athletic director or coach who graded all categories with a 3 or a 4), one standard deviation still approached or exceeded the upper limit. It was thus decided the responses were not normally distributed. The athletic director's standard deviations between classifications show a big discrepancy in the standard deviation between schools from the 6A classification (.61) and schools from the 4A classification (.14). This shows that athletic directors in the 6A classification do not all agree that Title IX compliance is equal across the board in their district.

Looking at the data for head coaches it can be determined that head coaches at the 1A level have the lowest standard deviation at 0.51, and the highest standard deviation for head coaches comes from schools in classifications 4A and 6A (0.75). Therefore, the data shows that there is not a large amount of discrepancy between state classifications when it comes to Title IX compliance.

Research Question 4

For this question, I asked, "In which Title IX categories do the selected schools' athletic directors and head coaches believe their schools are most and least compliant with Title IX criteria (as stated by the OCR)?" I wanted to determine whether the gender of the athletic directors and coaches would influence the perceptions of compliance. To put it another way, do female respondents have a lower impression of the equality of resources provided to male and female athletes than male responders? According to simple descriptive analysis, female responses had a group mean of 3.72 while male responses had a group mean of 3.84. According

to the data, female respondents felt a lower sense of equality than male respondents, as evidenced by the numbers indicated.

After collecting an item mean from all respondents' surveys and categorizing the 14 Likert-scale items according to the OCRs' *Title IX Athletics Investigator's Manual* program component categories (DOE, 2020b), the various item means were evaluated within those groups using an ANOVA. Regardless of the program area studied, this study shows athletic directors and head coaches in Texas believe their institutions are in high compliance with the OCR's program component categories. In Chapter 4, I outlined that in the descriptive analysis of the program component areas, the data showed coaching assignment and compensation (3.72) and facilities (3.73) had the lowest component means. By contrast, the areas of accommodation of interests and abilities (3.88) and equipment and supplies (3.86) had the highest mean from respondents. Based on this information, athletic directors who want to figure out their districts' Title IX needs should concentrate on the area with the lowest component means. Perhaps athletic directors should examine the assignments and salary compensation of coaches in their districts more closely. Additionally, the numbers show that athletic directors need to ensure the facilities of girls' athletics are on par with those of males' athletics.

Additional Indicators of Compliance

Even though the study's four research questions did not direct the information, other data were acquired to provide insight to school officials looking to align male and female athletic programs. One of the survey questions asked athletic directors if their campuses had surveyed female students to help them decide which sports to provide:

Where the members of one sex are underrepresented among intercollegiate athletes, and the institution cannot show a continuing practice of program expansion such as that cited

above, whether 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. (DOE, 1979, Section VII, Subsection C, para. 5)

Of the 154 athletic directors who answered, 70% said they had not surveyed their students. This data highlights a potential source of difficulty for high school athletic directors attempting to comply with Title IX. In other words, how can athletic directors be sure that they are thoroughly and efficiently accommodating student needs if schools are unsure about female students' interests in athletic offerings? The idea of significant proportionality is defined as "whether intercollegiate level participation opportunities for male and female students are available in numbers substantially proportionate to their respective enrollments," which is another component of the three-part test described in Chapter 2 (DOE, 1979, Section VII, Subsection C, para. 5).

As described in Chapter 4, one metric on the athletic directors' survey form compared female students' reported proportionality to female athletes. The average percentage of female students in all reporting schools was 50.06%, whereas the average percentage of female athletes was 41.09%, resulting in an 8.97% "opportunity gap" (see Table 11). The findings suggest Texas high schools still have a long way to go in terms of achieving female sports participation that is comparable to female student enrollment. The reported percentages of male coaches versus female coaches were a third indicator of equality across the programs offered to male and female athletes. In all of Texas' reporting school districts, 61% of coaches were male and 39% were female. The lowest percentage of male coaches, 41%, came from state classification level 2A.

Conversely, the highest percentage of male coaches came from the state classification level of 4A at 67.5%. The lowest percentage of female coaches, 26%, came from state

classification level 1A. The highest percentage of female coaches came from the state classification level of 2A at 59%. It is worth noting that the percentages of male and female coaches in Texas are significantly different (see Table 12). Even though athletic directors are not required under Title IX to consider the gender of coaches, the overall percentage of coaches reported is a source of concern for athletic directors. Other than a few exceptions, Texas high schools continue to have significant gender discrepancies regarding coaches who interact with student athletes.

