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THE DEVELOPMENT OF STANDARDS FOR WOMEN'S ATHLETICS

AND THEIR INFLUENCE ON BASKETBALL COMPETITION

IN THE STATE OF NEW YORK

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate School of The Ohio State University

By

Judith Lee Jensen, A.B., M.S.

The Ohio State University
1972

Approved by

Bruce L. Bennett
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The game of basketball was a major element in the play of forces which generated the need for control and guidance of women's athletics. Though physical education programs for women prior to the twentieth century had been composed primarily of gymnastics, the invention of basketball in 1891 came at a time when women were beginning to realize their athletic potential. Extracurricular activities included bicycling, croquet, tennis, and rowing. There was, however, little similarity between basketball and those other appropriate feminine pastimes. In nature and intensity of movements basketball exceeded any earlier demands to which the nineteenth century sportswoman was accustomed. A player was required to run, jump, throw for distance and accuracy, evade opponents playing in close proximity, and take the ball from the possession of an adversary. Despite those foreign qualities the game was welcomed enthusiastically by players and teachers alike.

Basketball grew tremendously in popularity in a very short period of time. Interscholastic and intercollegiate contests occurred before the turn of the century. Naturally, women had little, if any, experience as coaches, strategists, or athletic administrators. There was only the male model
to emulate. To the subsequent regret of many women physical educators, the male coach was chosen for imitation. Soon, many men were coaching women's basketball teams. However, lack of experience and men coaches were only two of the problems identified by women leaders as potential hazards associated with basketball competition. There were criticisms of playing conditions, spectators, the neglect of the masses of students, and social and psychological consequences of competition.

Unfortunately, basketball, in its speedy rise to popularity, grew without any respect for common sense. The result being that standards of health and educational goals were pushed into oblivion for the sake of victory. Soon, poor officiating, bad publicity, lack of leadership, insufficient curtailment upon excessive participation, and most of all, complete disregard for the necessity of physical examinations were to cloak girls' basketball with an atmosphere of undesirability.

The subsequent development of the game represented a complex and significant aspect of the development and control of athletic competition for girls and women in the United States. In fact, the early problems identified with basketball competition evoked some of the first suggestions for control. The basketball committee which compiled the first uniform set of basketball rules for girls and women in 1899 has been recognized as the predecessor of a sequence of

committees, sections, and divisions for girls and women's sports which have followed. With the publication of the first rule guide in 1901 it was apparent that the committee interpreted its role as more than mere rule-making. Subsequently, articles accompanying the rules in "rule books" have encompassed a diversity of subjects including the development of skills and strategy, desirable sequences of instruction and competition, and recommendations for the benefit of the health and welfare of the participants.

In 1916 a Committee on Women's Athletics became an official part of the American Physical Education Association. The women's basketball committee, in turn, became a part of that Committee. The Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation provided the first formal statements of standards for women's sports when it recommended certain aims and controls in its resolutions and platform in 1923 and 1924. Those formal standards were the culmination of years of individual efforts to control athletic competition. During those years basketball competition was the chief provocateur of standards. The development of the two, basketball and standards for competition, were nearly inseparable. Eventually, the Women's Division merged with the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation after the women's athletic section of the latter group had officially added a standard-setting function to its rule-making responsibilities.

Currently, the Division for Girls and Women's Sports of the American Association for Health, Physical Education,
and Recreation continues the work of its antecedents by formulating standards and guidelines and publishing rules. Women's athletic competition is passing into an era of renewed emphasis and acceptance, reflected in a greater commitment to the highly skilled performer. Until recently there was no means for enforcement of the standards for competition. Standards were characterized as recommendations only. Each region, state, or institution was in a position to comply with the recommendations completely, selectively, or not at all. The Division for Girls and Women's Sports has urged high school personnel to cooperate with state athletic or activities associations in policy-making and other advisory capacities. Colleges and universities who wish to participate in national intercollegiate championships must comply with the operating code of the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women, sponsored by the Division for Girls and Women's Sports. There is little doubt that compliance with the most recent guidelines exists because those policies are being enforced. When the standards for competition carried no more weight than recommendations, there was no such assurance of compliance.

The historical relationship of standards and their influence on athletic competition remains an unexamined aspect of the history of women's athletics. There have been no studies which have investigated the development of standards for competition for girls and women's sports and, then, examined the influence of those standards in a specific state
with regard to the nature and extent of competition in a particular sport.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The purpose of this study was to investigate the development of standards for women's athletic competition by the Division for Girls and Women's Sports and its antecedent and affiliated organizations. The study also sought to determine the influence of the standards on the development of women's intercollegiate basketball competition in New York State.

DEFINITION OF TERMINOLOGY

For the most part, terms were defined in context where they were relevant in the study. There were, however, recurring titles and phrases. They are defined below.

Division for Girls and Women's Sports (DGWS): "a non-profit educational organization designed to serve the needs and interests of administrators, teachers, leaders, and participants in sports programs for girls and women."² Active members must be members of the parent organization, the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. Purposes of the organization are to formulate and publicize standards, publish and write rules, distribute information relative to the conduct of girls and women's

sports, and sponsor research relative to girls and women in sports. Chronologically, DGWS was preceded by the Committee on Women's Athletics or Women's Athletic Committee (WAC), 1916-1932; National Section on Women's Athletics (NSWA), 1932-1953; and, National Section for Girls and Women's Sports (NSGWS), 1953-1957.

Extramural competition: a type of sports contest in which players from two or more schools compete in one of several forms of competitive events.

Intercollegiate competition: competition between college students who are specially prepared to participate in a series of games. The term is also used as a general category referring to competition among college-level players.

Interscholastic competition: competition between high school students specially prepared to participate in a series of games.

Intramural competition: in contrast to extramural contests, a form of competition among players within an institution.

Play day: "players participate in mixed groups not representing their own school or sports group."^4

^3Ibid.

**Sports day**: form of extramural competition in which "school or sports groups participate as a unit."\(^5\)

**Standard**: "an authoritative rule or model constructed as a guide to action." Standards "represent current interpretations of accepted practice ensuring the continued growth of girls and women's sports in a worthwhile direction."\(^6\)

**Varsity**: competition in a scheduled series of contests among highly selected players who are coached and conditioned for the activity.\(^7\)

**SCOPE OF THE STUDY**

The emphasis in this study was upon the Division for Girls and Women's Sports of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation and its antecedent organizations, both for the development of standards for athletic competition and the rules of basketball. Since its origin as a basketball committee in 1899, the Division for Girls and Women's Sports was the organization which persisted in its concern for desirable programs of athletics for girls and women. Standards formulated by other organiza-

\(^5\)Ibid.


tions were cited when they influenced school or college programs of competition or affected the work of the Division for Girls and Women's Sports.

The development of standards was reconstructed within a context of athletic competition, particularly in basketball, in schools and colleges. Accounts of the interplay of athletic competition, national organizations, and standards provided criteria by which to judge events in New York State. The State of New York was selected for study of influences of national standards for women's athletics on intercollegiate basketball competition. A large number and variety of institutions of higher education exist in the State. The expansive State and City Universities of New York form a network of public two- and four-year institutions which serve students throughout the State. Numerous private colleges also dot the landscape. Geographic distribution of the colleges ranges from the near isolation of the north to the close proximity of institutions in the urban and suburban areas of the larger metropolitan centers. Communication with various individuals associated with women's athletics was also convenient for the author who resided in the State and had taught at the college level.

Girls and women in New York were involved in athletic competition in varying amounts throughout the period encompassed by the study. Professional leadership in the state maintained an active interest in competition through the Division for
Girls and Women's Sports, its affiliates and antecedents, and by developing its own state and local groups for control. Certain events in the state also affected decisions by national organizations.

Basketball was the first sport in which extensive athletic competition occurred. The game also absorbed the brunt of criticism directed toward girls and women's athletic competition. Consequently, basketball was chosen to illustrate the influence of standards for competition on the extent and manner in which the game was played. It was also apparent that competition in basketball influenced the development of standards.

PROCEDURE

The study was divided into two parts. The first part traced the development of standards for girls and women's athletics within a context of athletic competition and organizations seeking to control the competition. The material was arranged chronologically into five chapters, each of which covered a time span in which a significant event or sequence of events in the development of standards occurred. Information was compiled from the archives and publications of the Division for Girls and Women's Sports and other organizations, interviews and personal correspondence between selected leaders of that organization and the writer, and professional physical education and related literature.
Chapters VII, VIII, and IX, concerning the influence of standards for competition on intercollegiate basketball in New York, were developed through correspondence, interviews, records, and a review of pertinent literature published by state and regional professional organizations. Emphasis in the section was placed on personal recollections and interpretations of events. As a result, the findings were limited by the memories of those who contributed recollections of their experiences. Players, officials, coaches, teachers, and administrators shared their experiences. The study was summarized and concluded in Chapter X.
CHAPTER II

A NEW ERA IN WOMEN'S ATHLETICS: BASKETBALL, COMPETITION, AND LOCAL STANDARDS

INTRODUCTION

The development of standards for women's athletics has been an inseparable part of the growth of athletic activities for women. In order to understand the development and need for standards, it is necessary to review the increasing involvement of American women in physical activities in the nineteenth century. In the concluding decade of that century James Naismith invented basketball, an event of significance in the history of women's athletics and in the development of the standards which were to guide the growth of the competition which followed.