The survey instrument established a final measure of equality across high school athletics programs in Texas by comparing the percentage of male teams to the percentage of female teams. Other than state classification level 3A schools, which have 50% male teams and 50% female teams, there is no indication of any significant disparities. Female student athletes made up 47.8% of all reported athletic teams.

Limitations of the Study

Any athletic director who wishes to generalize the findings of this study should be aware of some limitations and problems, as they should be in any research endeavor. The self-reporting nature of the survey instrument type is one of the study's intrinsic limitations. I presumed the comments made by the athletic directors, male athletes' head coaches, and female athletes' head coaches reflected their true feelings and correct data reporting. As a result, the surveys were designed so respondents could respond anonymously and individually. Even so, there is a chance respondents would be influenced to reply differently than they would if anonymity were guaranteed.

In the same way, the likelihood of wrong responses should be considered. The data analysis procedure is another part of this study that should be considered. Despite all efforts to

evaluate data using statistical measures, specific data sets were either too small or did not meet the statistical analysis condition of homogeneity. I used descriptive approaches, which are clearly more subjective, to analyze such data. Finally, the population of the study was a matter of concern. For the sake of convenience, athletic directors and coaches from Texas, my home state, were included in the population. Despite the study focus being on high school students, Title IX laws apply to all interscholastic sporting activities, including those held on middle and junior high school campuses. I also assumed Texas public high school coaches and athletic directors have similar experiences and opportunities. The study's regional concentration should raise some questions regarding its applicability to other sections of the country.

Implications of the Study

Although no single study should be used to promote significant changes in school officials' attitudes toward Title IX compliance, this research study does provide a lot of useful information for athletic directors and head coaches concerned with gender equity. Additionally, this study served as a litmus test for Texas high schools' compliance with anti-discrimination legislation. The goal of the study was to determine how high school athletic directors and head coaches felt about their schools' Title IX compliance. School athletic directors believe their high school campuses largely conform to Title IX because they had an overall mean response of 3.80 on all Likert-scale items. Overall, the data show Texas schools have offered resources and activities that benefit student athletes of all genders equally. These findings should reassure school administrators, but they should not be taken to mean that schools have gotten complacent about gender balance in interscholastic athletics. According to the data, more work is needed in some areas to fully comply with the law's goal.

According to my descriptive analysis, head coaches of female student athletes do not have the same level of confidence in Title IX compliance as head coaches of male athletes. Coaches of female athletes should have more opportunities to express their concerns and highlight unmet requirements, as they see them, from athletic directors and central administrators. Female athletic directors and female coaches may need more time to deliberate areas where they believe female athletes are treated unfairly, according to a descriptive analysis of survey responses sorted by respondents' gender (regardless of role). According to a descriptive examination of data from school districts where official Title IX complaints have been filed, administrators and coaches appear to be slightly more sensitive to mistreatments. As a result, Texas educational officials should consider hosting discussion forums where school districts can share their experiences to instruct other schools about the dangers of Title IX violations. When school leaders examine responses by program component area, they should be confident that no glaring disparities need to be corrected. The statistics show that each program's component portions reflect the respondents' overall degree of confidence. In other words, respondents had a positive perception of their schools' compliance.

Nonetheless, the descriptive analysis suggested school administrators should target sites with lower item means to maintain a level playing field for all student athletes. The study's other compliance criteria highlight areas in which school athletic directors should focus their efforts. Texas high schools would benefit from more regular and consistent surveys of student athletes. Additionally, efforts should be made to close the gap on Texas high school campuses between female students and female athletes. Finally, the study's compliance metrics imply school administrations should ensure that female coaches in the area have equal opportunities. Females should be better trained, recruited, and hired for coaching positions. Furthermore, the results

imply that Texas schools have done a decent job of creating equity regarding the number of teams available to males versus females.

Future Research Recommendations

When I initially considered researching Title IX compliance, the concept of a comprehensive analysis of OCR complaints was discussed. The main issue with a comprehensive investigation is the inherent intrusiveness in such questions. I was confident that most school districts would not agree to go through such a severe and intense study, especially for an individual's dissertation. Nonetheless, a deeper dive into the data of public schools would give a better measurement of how well public schools are progressing. An idea would be to offer school district incentives by their Regional Service Centers to participate in such intense projects of study.

Previous studies have surveyed athletic directors and principals, but I also wanted to look at what high school head coaches' perceptions are of Title IX. Even more, an in-depth study on this topic could look at involving parents, students, and community members. Realistically, a person might hypothesize those positive results given by the subjects in this research could be strengthened by stakeholders not working within the public schools.

Last, it is essential to extend the research to other areas within Texas and across the nation. It could only be presumed that similar results would add credibility to the data in this study. Also, comparing different regions of the state and country could allow further insight to ensure the most substantial level of compliance concerning equality for male and female athletes is being accomplished.

Summary

There is little argument that Title IX has helped in providing more opportunities for female student athletes. This includes both interscholastic and intercollegiate sports. Title IX and the ensuing guidelines and court rulings create a setting where the chances for men and women athletes are more equitable than in our country's recent past.

Even though Title IX was designed to promote equality in intercollegiate sports programs, its impact on high school athletics has recently been recognized. Schools appear to understand the message that students must be given equal opportunities to participate in athletics regardless of their sex, whether through their own district's involvements, learning about Title IX in the news media, or the OCR's efforts to educate school administrators about the law's requirements.

Title IX has had a striking effect, confirmed mainly by the remarkable rise of female athletic competitors in the previous 48 or more years. The challenge for district administrators is to stay focused on areas where discriminations persist and, more importantly, never to lose sight of the importance of preserving a level playing field for male and female athletes.

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Appendix A: Alchemer Surveys

Title IX Compliance Survey-Athletic Director's

Title IX Compliance Survey-Athletic Director's

Page description:

Please fill out the below questions using your best professional observation regarding gender equity within the athletic programs at your school district. The term "equal" as used in this survey means a reasonably equal opportunity based on the interests and needs of male and female athletes in your school.

1. Please select the appropriate consent statement below. *

- ☐ I understand the study described above. I am 18 years of age or older and I agree to participate.
- ☐ I am not 18 years of age or older, and/or, I do not agree to participate.

2. What is your gender? *

- ☐ Female
- ☐ Male
- ☐ Prefer not to say

3. How would you compare the quality of athletic equipment used by male and female student-athletes? *

- ☐ Equal
- ☐ Somewhat equal
- ☐ Somewhat not equal
- ☐ Not equal

4. How would you describe the maintenance and replacement of athletic equipment used by male and female student-athletes? *

- ☐ Equal
- ☐ Somewhat equal
- ☐ Somewhat not equal
- ☐ Not equal

5. How would you describe the opportunities for participation for male and female student-athletes in your district? *

- ☐ Equal
- ☐ Somewhat equal
- ☐ Somewhat not equal
- ☐ Not equal

6. How would you describe the opportunities for practice for male and female athletes in your district? *

- ☐ Equal
- ☐ Somewhat equal
- ☐ Somewhat not equal
- ☐ Not equal

7. How would you describe the opportunities for male and female student-athletes to receive quality coaching? *

- ☐ Equal
- ☐ Somewhat equal
- ☐ Somewhat not equal
- ☐ Not equal

8. How would you describe the opportunities for male and female student-athletes to receive academic tutorials? *

- ☐ Equal
- ☐ Somewhat equal
- ☐ Somewhat not equal
- ☐ Not equal

9. How would you describe the training, experience, and other professional qualifications of coaches assigned to boys teams when compared with coaches assigned to girls team in your district? *

- ☐ Equal
- ☐ Somewhat equal
- ☐ Somewhat not equal
- ☐ Not equal

10. How would you describe the quality, maintenance, and convenience of locker rooms for boys' teams in comparison with those provided girls' teams in your district? *

- ☐ Equal
- ☐ Somewhat equal
- ☐ Somewhat not equal
- ☐ Not equal

11. How would you describe the quality, maintenance, and convenience of practice facilities for boys' teams in comparison with those provided for girls' teams in your district? *