During the nineteenth century American women found it possible to participate in increasing numbers and kinds of physical activities. It was also the century in which women won their places in education. Thomas Woody, historian of women's education, explained that programs of physical activity played a role in that movement.

When a seminary education was proposed for girls, many objected that the mental strain would be too severe. We have seen the initial efforts of some seminary leaders to guard against loss of physical and mental health by a liberal provision of physical exercises and out-of-door recreation. When the more arduous discipline of college
mathematics and classic languages was advocated, those who frequently called themselves "friends of the female sex" stood aghast at the prospect of a host of broken down women whose "gossamer intellects" and frail bodies surely could not stand the strain. It was undoubtedly due largely to this form of antagonism to the women's college movement that these women's institutions, almost without exception, provided for some sort of health oversight, and for more or less formal calisthenics, walks, boating, and various forms of gymnastics. A gymnasium, if not the first thing provided, was soon added, as a precaution against ill health, and an infirmary, to care for the girls when ill, was considered an essential part of the equipment of the college.

There were various exercise schemes developed for women. It should be noted that women and girls were seldom involved in activities identified with men. Woody reported that William Bentley Fowle created and introduced exercises for the girls in his Monitorial School in 1825. Emma Willard advocated exercise for health and beauty at her Troy Female Seminary. Catherine Beecher developed a system of calisthenics for women. Dio Lewis' gymnastics won favor in several eastern women's colleges. At Mount Holyoke domestic work, for exercise and democracy, was compulsory between 1837 and 1862. Fires were kept in every room, windows were washed, and the washing, ironing, cooking, and cleaning were done by the students. In 1865 Dio Lewis' gymnastics constituted the physical activity program in Mount Holyoke's new gymnasium. A significant

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2 Ibid., p. 109.

3 Ibid., pp. 111, 113.
occurred in 1875 when boats were donated to the school and tennis was introduced. Swedish gymnastics replaced the Lewis exercise program in 1891.\(^4\) The Mount Holyoke curriculum after 1865 was typical of most programs in women's colleges of that period.

Though women had begun to engage in archery, riding, bicycling, croquet, swimming, skating and walking as well as the various gymnastic activities, none resembled the competitive contests they were to become. "The element of competition, a striving of one or more individuals against each other for a score or a standard, was virtually nonexistent in these women's activities."\(^5\) In her history of physical education Schwendener observed that "archery for girls and women at this period failed to assure the dignity and popularity of a sport and remained throughout only a 'pretty' activity, one best calculated to reveal feminine charm."\(^6\)

The selection of activities consonant with the feminine image was a persistent problem. The identification of appropriate forms of competition further complicated the issue.

The early leaders in the field of physical

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education felt the force of tradition as they grappled with the controversial issue of competitive sports for girls and women. Not only were there diverse conceptions of competitive sports for girls and women but diverse conceptions of women in general which confused the issue.¹

Reviewing early athletic endeavors, Gerber cited the feminist movement, waning of puritanism, introduction of new health programs, existence of more games, and increase of women earning a college education as factors underlying greater participation.² She categorized physical activities of that period according to their common elements:

First, they could be performed without working up a sweat . . .

Second, they could be performed gracefully; in fact, care was taken to make certain that women did not do any of the activities in such a way as to cast doubt on their femininity . . .

And third, activities were performed primarily by upperclass women, both because they were the ones with leisure time and because the facilities were usually provided as part of a private club to which only the wealthy belonged.

Alice Fallows' experiences at Smith College illustrated Gerber's observations in her description of the sport program.

If a student has brawn as well as brain, athletics may prove the stepping-stone to much pleasure as well as profit. Golf, bicycling, long walks with the Walking Club on Wednesday afternoon, dreamy

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³Ibid.
rows on "Paradise," a miniature lake made by the widening of Mill River, just at the foot of the college campus, are end enough in themselves. Skating in the winter and snow-shoeing, too, serve no ulterior purpose, but tennis practice may mean the championship at the tournament in the spring, and a reputation throughout college. 10

THE INVENTION AND IMPACT OF BASKETBALL

As the women were struggling to identify the role of increasingly popular sports in programs of physical education, the men were having some difficulties of their own. At the Young Men's Christian Association Training School in Springfield, Massachusetts, the instructors were finding it difficult to maintain student interest in their winter program. The gymnasium work was proving monotonous and a loss of memberships seemed imminent. Luther H. Gulick, teaching a seminar on psychology at the Training School, assigned his students the task of inventing a game to recapture the interest of the disenchanted classes.

After earnest and innocent thought and experimentation, James Naismith successfully completed that assignment. He combined elements of existing games into a new activity which one of his students called "basket ball." The eventual impact of the new game, created for those disenchanted gymnastic students, must have been evident when women teachers from a nearby elementary school, attracted by the noise of the enthusiasm of the players, began to watch classes regularly.

Soon, the ladies asked if they might play. Naismith, foreseeing no harm in such an endeavor, granted permission and set aside time in the gymnasium for their practice. Of the ensuing scene Naismith wrote:

When the time arrived, the girls appeared at the gymnasium, some with tennis shoes, but the majority with street shoes. None of them changed from their street clothes, costumes which were not made for freedom of movement. I shall never forget the sight that they presented in their long trailing dresses with leg-of-mutton sleeves, and in several cases with the hint of a bustle. In spite of these handicaps, the girls took the ball and began to shoot at the basket.

Thus began a significant sequence of events in sports for women. What commenced with such great innocence had an immediate and enduring influence on women's athletics. "It was really the first chance that they had to participate in an active sport." Perhaps Naismith oversimplified. Tennis had made it possible for women to engage in more vigorous activity, despite the fact that they chose to play with dainty moderation. Basketball, on the other hand, was played quite actively and enthusiastically from the beginning. In fact, it was soon necessary to curb the vigor of the participants.

The decade of the 1890's was an experimental one for

12Ibid., p. 168.
leaders of women's athletics. That period and the years which followed were subjected to much criticism. The criticism may have been too harsh. It must be remembered that neither precedents nor tradition existed to guide the organization and administration of an athletic program for women. Few critics have realized that men, too, had problems when basketball was introduced into their physical training programs.

Despite the enthusiasm of YMCA members for the new game, there were criticisms of basketball. Only 10 players occupied the floor at one time. The justification for this situation was difficult for directors whose work was judged by the numbers of men in attendance. "This monopoly of the floor by a few caused some of the physical directors to question the value of the game, as they felt that development work for a large group was more important than a recreative game in which only a few men could participate."13 Interestingly, another problem arose because "many directors lacked experience in handling competitive sports. This lack of experience was responsible for some roughness and unsportsmanlike conduct on the part of many teams."14 In fact, there was even some sentiment for dropping the game from the YMCA program because of the problems it created.15

13 Ibid., p. 112.
14 Ibid.
15 Ibid., p. 113.
In 1894 basketball was added to apparatus, fencing, and marching in the Young Women's Christian Association athletic program. Rules proliferated to the extent that few institutions used the same regulations. Clara Baer of Sophie Newcomb College for Women in New Orleans gained much notoriety for her version of rules, called "newcomb." Naismith did not seem too impressed: "Miss Baer modified the game so much that the only things left were the ball and the goals." In 1898 Lewis Institute and Lake Forest University agreed upon a common set of rules. They insisted that "all teams playing with them must conform to these."

While schools were devising rules which satisfied local needs, inter-institution play, attended by numerous problems, was growing.

Dr. Henry S. Anderson of Yale and Dr. Dudley A. Sargent of Harvard augmented their university salaries by conducting schools for physical educators in their respective cities. The girls' basketball teams from the two institutions met on April 2, 1896, in what seems to have been an attempt to create a feminine version of the Yale-Harvard football game. The Cambridge lassies were larger and rougher and overwhelmed their New Haven rivals, 21-2. The Boston Evening Transcript noted that "considerable bad feeling was stirred up." The game did nothing to advance the cause of girls' basketball in the East.

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17 Naismith, op. cit., p. 165.


The game spread to the western states and interschool play soon followed.

With the opening of the fall term in 1892 there was a flare-up of interest at several of the schools, particularly among girls. Walter E. Magee, a physical training instructor from Providence, Rhode Island, brought the game to the University of California. The male students played a few class games with indifferent results. Football was then played until late January after which baseball and track practice commenced, so there appeared to be no room for a winter sport. But with the women students it was an entirely different story. At this time, Mr. Magee's wife was in charge of physical training at Miss Head's Seminary for Girls, also located at Berkeley. Teams from the two schools met, in the first basketball game ever played between educational institutions, in the University Gymnasium on November 18, 1892. The younger girls won, 6-5, despite the efforts of the coed goal tender, "a certain tall young lady with Yum Yum features" as the Berkeley Daily Advocate noted. 20

Stanford women attracted considerable attention as their basketball program grew.