- ☐ Equal
- ☐ Somewhat equal
- ☐ Somewhat not equal
- ☐ Not equal

12. How would you describe the quality, maintenance, and convenience of competitive facilities for boys' teams in comparison with those provided for girls' teams in your district? *

- ☐ Equal
- ☐ Somewhat equal
- ☐ Somewhat not equal
- ☐ Not equal

13. How would you describe the promotion and publicity of boys' teams in comparison with that which is provided for girls' teams in your district? *

- ☐ Equal
- ☐ Somewhat equal
- ☐ Somewhat not equal
- ☐ Not equal

14. How would you describe the athletic budget as it provides for boys' teams in comparison with how it provides for girls' teams in like sports with an identical number of teams (i.e. boys' basketball 9-JV-V vs. girls' basketball 9-JV-V)? *

- ☐ Equal
- ☐ Somewhat equal
- ☐ Somewhat not equal
- ☐ Not equal

15. How would you describe the number of coaches provided to boys' teams in comparison with the number of coaches provided to girls' teams with an identical number of teams (i.e. baseball 9-JV-V vs. softball 9-JV-V) *

- ☐ Equal
- ☐ Somewhat equal
- ☐ Somewhat not equal
- ☐ Not equal

16. How would you describe the quality, maintenance, and convenience of coaches' offices for boys' teams' coaches in comparison with those provided girls' teams coaches? *

- ☐ Equal
- ☐ Somewhat equal
- ☐ Somewhat not equal
- ☐ Not equal

17. What is the male student population for all your high schools combined? *

18. What is the female student population for all your high schools combined? *

19. What is the number of high school male student-athletes from all your high schools? *

20. What is the number of high school female student-athletes at all your high schools combined? *

21. What is the number of female high school coaches in all your high schools combined? *

22. What is the number of male high school coaches at all your high schools combined? *

23. What is the number of high school male teams in your district? *

24. What is the number of high school female teams in your district?

25. What is the number of high school co-ed teams in your district? *

26. Has your school district surveyed female students to help determine sports that should be added for females? *

☐ Yes

☐ No

27. Has your school district added female sports within the past 10 years in order to accommodate increased student interest in a particular sport? *

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

28. At which University Interscholastic League (UIL) level do your high school campuses compete at? *

[illegible]

Title IX Compliance Survey-Head Coaches

Title IX Compliance Survey-Head Coaches

Page description:

Please fill out the below questions using your best professional observation regarding gender equity within the athletic programs at your school district. The term "equal" as used in this survey means a reasonably equal opportunity based on the interests and needs of male and female athletes in your school.

1. Please select the appropriate consent statement below. *

- ☐ I understand the study described above. I am 18 years of age or older and I agree to participate.
- ☐ I am not 18 years of age or older, and/or, I do not agree to participate.

2. What is your gender? *

- ☐ Female
- ☐ Male
- ☐ Prefer not to say

3. How would you compare the quality of athletic equipment used by male and female student-athletes? *

- ☐ Equal
- ☐ Somewhat equal
- ☐ Somewhat not equal
- ☐ Not equal

4. How would you describe the maintenance and replacement of athletic equipment used by male and female student-athletes? *

- ☐ Equal
- ☐ Somewhat equal
- ☐ Somewhat not equal
- ☐ Not equal

5. How would you describe the opportunities for participation for male and female student-athletes in your district? *

- ☐ Equal
- ☐ Somewhat equal
- ☐ Somewhat not equal
- ☐ Not equal

6. How would you describe the opportunities for practice for male and female athletes in your district? *

- ☐ Equal
- ☐ Somewhat equal
- ☐ Somewhat not equal
- ☐ Not equal

7. How would you describe the opportunities for male and female student-athletes to receive quality coaching? *

- ☐ Equal
- ☐ Somewhat equal
- ☐ Somewhat not equal
- ☐ Not equal

8. How would you describe the opportunities for male and female student-athletes to receive academic tutorials? *

- ☐ Equal
- ☐ Somewhat equal
- ☐ Somewhat not equal
- ☐ Not equal

9. How would you describe the training, experience, and other professional qualifications of coaches assigned to boys teams when compared with coaches assigned to girls team in your district? *