Dr. Clelia D. Mosher had succeeded in selling the game to the girls at Stanford and, in 1894, they lost a close game to the Castelleja School in Palo Alto, 13-14. Two years later, Stanford won a return game and, thus emboldened, challenged California. The resulting contest is believed to have been the first intercollegiate game between women's teams. It was played on April 4, 1896, at the San Francisco Armory on Pacific Avenue. Stanford won, 2 - 1, before a gathering of seven hundred females. At the insistence of California, no men were admitted. The San Francisco papers sent reporters (female) to cover the game and had a field day over it. ... The Call informed its readers that the blonde referee "wore a modish black silk gown with a Persian collarette of pink

20 Ibid., pp. 20-21.
silk." The Chronicle stated that "the captain (of Stanford), little Stella McCray, was the snappiest player of them all."

The San Francisco Examiner also described the spectacle.

WATERLOO FOR BERKELEY GIRLS
Stanford's Fair Basketball Players
Won by a Goal.
'Twas a Women's Contest and
THE BEST TEAM TRIUMPHED.
Clad in Bloomers and Sweaters Muscular
Maidens Struggle for Supremacy.

The result of the game created quite a stir as the players returned to campus.

A victory over its arch rival was a big event at Stanford and the team was met at the railroad station by hundreds of cheering students of both sexes. Coeds proudly paraded with players on their shoulders. 'Faculty Row' was illuminated in their honor and they were awarded the block S. 23

In his work on the history of physical education in California DeGroot suggested that the Stanford - University of California contest was an event of considerable significance because it marked the introduction of competition in a game which was to become quite popular. He also noted that basketball was a game introduced in California by women but which men eventually came to dominate. 24

"Surprisingly, women began playing basketball before men did in many of the

22 Naismith, op. cit., p. 168.
23 Weyand, loc. cit.
nation's colleges." In 1898 basketball was a game for women in Wisconsin. When the men's team was organized at Oshkosh, the coach was a woman. In fact, women seemed particularly able to assume coaching duties in Wisconsin colleges.

It is possible that a woman was the qualified person to introduce and coach normal school basketball around the turn of the century. Each of the normal schools had a woman physical training instructor. As there were no men physical training instructors until 1912, it is likely that some of the men students would have turned to the woman physical training instructor for leadership in the new game of basketball.

Even the first definition of basketball which appeared in Funk and Wagnalls' dictionary, 1895 edition, identified the game with women.

Though many women physical education directors thought the game was best controlled and most valuable as an intramural activity, even those contests bordered on the spectacular. The eastern women's colleges were particularly adamant in their intramural stand and their intramurals were most spectacular. The traditional freshman-sophomore contest at Smith College in 1895 was described vividly by Elizabeth


26 Ibid., p. 63.

27 Ibid., pp. 63-64.

Fisher Read, a Smith student.

The culminating part of the gymnasium work is the annual basket-ball game between the teams of the first and second classes. A position on the class team is a highly coveted honor. ... About a month before the match is played, a first and a second, or substitute, teams are chosen in each class. In order to equalize the contest, and offset the greater experience of the second class, the juniors are allowed to coach the first class team.

On the stage at one end of the hall the Faculty and guests from the city are seated. They usually appear wearing the colors of one side or the other. Great rivalry is displayed by the members of the two classes in inducing popular members of the faculty to wear their colors.

The railings and pillars on each side are decorated with the colors of the side whose stronghold it is, and the students themselves are so well provided with neckties, scarfs, banners, umbrellas, and even dresses of their colors that the effect from the floor is almost that of a solid bank of color.

During the actual playing no singing is permitted, but in the intermission it is renewed with increased vigor, the winning side trying to express their approval and pleasure, the losers trying to cheer up their team to greater efforts. After the game cheers, songs, and a triumphal parade end the contest.

Fallows added details in the description of a later contest at Smith.

On the momentous day of the game, the gallery of the gymnasium is divided between sophomores with their allies, and freshmen with theirs. The territory of each class is picturesquely marked by its colors wound about the gallery railing, and two small boys, one usually black, the other white, acting as mascots for the teams, appear in their respective colors.

29Elizabeth Fisher Read, "Basket-Ball at Smith College," The Outlook, LVI (September 26, 1896), pp. 557-558.
Every adherent of either cause also flaunts her loyalty by flowers, ribbons, sashes, shawls, even here and there a lamp-shade framing some merry face as bonnet, so that the gallery looks like a huge flowerbed laid out in two colors. The president, by reason of his dignity, is invited to witness the game, but to all others of his sex, the doorkeeper turns a cold shoulder.

A BASIS FOR GUIDANCE AND CONTROL

Senda Berenson, who introduced the game to college women, and who was responsible for early controls for women’s competition, said that she became aware of basketball after reading the first article written about the game which appeared in Physical Education, a Young Men’s Christian Association publication, in 1892. Apparently she consulted Naismith about the game at a meeting of physical educators at Yale. Two sources indicated that this meeting was her introduction to the game.

She became greatly interested in the game, and I told her that the girls in Springfield were playing it. Miss Berenson spent some time studying basketball in order that she might introduce it at Smith.

... in 1893 at a conference on physical training which was held in the Yale gymnasium, Miss Senda Berenson, Director of Physical Education at Smith College, was introduced to the game and became so interested in it that within the year Smith College freshmen and...

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30 Fallows, op. cit., pp. 46-47.
31 Senda Berenson, "Basket Ball for Women," Physical Education, III (September, 1894), p. 106.
32 Naismith, op. cit., p. 163.
sophomores played a game in their gymnasium, which they had decorated gaily with flags and banners for the occasion. Men were not permitted to see the game since the girls were wearing bloomers.  

Dorothy Ainsworth, retired chairman of physical education at Smith, said that Berenson had gone to Springfield to talk with Naismith about the game in order to be able to introduce basketball to her students.

Despite this disagreement over the source of her information, Berenson, and subsequently her students, welcomed the new game. Berenson was particularly pleased with the game because it was clear to her that gymnastics were not fulfilling the needs or interests of the more able students. Her remarks revealed much about the impact of intramural basketball.

We thought that just a few students would come to watch but the whole college with class colors and banners turned out. They filled the broad balcony, the early ones sitting on the edge dangling their legs. They stood along the walls. As I threw the ball for the beginning of the game, it struck the uplifted hand of the center player, the captain of the freshman team, in a peculiar way so that it put her shoulder joint out of place -- a joint dislocated easily but of which she had forgotten to tell us when she had her physical examination. The onlookers, already excited, became more so. We took the girl into the office and pulled the joint into place, another center took her place and the game went on. Except for the fact that we had nine on a side, we played the men's rules. The cheering and screaming of the spectators was a high-pitched sound I do believe no one had ever heard before and was deafening. The next day the local paper appeared with flaming

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34 Statement by Dorothy Ainsworth, personal interview, November 16, 1971.
headlines: The Gladiators Appear, One Dying. There was a wild-eyed line-drawing of said gladiators, and a lurid description that must have made the staid citizens of the Valley wonder whether Sophia Smith had been wise to found a college in which young women might receive an education equal to that accorded to young men.35

To allay potential criticisms Berenson acted quickly to modify questionable elements of the game.

Miss Berenson called her teams together. She explained that imitation of their brothers was definitely taboo, and that although she considered basketball a fine game she would consent to its continuance only on condition that rules be modified to make it safer for women.36

As a result, the court was divided into three parts and players were segregated accordingly. To eliminate roughness, a player was prohibited from taking the ball from the possession of an opponent. A player was allowed to hold the ball only three seconds. The ingenuity of players added interesting bits of strategy to the game. "One of our Freshmen invented a good play. She threw a low ball against the wall at such an angle that it bounded back into the hands of one of her own players who was watching for it."37 Berenson was quite pleased with the Smith innovations until Luther Gulick visited Smith to witness a game.

I thought the girls played with speed, accuracy, and joy, . . . but when I asked

36 Ibid.
37 Berenson, op. cit., p. 108.
him he said, "Well, that is a fine game, but why do you call it basketball? Why not tiddly-winks?" I was made happy when a few years later he had changed his mind and wrote an article for the pamphlet in praise of our rules.38

The spectacles created by interclass championships in women's colleges must bear a portion of the criticism aimed at women's basketball. Typically, it is assumed that only intercollegiate and interscholastic play deserved critics' barbs. However, those intramural affairs attracted the attention of the whole community. Hours were spent in practice by the participants and in preparation by the partisans. The gymnasium took on the appearance of a gay carnival. Songs celebrating the occasion filled the crowded building. The winners were borne about on the shoulders of their supporters. Except for the fact that the teams involved represented the same institution, there were many parallels between this setting and that described in the Stanford-University of California accounts. Certainly the intensity of competition was similar in both situations. Modified rules did not appear to alter the enthusiasm of the players or seriousness of the play.

The proponents of basketball benefited by the increased support physical activity for women was receiving at the time the game was introduced. Few physical directors would allow the practice of games to replace regular gymnastic work, but the games were allowed as diversions and supplements to the

38Hill, op. cit., p. 663.
existing program. Though Berenson thought Swedish gymnastics were fundamental for all Smith students, she did foresee the possibilities of basketball.

Women have long felt the need of some sport that would combine both the physical development of gymnastics and the abandon and delight of true play. . . . The lack of some suitable athletic game for women is well filled by Basket Ball, as it is a game that requires the action of every part of the body, that develops physical courage, self-reliance, quickness, alertness, and no one who has ever seen it played can question the enthusiasm it arouses. 39

The game was considered to be as valuable for women as football for men. 40 In a sense athletics were viewed more liberally by women than by their men's college counterparts.

She should limit the hours of daily mental labor, as the workmen's hours of daily manual labor are limited, in order that during some periods of each day she may know perfect relaxation and freedom from pressing duties; that athletic games, instead of being for her a foe to scholarship, as the faculties of men's colleges seem inclined to regard them, may, by the exercise of good judgment in their use, be made an effective agent to build up the physique, and thus keep the brain in condition for vigorous effort.

Hence, despite the growing problems generated by men's athletics during this period, women identified values in such activities. However, they were determined that the problems encountered by

39 Berenson, op. cit., p. 106.
40 Read, op. cit., p. 558.
the men would not emerge in their programs. Rather than ignore the existence of sports on their campuses, women physical educators kept close guard over their growth. This was particularly true in colleges where women were employed to guide the program. In high schools and on college campuses where men taught physical education to women the situation was often quite different. Alice Foster, director of physical education at Bryn Mawr, viewed the emergence of athletics for women in a larger cultural context.

Women are taking places in the industrial, commercial, and intellectual world today as integers, no longer as fractions, and what one particle of the body politic requires that does another. The self-supporting woman of today needs the same equipment for seizing an opportunity, using it well and passing it on, that the man requires.  

THE DEVELOPMENT OF LOCAL STANDARDS

From the preceding descriptions of the involvement of women in physical activity and the emergence of basketball as an acceptable sport for female participants it was possible to identify efforts to control and guide these activities in directions deemed appropriate for the period. The story of this process was an interesting one and could best be told by those involved. Those people were the vanguard of an era. They had no models. Many of their decisions and much of their logic were ludicrous by present standards. However, it must

42 Alice Bertha Foster, "Basket Ball for Girls," American Physical Education Review, II (June, 1897), pp. 152-53.
be remembered that present practices gradually evolved from those unprecedented beginnings.

The early efforts of women leaders in physical education to preserve the distinctive values of sports for girls seem to have been precipitated by basketball problems. Their subsequent statements were not seemingly a consciously worded "platform" or set of "standards," yet these ideals, which evidently came from their actual contemporary experience and evaluation of competitive play, served as the building stones for the more definite, authorized standards that have materialized during the last two decades.

Problems necessitating standards for their control grew from the lack of experience in competitive athletics.

I hold firmly that women's moral plane is high in matters wherein there have long been in their own sex a public opinion and an education for them. But in competition they have not yet the experience that would formulate standards.

Those key areas of concern which attracted the attention of leaders of girls and women's athletics evoked various suggestions for control. Predictably, there was no consensus except in the recognition of a need for standards. Some individuals merely recognized the problems. Since many of those early concerns which eventually were incorporated into formal standards statements emerged between 1890 and 1900, they have been listed below. Each problem is noted and followed by remarks of concerned leaders about the problem.


44Foster, op. cit., p. 153.
1. Physical examinations and the health of the participant.

Senda Berenson never wanted to develop the "athletic type of young women but always stressed exercise for health and education.\(^{45}\)

Physically considered, I think the game a strain, and firmly believe that no girl or woman should be allowed to play it without the approval of a competent examiner. Weak heart action, pelvic trouble, weak back, history of sprained knee, and extreme excitability are some of the disabling conditions. Sprained ankles we hardly consider; a number of our players wear bandages through a game.\(^{46}\)

2. The strenuousness of the activity.

The Associations were organized primarily to take charge of athletic competition. At first this was a matter of the regulation of the college tennis tournament. Even these games had to be regulated from the outset to prevent the attempt to playoff the entire tournament in one day. Then came basketball, and with this sport the introduction of intercollegiate competition at some of the colleges.\(^{47}\)

The great danger of the game is its tendency to roughness. Every precaution taken to ward off this danger seems not only desirable but necessary.\(^{48}\)

3. Dress considerations.

More leeway is allowed now in the matter of costumes, but the doors of the gymnasium on play-nights are sternly shut against any but the feminine sex.\(^{49}\)

4. Transportation.

\(^{45}\)Hill, op. cit., p. 665.

\(^{46}\)Foster, loc. cit.


\(^{48}\)Berenson, op. cit., p. 107.

\(^{49}\)Fallow, op. cit., p. 44.
In a number of instances the girls' basketball team travelled with the boys' football team.

5. Girls' games as curtain raisers or preliminaries to boys' contests.

Not uncommon was the practice of playing the girls' basketball game on the football field as a preliminary to the boys' football game.

6. Maintaining a friendly spirit between opponents.

The game is carried on in a friendly spirit throughout. Naturally each side strains every nerve to win, but that no bad feeling is caused is shown by the fact that the two teams have a supper together in the evenings, at which good fellowship reigns.

7. Leadership by competent personnel, preferably women.

I feel that the girls' use of boys' rules was due to the fact that the coaches were men. Regardless of who coaches the technique of the game, there should be some competent woman directly in charge of the girls. No game should be placed before the welfare of the girls.

The style of game largely depends upon the coaches and the officials who work the game. If the rules are interpreted as they are meant to be I believe that I could recommend basketball for any normal boy or girl.

Accidents do happen. . . . I believe strict umpiring and a public sentiment that sustains it can lessen that reproach.

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50 DeGroot, op. cit., p. 300.
51 Ibid.
52 Read, op. cit., p. 558.
53 Naismith, op. cit., p. 170.
54 Ibid., p. 180.
55 Foster, loc. cit.
8. Spectator sportsmanship.

Every inch of standing-room is occupied, and the interest during the game is intense. Class reputation is at stake, and the dry throated anxiety, the eager following of each play, the unconscious exclamation of a Harvard-Yale football audience, are repeated there. But as cheering is not included in the president's scheme of womanliness, no shouts are heard, only the exultant songs of the victorious class and the would-be exultant songs of the class that feels its last hope going. Two innings are played, of fifteen minutes each, with five minutes rest between; then time is called, the score announced and the victorious captain, after receiving the congratulations of her magnanimous rival, is borne away in triumph on the shoulders of her team. 56


I find all the other women's colleges differ from us on the matter of snatching the ball, whereas we play by the rules in use in men's colleges. The question involves a great deal more than appears on the surface. The physical risk is by no means the only consideration. I intend to give a great deal more thought and study to the question, and I hope that our students will do the same. It is not a point to decide hastily or by personal preference. I have asked our captains to study it carefully, and next year I hope that I may be able to treat the whole subject more fully. 57

We played it for a while strictly according to the rules given by Mr. Naismith, the originator of the game, but as Mr. Naismith probably planned the game more for men than women, we found that we should have to change a few rules and make a few others in order to adapt it more to our peculiar needs and to get the best results from it. 58

56 Fallows, op. cit., p. 47.
57 Foster, op. cit., pp. 52-53.
58 Berenson, op. cit., p. 107.
By prohibiting snatching from each other, and not allowing any one to hold it longer than three seconds under the penalty of a foul, we did away with that tendency toward roughness] and yet kept the ball continually in play."

We also found that allowing the players to run all over the gymnasium led to several bad things. It encouraged individual playing, discouraged team work, overworked the ambitious ones, and gave comparatively no work to many. . . . To do away with these difficulties as much as possible, we divided the gymnasium by chalk lines into three equal parts: one for the home men, one for the centers, and one for the guards.

. . . a player found that by deftly bouncing the ball, she could get it to whatever place she pleased without giving any chance to her opponent to get it away from her. It was a fine play, in fact it was so appreciated by the whole team, that immediately after the game everybody began to bounce the ball, and after a little while several of the players did no throwing whatsoever. This was done away with by making a rule to the effect that a ball bounced more than three consecutive times made a foul.

10. Type of competition to be sanctioned.

But after the introduction of team sports, basketball in particular, contests were carried on outside college walls. The question arose as to the suitability of competitive athletics for women, but this did not deter women, and team sports continued to increase in popularity among women and girls and the general public as well.