- ☐ Equal
- ☐ Somewhat equal
- ☐ Somewhat not equal
- ☐ Not equal

10. How would you describe the quality, maintenance, and convenience of locker rooms for boys' teams in comparison with those provided girls' teams in your district? *

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- ☐ Somewhat equal
- ☐ Somewhat not equal
- ☐ Not equal

11. How would you describe the quality, maintenance, and convenience of practice facilities for boys' teams in comparison with those provided for girls' teams in your district? *

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- ☐ Somewhat equal
- ☐ Somewhat not equal
- ☐ Not equal

12. How would you describe the quality, maintenance, and convenience of competitive facilities for boys' teams in comparison with those provided for girls' teams in your district? *

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- ☐ Somewhat equal
- ☐ Somewhat not equal
- ☐ Not equal

13. How would you describe the promotion and publicity of boys' teams in comparison with that which is provided for girls' teams in your district? *

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- ☐ Equal
- ☐ Somewhat equal
- ☐ Somewhat not equal
- ☐ Not equal

15. How would you describe the number of coaches provided to boys' teams in comparison with the number of coaches provided to girls' teams with an identical number of teams (i.e. baseball 9-JV-V vs. softball 9-JV-V) *

- ☐ Equal
- ☐ Somewhat equal
- ☐ Somewhat not equal
- ☐ Not equal

16. How would you describe the quality, maintenance, and convenience of coaches' offices for boys' teams' coaches in comparison with those provided girls' teams coaches? *

- ☐ Equal
- ☐ Somewhat equal
- ☐ Somewhat not equal
- ☐ Not equal

17. What is the varsity sport, you coach? *

Volleyball
Football
Girls Basketball
Boys Basketball
Girls Soccer
Boys Soccer
Softball
Baseball

18. What is the number of student-athletes on your varsity team? *

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19. At which University Interscholastic League (UIL) level do your high school campuses compete at? *

[illegible]

Appendix B: IRB Approval

ABILENE CHRISTIAN UNIVERSITY
Educating Students for Christian Service and Leadership Throughout the World
 Office of Research and Sponsored Programs
 320 Hardin Administration Building, ACU Box 29103, Abilene, Texas 79699-9103
 325-674-2885



June 8, 2021

Robert Marcus Canonico
 Department of Graduate and Professional Studies
 Abilene Christian University

Dear Marcus,

On behalf of the Institutional Review Board, I am pleased to inform you that your project titled "Girls Call Foul",

(IRB#21-067)is exempt from review under Federal Policy for the Protection of Human Subjects.

If at any time the details of this project change, please resubmit to the IRB so the committee can determine whether or not the exempt status is still applicable.

I wish you well with your work.

Sincerely,

Megan Roth

Megan Roth, Ph.D.
 Director of Research and Sponsored Programs

Appendix C: Email to Athletic Directors Regarding Distribution of the Survey

R. Marcus Canonico
 xxx xxxxx xxxxx
 xxxxxxxx, Texas xxxxx
 xxxxxxxx@acu.edu

June 2021

Dear Athletic Director,

I am a high school principal as well as a doctoral student at Abilene Christian University. I am conducting a study of high school's athletic programs in order to gain data regarding school leaders perceptions of their schools with regard to compliance with Title IX, the federal law that prohibits discrimination based upon sex. This study focuses solely on Title IX as it relates to interscholastic athletics.

On the links below you will find two surveys to be administered separately to the following persons:

- One Athletic Director's Consent Document and Survey-To be completed by your districts athletic director. It should take about 15-20 minutes to complete.
- One Coaches' Consent Documents and Surveys-Coaches will fill out the survey. These should take only about 10 minutes to complete.
 - One to be completed by the head coaches of male athletics in football, basketball soccer and baseball.
 - One to be completed by the head coaches of female athletes in volleyball, basketball, soccer and softball.

Your school district's participation in the completion of these instruments is completely voluntary, and the data provided by your athletic directors and coaches will remain confidential. Can you please forward this information to your high school head coaches? I am needing the surveys completed by July 1, 2021.

If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me at (xxx) xxx-xxxx, or by email at xxxxxx@acu.edu. Additionally, you may contact my dissertation chair.

Thank you for your valuable time and help.

Sincerely,

Marcus Canonico
 ACU Doctoral Candidate