Soon there came challenges, couched in belligerent terms, from all over the East and West, and at this point Miss Berenson again proved herself a leader. With a long look ahead

59 Ibid.
60 Berenson, loc. cit.
61 Ibid., p. 108.
62 Watts, op. cit., p. 38.
she foresaw that intercollegiate athletics might well become a menace to real physical education for women, she answered each letter politely, but firmly explained her reasons for refusing all offers. . . . By this time modified rules began to appear. It was apparent that uniform rules for women would not only make the game itself more important but would encourage the right spirit in playing games.


A letter has been received from the International Y.M.C.A. Training School at Springfield, where basketball originated, asking our practice and opinion as regards modification of the existing rules, and suggesting a conference of the directors of the women's colleges. I visited the women's colleges largely on this account. I also went to the Springfield School and discussed the matter with its leader.

Alice Foster of Oberlin College became the chairman of a basketball committee appointed at a convention of directors of physical training at Springfield in January, 1898. The proposals from the committee were adopted at a conference on physical training convened under the auspices of Luther H. Gulick between June 14 and 28, 1899. At first the rules were distributed in mimeographed form. Subsequently, James E. Sullivan, Secretary-Treasurer of the Amateur Athletic Union, invited Senda Berenson to submit the rules to the American Sports Publishing Company for publication.

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63 Hill, op. cit., pp. 662-663.
65 Weyand, op. cit., p. 16.
The need for the uniform set of rules for women's basketball was variously interpreted. Berenson hoped they would instill the proper attitude in playing the game.  

The interest of the women in having their own rules for sports heretofore governed only by regulations established for men players, complimented [sic] advances in social freedom and in freedom of press.

But Glacy and Smith tended to concur that "this trend toward a greater concurrence on a set of rules laid the foundation for increased interscholastic and intercollegiate competition." Those who formulated the rules did not have the last interpretation in mind.

There can be no doubt that these early efforts to guide and control athletics in the best interests of those involved were haphazard and typically local in their impact. Of course, physical education for college women was in its developmental stage. Gymnastics dominated required programs and sport was still the stepchild of physical education curriculums. Literally, teachers learned to cope with sports and their attendant forms of competition as their students learned to play the games.

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67 Hill, op. cit., p. 663.


69 Glacy, op. cit., p. 18.

As problems appeared policies and procedures were designed to correct and regulate them. The trial and error approaches to administration did not make for orderly development nor generalized trends in the country.

As a result, unfortunate practices developed.

... many women moved ahead too quickly, unthinkingly copying the poor example set in men's athletics. So, the wild new competitive craze spread throughout schools and colleges at a time when active competition in sports was still foreign to women.

Though contemporary leaders in women's athletics have placed their reliance on research to determine policies for competition, one significant research endeavor was begun in the last decade of the nineteenth century. The work of Clelia D. Mosher was under way at that time.

She was deeply interested in research and early in her medical career she challenged the all too prevalent ideas about the physical incapacities of women. As an assistant in hygiene at Stanford University she developed her studies that exploded the idea that women breathe costally. Out of this study grew her deep interest in dress reform for women. From 1894 on she waged battle for abandonment of stiff corsets and the adoption of sensible shoes and light weight clothing, and encouraged women's participation in sports. She organized girls' basketball teams and arranged game schedules for them. When she became physical examiner of women at Stanford University she developed her research in functional periodicity in women and exploded the fallacious theory that menstruation is an infirmity that must be suffered by women.


CONCLUSION

Basketball was preceded by several other sports played by women on college campuses; it was not even the first team sport played by women. Although baseball was played earlier, basketball did far surpass it in popularity and acceptance in college programs of physical education for women. The growth of the game was paralleled by increasing analyses and criticisms of its impact on women's programs.

With basketball came the first stirrings of women's intercollegiate sport, a development which caused critics of sports for women to respond with renewed vigor. It began a period in the history of women's sports, which is about to draw to a close, permeated by a never ending debate about the values and practices of competition: which activities, how much, for whom, and under what conditions?74

Significantly, for this study, eastern women's colleges, including Vassar in New York, "led the way and set the stage for the introduction of athletics for girls in the state colleges and the public schools, as well as for other private institutions throughout the country."75 Clearly, from the beginning of competition in athletics, women leaders strove to control their growth. They chose intramural competition, usually interclass, over other forms. Yet, intercollegiate contests were played causing one analyst to observe "that the problems of extramural competition became more demanding

75 Watts, op. cit., p. 35.
as restrictions on the lives of women were lifted by the changing times."\textsuperscript{76}

Assessing the situation, Watts found that "condemnation of competitive sports for women seemed to be based upon the biological, the physiological, and the emotional differences of the sexes as well as social factors."\textsuperscript{77} She felt the criticisms "were pointless and conveyed the idea that man was loathe to part with the image he possessed of the feminine sex."\textsuperscript{78} Evidently many women physical educators did not agree with Watts' analysis. Few stood waving the banner of feminism. In fact, many women questioned the value of activities such as basketball in their programs. Gymnastics continued to be the basis of physical education programs.

In assessing the impact of basketball Smith proposed:

\begin{quote}
It created for the first time a raison d' \textit{etre} for women leaders to join together to control a physical education activity. \ldots Basketball, then, probably was the most potent force for creating a viable and effective women's physical education program in colleges."
\end{quote}

There is little doubt that the game changed physical education programs irrevocably. Efforts to control competition and the general growth of basketball resulted in local standards rather than national consensus. However, the bases for national stand-

\textsuperscript{76} Kesler, op. cit., p. 11.
\textsuperscript{77} Watts, op. cit., p. 26.
\textsuperscript{78} Ibid., p. 27.
\textsuperscript{79} Smith, "Rise of Basketball," p. 33.
ards for women's athletic competition had been firmly laid between 1890 and 1900.
CHAPTER III

PROBLEMS GROW AND ORGANIZATIONS FOR GIRLS AND WOMEN'S ATHLETICS BEGIN, 1900-1920

INTRODUCTION

During the first two decades of the twentieth century the course of women's athletics for many years was established. Problems developed in proportion to increasing participation. Yet, despite the difficulties accompanying athletic competition, they were outweighed by the values. In fact, glowing accounts of values suggested that athletics, properly conducted, were virtual panaceas with salve for mind, body, soul, and spirit.

It was a period of beginnings. At first, athletics were controlled and guided independently or locally as in the previous decade. Then, organizations became interested in the area of women's athletics. By action or decree the women's college physical education directors, the Amateur Athletic Union, American Physical Education Association, and women's athletic associations became associated with the guidance of women's athletic competition. Throughout the two decades these groups and various individuals suggested guidelines and procedures which would assure the benefits of athletic competition for women.
ATHLETIC COMPETITION FOR GIRLS AND WOMEN

Representing an extreme or, one might suppose, feminist point of view of the period, Anna deKoven, society leader and amateur athlete, said "No sport is too reckless, too daring, or too strenuous for the more experienced among athletic American women."¹ She cited the great variety of activities engaged in by women at the turn of the century and lamented the subsequent abandonment of physical activity, especially by those over forty.

In these days, when the equality of the sexes is so loudly proclaimed, it would seem that the prolongation of physical activity, which is held to be of such vital importance among men, should be equally desired by women, who hope to keep the pace in the work of the world.² deKoven must have gained some satisfaction when she heard that women participated in the Olympic games in 1912, though American women did not become involved until 1928.³

Women's teams played for gate receipts, received all kinds of publicity, mostly adverse, and placed emphasis on winning at all costs. Most of the women's teams were coached by men and most games were officiated by men. There were no standards concerning the welfare of the players.

Chaperonage was poor. Women did not have a background for basketball and were emotionally

²Ibid., p. 148.
unstable in meeting the pressures of athletic competition. 4

Teams roved about the countryside seeking competition. Girls played against boys. Play lacked a relationship to sound educational purposes or principles.

In the early years of the 1900's, girls in some high schools in all parts of the country competed in interschool activities, although the games were not organized or controlled by school authorities. Some played college teams; some, other high school teams, and some, boys' grade school teams. By 1910 girls' interscholastic basketball had become big excitement in many small towns of the Middle West and South, and this continued throughout the era. 5

The behavior of some players violated the most basic concepts of femininity.

During this time women athletes were considered mannish. The abuse of an audience brought out the worst in young women who did not have the poise and security necessary for such pressures. Basketball players used rough language and were considered tough and crude. In order to have freedom of movement, the players wore clothing that was not socially acceptable.

Yet, at that same time, sports were gaining greater acceptance in college and public school physical education programs. As the goals of education were changing, so did physical education change to assure its place within the


6Morrison, loc. cit.
structure of that institution. For example, Lucille Eaton Hill, director of physical education at Wellesley College, found that "the 'play instinct' is so keen in all healthy young animals, that a girl's active or latent interest in games suited to her age and strength should be encouraged and developed."\(^7\) Play, then, was a "natural" activity to include in the program. According to Hill there was also the need to demonstrate the relationship between mind and body.

College women are beginning to recognize the true relation of the body and mind and to value physical training as an aid to the best intellectual activity. There is also an increasing appreciation of physical beauty to be found in abounding health, grace of motion, and dignity of bearing.

The possible contributions of athletics and sport to the education of youth seemed limited only by the imaginations of the authors. There were the obvious physical values.

The early development of the body, with the attendant strengthening of the lungs and the hearts, is a great advantage to any young woman, and American generations of the future will inherit stronger constitutions from their mothers because of the increase of athletic sports among the young women of today, if only the pitfall of overindulgence is avoided.

Certain social amenities were likely to be derived from participation in sports.


\(^8\)Ibid., p. 13.

Under wise direction, girls learn from competitive games, self-control, self-confidence, fairness, obedience to rules, courtesy to one's opponent, courage and forgetfulness of self. Social qualities of good fellowship with devotion to the team are also strengthened. The abandon of the struggle is a corrective for the introspective tendency so strong in many women. . . . Physiologically, free play through the co-ordination of nervous and muscular action and the stimulus on the function of respiration, circulation and excretion possesses a value that can be obtained through no formal exercise. 10

Participation in sports also contributed to emotional and character development.

The ethical value of "athletics for women" may be placed side by side with the physical value. The necessary submission to strict discipline, the unquestioning obedience demanded by the officers, the perfect control of the temper and sensitiveness under coaching, together with the fact that she must be absolutely unselfish in order to become a loyal and valued member of her organization, develops a young girl's character while she develops her muscles.

Particularly valuable for women were the characteristics of team sports which helped them learn to work in harmony with other individuals.

The spirit that pervades all sports of this description, that of sinking one's individuality in the larger unit of the team, and of sacrificing individual interests to team success, fosters in women the very spirit of mutual assistance, of "sticking together," as we commonly call it, the lack of which is sometimes most noticeable in the sweeter sex. 12


12 Paret, op. cit., p. 1563.
The "sweeter sex" was to have a program of activities separate from that for men. To Dudley Allen Sargent, pioneer physical educator, good form would need to take precedent, since "women as a class cannot stand a prolonged mental or physical strain as well as men." The implications of this sentiment plagued those concerned with programs of physical activity throughout this period. Rules for women created a less strenuous game. "Fun" and "play" were more important than excellence in performance or winning contests. The assumed physical and mental differences between men and women caused great difficulties in program planning which continue to plague physical educators today.

One additional consideration drew attention. What was to be done with the highly skilled or ambitious performer? Florence Somers, a high school physical educator in Ohio, remarked that "the girls who are already strong can take care of themselves." The masses of students were the focus of physical education programs. Interscholastic and intercollegiate athletics which concentrated on the highly skilled few were subjected to question as a consequence of this view. The skilled performer could help her less able peers in physical

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13 Dudley Allen Sargent, "What Athletic Games, If Any, are Injurious for Women in the Form in Which They Are Played by Men?" American Physical Education Review, XI (September, 1906), p. 178.

education classes and intramurals rather than become the focus of the program.

**THE GAME OF BASKETBALL**

As has often been the case in physical education, the void between theory and practice was evident. Physical education theory did not justify extensive or intensive inter-institution athletic programs. Yet, during this period a great deal of such competition occurred.

The Hackensack High School girls' basketball team won the championship of the Northern New Jersey Interscholastic League this afternoon by defeating the Englewood High School team, 12 to 8.

It was interesting to note that teams in the New Jersey League numbered five or six players. Halves were ten, twelve, and fifteen minutes in length. Such diversity of rules was not unusual during that period.

College teams were also involved in athletic competition as the new century began. In his history of physical education in California DeGroot described highlights of the game there.

... in California between 1900 and 1910, the game remained predominately a girls' sport during this period. Mills College, the University of California, Stanford University, San Jose Normal, Chico Normal, Los Angeles Normal, University of Southern California, and University of Pacific girls all had teams playing the game about 1906, on an intercollegiate as well as intramural basis.

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College teams also competed against high school girls, men coaches were the rule, and frequently scrimmages were held against boys' teams. In California, where championships occurred at local, sectional, and state levels, the University of Southern California was a member of a Young Women's Basketball League of Southern California. College, club, and high school teams competed in the League in 1904.

With such variation in the actual practice of basketball, many efforts were made to bring the situation under control. Ethel Perrin's account of her experiences with interscholastic basketball in Detroit must be a classic example of the woman physical educator's counter-revolutionary strategy.

My first problem was in basketball, which game I thoroughly enjoyed and had taught ever since it was originated by Mr. Naismith. I had a very strong prejudice against interscholastic basketball competition, although I had had no experience with it in the past. I found this to be well organized between the three high schools of Detroit in 1908. . . . My principal was against it but public opinion and the newspapers had forced him into it. . . . The games were well played and the sportsmanship of the players was pretty good, except for the spirit of "getting by" which would crop up. But the audiences were terrible -- just a screaming mass of maniacs. . . . We managed to improve the behavior of the audiences at the games held in Central's gymnasium by inviting the boys in. Previously they had only been allowed to see by climbing and peeking from the outside -- more fun for them perhaps but not so good for us to contend with. . . . I corralled a few of the leaders among the boys and got them interested in helping us out of our difficulties. At our next game they scattered through the audience and we had no more screaming girls.

17Ibid., p. 301.
a girl intuitively knows that she does not look her best when screaming.

As a result of these tactics both interscholastic basketball and the league ceased to exist. Demonstrating that a "gymnasium was good for other things than basketball games," a program of a variety of activities filled the play area. A similar series of events occurred at the University of Nebraska in 1900 where a varsity basketball team, managed by a woman English teacher, played high schools, Young Women's Christian Associations, and college teams. By 1906 an interclass program of competition had replaced the varsity series.20

The first rule guide for women, Line Basket Ball or Basket Ball for Women, was published by the American Sports Publishing Company in 1901. The intention of the basketball committee was to formulate a uniform set of rules for all girls and women playing the game. The task was to prove a formidable one. Despite the efforts of those promoting uniformity Smith estimated that one-half to two-thirds of the teams continued to use men's rules.22

19 Ibid.
20 Rice, Hutchinson, and Lee, op. cit., p. 290.
Harry Stewart, a medical doctor and physical director in private schools for girls who in later years proved to be a traitor to the cause, lent his full efforts to the cause of unifying rules by sending a questionnaire to all schools and colleges playing girls and women's basketball. He found that "nearly all Eastern preparatory schools and colleges changed the existing 'Rules for Women' somewhat, to suit their own conditions, while in the West and South quite different types of the game are played." He also remarked that "when the 'Men's Rules' game is as strictly and completely presented to the girl as the 'Women's Rules' game is, she will generally choose the former." The results of Stewart's questionnaire were forwarded to the women's basketball rules committee which included Stewart among its members.

Beginning in 1910 in California, "with the increase in 'scientific physical education' for girls, there was launched a statewide effort to curb interschool play by girls' teams." With the arrival of Clark Hetherington as state supervisor of physical education in 1918 the effort became more positive and definite. As physical education in California and elsewhere


24Ibid., p. 243.

began to reflect the "natural program" or the "New Physical Education," in which there was no place for a girls' interscholastic program,\(^{26}\) the pressure to abolish such programs increased. Physical educators, accordingly, also gained another weapon for their battle against interscholastic programs. Hetherington and Thomas Denison Wood strongly favored the involvement of all children in some form of physical activity. Hence, they felt intramural programs were more appropriate than interscholastic athletics.

**ORGANIZATIONS TO GUIDE AND CONTROL WOMEN'S ATHLETICS**

The early years of the century were typified by local and individual efforts to establish guidelines and policies for women's athletics. However, in September, 1906, the Public School Physical Training Society took a conservative stand on high school girls' athletics when in convention they resolved:

*Resolved,* That all coaches should be responsible to the schools or organizations whose students they teach, rather than to the students.

*Resolved,* That under present conditions we do not approve of inter-school athletics for girls, believing that most of the desirable results accruing from such activities can be secured by intra-school games, and many grave dangers may thereby be avoided.

*Resolved,* That this Society disapproves of the admission of the general public to athletic games played by girls, and to sensational written or illustrated newspaper reports of

\(^{26}\) Letter from Rosalind Cassidy, Professor Emeritus, University of California at Los Angeles, to the Writer, November 5, 1971.
such games, especially such articles as exploit individual players.27

These concerns endured to become elements of the more formal standards statements circulated by later women's organizations. In the second decade of the century several more organizations joined the effort to regulate women's athletics.

The Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) drew much criticism in the 1920's as a result of its promotion of women's athletics. That action was preceded by rather interesting pronouncements. In an article which appeared in the 1910-1911 women's basketball rule guide, the secretary-treasurer of AAU, James E. Sullivan, disclaimed any interest by that organization in women's athletics.

Girls' athletics, from a coaching or a managerial standpoint, should be absolutely directed by women.

A girls' basket ball team must not be trained in the tricks and methods of a man's champion basket ball team or play under men's rules; nor should they be sent around the country to exhibit themselves as experts or compete in open competition where gate money is charged.

. . . girls should be kept in their own group and not be permitted to take part in public sports.

Let us hope that the educational authorities will once and for all put the iron hand down on open competitions, in any shape, manner or form, for girls, and not allow them to be paraded before the public as athletic experts.

It is worthy of note that the Amateur Athletic Union of the United States, the body that controls all

amateur sport in the United States ... will not register a female competitor and its registration committees refuse sanction for a swimming contest or a set of games where an event for women is scheduled -- and will anyone question the wisdom of such a policy?28

Sullivan was also a member of the Board of Education of Greater New York. His remarks reflected the position taken by that city's Girls' Branch of the Public Schools Athletic League which was in its formative years under the leadership of Elizabeth Burchenal at that time.29 The League opposed interscholastic competition among its members and favored intramural programs under the guidance of competent women.

By 1914, though, women swimmers were permitted to register with the AAU for the first time.30 It was apparent that no other organization was available or willing to fill this need. The Board of Governors debated the continuance of that practice in 1916.

So "far" as could be learned there is no woman, or women's organization, ready at present to take up the government if the A.A.U. should decide to discontinue the management. Miss Epstein, the leading worker in the National Women's Life-Saving


League, says that her organization would have been willing to take up the work two years ago, but that now that the A.A.U. has done so well, she is more than satisfied to have it continue in control.\(^{31}\)

Though the constitution committee was divided regarding the advisability of permitting the registration of women, the Legislative Committee proposed cancelling any such proposal.\(^ {32}\)

Finally, it was decided to continue the registrations.

It was believed that the Board of Governors would be instructed with the task of deciding what costumes the women swimmers should wear but it was eventually decided to permit the Registration Committees of the various associations to solve this problem. The Metropolitan Association has already ruled that the girls must wear neck to knee costumes of dark material.\(^ {33}\)

Subsequently, the AAU was subjected to considerable criticism for its failure to demonstrate sufficient concern for the welfare of the participants. The mere fact that the organization continued to register women is significant. Unlike some women physical educators who were content to confront the expansion of women's athletics with pronouncements, the AAU recognized that no women were ready to become actively engaged in the management of athletics. Though obviously reticent to do so, the AAU did, at least, recognize the need for some kind of real leadership and assume that responsibility. As was the case throughout the subsequent history of women's athletics, women's


\(^{33}\)"Pros Retained," loc. cit.
organizations tended to act some time after the need had become apparent.

Florence Somers suggested the need for a women's group, to take exclusive control of women's athletics. In the process she rejected the AAU as the proper organization.

Men's athletics have for some time been controlled by the Amateur Athletic Union, and other athletic associations. Should there not be a separate organization to women's athletics?

Do our women really wish to compete against men? Do they even wish to be allowed to enter an association where such competition is sanctioned? I believe it would be better for the control of women's athletics to be on an entirely separate basis, and for the board of control to be made up of women and men who have had a great deal of experience in working with girls and women.

Probably because it afforded an occasion for physical educators from across the country to come together, the American Physical Education Association (APEA) had become an unofficial forum for the discussion of competition for women by concerned men and women members. The association's Review also provided a literary forum for the expression of views. The basketball rules committee was reported to have become a part of APEA in 1905. In her historical account of women's athletics in the APEA, Mabel Lee, who became the Association's first woman president, noted the scarcity of accurate records of activities by the organization.

There is no report of the creation of such a committee in the published records of the APEA Council business but women's athletics were not considered too important a topic in those days.

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34Somers, op. cit., p. 375.
by the great rank and file of workers in the profession and no doubt, also, many minor details of meetings did not get into the published reports. . . . Gulick was deeply interested in girl's athletics and no doubt had the Basketball Committee set up as a committee of APEA. 35

By 1912 there was some sentiment within the APEA for a women's athletic committee. A predictable and persistent problem delayed action.

The women were not united. Those who wanted a section at all hoped that it might be a group of college women teachers, similar to the College Gymnasium Directors Society which the men had. This controversy between the college women teachers who wanted a section of their own and the Council members of the APEA who wanted a Women's Section open to all women lasted for several years. 36

In January, 1916, it was reported that George L. Meylan's motion to appoint a nine-member committee on women's athletics had been passed at the annual meeting. 37 At this juncture the evolution of a women's athletic committee became rather confusing. Both the date of the Committee's origin and the name of the first chairman were subjects of some doubt. Evidence indicated that the committee was appointed in 1916 and began operation in 1917. At any rate, in April, 1916, a Women's Section was recognized and asked to plan a convention program for the succeeding year.


At the APEA Council meeting held at the time of the 23rd convention, Apr. 19-22, 1916, in Cincinnati under the presidency of E. H. Arnold, the Council recognized as a new section the Women's Section and asked it to prepare a program for the 1917 convention. President Arnold appointed Gertrude Dudley of the University of Chicago to be its chairman to get it started.

Issues created by the participation of women in athletics provoked the Council of the American Physical Education Association to further action at its 1916 meeting.

President Arnold also set up a committee to study the standardization of athletics for women, naming Florence Somers of the Cleveland public schools as chairman. At the closing Council meeting on December 30, 1916, a standing Committee on Women's Athletics was created.

The committee was appointed by the succeeding president, William Burdick, in 1916, at that December Council meeting.

Dr. Burdick appointed as committee on athletics for girls, Miss Ethel Perrin of Detroit, Chairman, Miss Elizabeth Burchenal of New York, Miss Elizabeth Bates of the Woman's Division, Brown University, Miss Blanche M. Trilling of the University of Wisconsin, Miss Florence D. Alden of the Baltimore Athletic League, Miss Winifred E. Tilden of the Iowa State College, Miss Maude Cleveland of the University of California, Dr. L. R. Burnett of the Sargent Normal School, and Dr. E. A. Peterson of the public schools of Cleveland. It was suggested that this committee have a committee meeting at the convention at Pittsburgh.

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38 Lee, "Foreword," op. cit., p. 3.
39 Lee and Bennett, loc. cit.
Mabel Lee suggested another date for the appointment of the committee, but clarified the chairmanship confusion to some extent.

At the APEA Council meeting held on Jan. 6, 1917 President Burdick was authorized to appoint a committee on athletics for girls. . . . The APEA Council records report that President Burdick named Ethel Perrin as Chairman of this new committee on athletics for girls. Whether this was a publication error or a fact is not known. If it is a fact for some reason Elizabeth Burchenal was announced as the first Chairman. Miss Perrin may have later refused the chairmanship. But again this may have been a misprint in the records. . . . but it is immaterial for Miss Burchenal was the one who organized the committee and started its work. 41

Despite the confusion in precise date of origin, the sorely needed committee, under the direction of its first chairman, Elizabeth Burchenal, wasted little time getting under way. "The primary purpose of the group was to formulate and publish official rules for women's sports, but the committee also served in an advisory capacity to the developing programs of women's sports." 42 At the Pittsburgh convention of APEA in April, 1917, "the General Athletic Committee reported a general meeting and the plan to send out a questionnaire to find out the general athletic needs of girls." 43 The official title of the Committee proved as confusing as the date of origin.

41 Lee, "Foreword," loc. cit.
42 Remley, op. cit., p. 75.
However, the responsibilities must have been clearer. One of the chairman's tasks was to appoint subcommittees of the parent group.

Dr. Burdick reported that the Basket Ball Committee, a subcommittee of the Women's Athletic Committee, had been appointed by Miss Elizabeth Burchenal, consisting of Mrs. Senda Berenson Abbott, Chairman, Smith College; Miss Florence Alden, Athletic League, Baltimore, Md.; Miss Mabel Ford, Y.W.C.A., New York City; Mrs. Geo. T. Hepbron, 10 North 18th St., East Orange, Conn.; Dr. Harry E. Stewart, 35 Pendleton St., New Haven, Conn.; Dr. L. Raymond Burnett, Tufts College, Boston, Mass.; and three persons to be suggested by Mrs. Abbott, the chairman, Dr. Wm. Burdick, President, and Miss Elizabeth Burchenal, Chairman of General Athletic Committee, members ex officio. 44

The Women's Athletic Committee of the American Physical Education Association represented the first attempt by physical educators from all educational levels to organize nationally to guide athletics for girls and women. Unlike the men who developed a National Collegiate Athletic Association during this period, the women chose to maintain athletics within programs of physical education. It was to be a major undertaking. As subsequent events will demonstrate the Committee "did not solve all of the problems of competition; and neither did it unify the diverse attitudes toward competition for women, which were destined to prevail for another fifty years." 45

In 1917, as the Women's Athletic Committee was beginning to function, Blanche M. Trilling of the University of Wisconsin, 44

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44 Ibid., p. 314.
45 Remley, op. cit., p. 13.
encouraged by such student leaders as Gladys Palmer, Helen Barr and Ruth Glassow, called twenty-three presidents of college women's athletic associations into conference. The purposes for the Athletic Conference of American College Women (ACACW), as it was at first known, were to "further the growth of WAA's, promote greater sports participation by women, and standardize sports rules." A New England group had been meeting since 1911 and eventually voted to join the national group. Several resolutions were adopted at the March, 1917, meeting of ACACW.

1. The Women's Athletic Associations in universities and colleges have a close relationship with the departments of physical education for women.

2. This body go on record as opposing intercollegiate athletic competition for women in so far as it involves the necessity of a team going from one college to another, but that the keeping of records of events be maintained by the Conference secretary for competition comparison between colleges.

3. The Women's Athletic Associations in colleges and universities adopt Spalding's rules as the official rules in all games.

4. This body go on record as in favor of keeping up scholastic standards by discouraging the playing of any girl on a class team unless she has a satisfactory scholastic standing.

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5. The body recommend that sportsmanship be seriously considered in choosing a girl for any team.

The ACACW was the forum for student opinion. Several years were spent developing the organization. Though there is little record of the impact of the organization on intercollegiate programs, it did remain active over the years. While providing students the opportunity to express and exchange their views on the athletic concerns of the period, the organization tended to reflect the general thinking of women physical educators who advised the local associations.

THE BASIS FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF STANDARDS BROADENS

As noted in the previous chapter, the recognition of the need for guidelines and policies was practically simultaneous with and parallel to the growth in competition in basketball among girls and women. Between 1900 and 1920 individuals continued to criticize women's athletics. Again, those comments related directly to the standards which were eventually formulated.

Lucille Eaton Hill of Wellesley College and chairman of a committee of the Boston Physical Education Society, summarized many of the purportedly negative aspects of basketball at a meeting of the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools.

Basketball, she said, should be stopped absolutely so far as girls under the college age is

48 Ibid., p. 53.
concerned, and it should be admitted only tentatively, and under professional supervision, to a place among the sports open to women of a new age. The physical effects upon young girls at a critical period of their growth into womanhood, the chances of permanent injury to beauty and health, the evil influence of such excitement upon the emotional and nervous feminine nature, and the tendency to unsex the player -- for she declared that the competitive game, with its traveling about, its exhibitions before mixed audiences, and its cultivation of the win-at-any-cost spirit, was not womanly, and made neither for character nor refinement -- were all urged against the game for young girls.

The high school interscholastic programs suffered the severest attacks. As she reviewed the situation in her history of the development of standards, Kesler remarked that "it seemed that the necessity for guidance and control lay more frequently in the high schools than in the colleges." 52

Physical educators were determined to preserve feminine qualities in their programs. That point of view was expressed for the profession editorially in the Review.

Business life, and independence in women tend to develop certain masculine qualities in them. Physical training should not accentuate these qualities, but rather should help to make the girls

49"Basket Ball Denounced," The New York Times, October 11, 1903, p. 11, col. 3.


and women healthier, and better fitted to bear the burdens of womanhood and motherhood. It should develop their feminine characteristics, grace in speech, dress, and carriage.

In a view sounding more contemporary than turn of the century Frances A. Kellor, who was interested in athletics but not a physical educator, assessed the effects of athletics on the participant quite differently: "The qualities which games develop are not essentially masculine, they are but human qualities needed for human fellowship ..."^{54}

Lack of agreement on the concept of femininity in physical activities persisted for many years. For example, the issue emerged in rules discussions. On one side were the proponents of separate women's rules. Somers thought the values of women's rules were indisputable.

The game that has been evolved for women is a cleaner game in every respect; the attention of the player can be concentrated on the skillful passing of the ball instead of on the person of the opponent; fine team play can be developed; and there is much less chance of physical or nervous exhaustion.^{55}

Men, too, found rules designed for the capacities of women to be desirable.

As played now under the new rules, the game is very much more interesting to both spectators

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^{55}Somers, op. cit., p. 372.
and players. It equalizes the value of the different positions, does away with two of the greatest sources of danger in the physical contact and the constant running permitted by the former rules, and encourages the cleverest kind of team-play."

Gertrude Dudley of the University of Chicago and Frances A. Kellor shared doubts about such extravagant claims. "Instead of possessing a superior advantage, the greatest disadvantage of Rules for Women is that a high order of team work, which equalizes strain and trains individuals to work together, is impossible." The disagreement about appropriate rules for women was not confined to the early years of the century. It endures today.

There was little disagreement about the promotion of athletics for all students rather than a select few or that competition was to be of an intramural nature. The clarion cry of vocal women physical educators for fifty years concerned attention for the masses of students.

All associated efforts must secure the greatest good to the greatest number; not the greatest good to the smallest number, which is one of the evils of the "Old Athletics.""57

Sports must be conducted for the good of the number.59

56J. Parmly Paret, "Basket-Ball for Young Women," Harper's Bazaar, XXXIII (October 20, 1900), p. 1565.
57Dudley and Kellor, op. cit., p. 184.
We should seek the greatest good to the greatest number.

Athletics are a means to an end, not an end in themselves, and are to be conducted for the good of the entire number and not for the purpose of making championship teams and developing record-breakers and pennant-winners. 61

Ellen Bernard Thompson, writing of basketball for college women, suggested that individual efforts were to be subordinated to the interests of the group. Women in particular needed to learn the valuable lessons of team play.

The brilliant playing of the individual members of a team will not, however, win a game; to insure even a fair chance of success, the team must work together as a whole, each player being without thought of individual applause or praise. A seemingly brilliant play, which calls for the vigorous applause from a sympathetic audience, may in reality be detrimental rather than advantageous to the success of the game. 62

William Orr, a high school principal in Springfield, Massachusetts, thought it was even immoral to suggest inter-institution competition.

... girls should under no circumstances engage in struggles for supremacy with teams from other schools. These games are necessarily spectacular and sin against the physical as well as the physiological well being of woman. 63

60 Patrick, op. cit., p. 428.


Though this sentiment was expressed more vehemently than others, it did suggest a growing concern for the influence of athletics on character development as well as the physical being of the participant.

The type of publicity given the competitive program was another troublesome issue in need of control or, according to Lucille Eaton Hill, complete elimination.

I believe, too, that unnecessary publicity tends to cheapen the efforts of an individual and an organization; therefore those of us who labor for the success of physical training as a powerful health factor in the lives of American women, will esteem reserve as womanly and notoriety as unwomanly.

Furthermore, spectators and admission charges to contests complicated an already troublesome area. Men's athletics had established unwanted precedents. Women struggled to decide whether to have any audience, to allow men, or to limit viewers to invited guests only. Games were not to be spectacles or public entertainments. O'Keefe held the sponsoring institution responsible for the athletic budget.

It is always a question as to whether or not to throw the games open to the entire school and whether or not to charge an admission fee. It would seem the best policy to allow all members of the general athletic associations and their friends to be present, and to do away with an admission fee. The money for the conduct of athletics should be available from the general funds, and "gate money" should not be connected

64 Hill, op. cit., p. 15.
with our athletics in any way. 66

Women continued to condemn the leadership of men in athletic programs for girls and women. Yet, Dudley and Kellor, who took an opposite or different view on many issues, proposed the use of men officials rather than women and in so doing may have identified a basic cause of the difficulties in women's athletics.

On the whole, men are better officials at the present time, for women have received no special training and a good player does not necessarily make a good official. Women are also less exact, less firm and less businesslike in running off games. 67

These authors predicted the inevitability of the continuing existence of competition among girls and women. They placed the responsibility for appropriate leadership in the hands of schools of physical education.

So long as these conditions exist, schools of physical education constitute the greatest obstruction to the adoption of athletics as a part of the educational system and to raising its standard above the plane of commercial competition. It is not a question of their disapproving of or restraining athletics, for beyond all power of their control, it is settled that girls will play — just as settled as that women will work. The question is, will these schools become an intelligent force in creating and maintaining a high standard of athletics or will they belittle, exclude or ignore them and confuse the public mind as to their values, because they are not strong enough to meet the problem of their


Thus, Somers' earlier pleas for an organization to achieve coordination in the standardization of women's athletics came after years of random proposals had effected essentially local influence. It was her hope that such a committee might meet annually to strive for several goals.

1. To promote interest in girls' athletics.
2. To standardize rules for team games and for track and field athletics.
3. To make rules to govern amateurs and professionals.

This committee might also be able to regulate the rules of a given sport that they could be made suitable for either girl of the high school age or of college age.

Certain organizations had publicly proclaimed their positions on athletics for girls and women. In accordance with the report of its Committee on Athletics for Girls the National Recreation Congress had taken action intended to guide its members in 1908. Though the group felt that evidence was not sufficient to cause it to take a stand against inter-playground competition or competition between boys and girls, its resolutions dealt with concerns shared by physical educators.

All girls entering into competitions or games requiring much endurance should be examined by a physician and a certificate given stating

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68Ibid., p. 61.
the condition of heart, lungs, nerves, and general health. An observation should be made of the reaction of the individual occurring after a normal period of rest following unusual exertion, and another physical examination after a number of months of strenuous work to note any possible injury which may have resulted from the athletics.

Close supervision is needed on the part of a woman instructor who knows the physical condition of the girl and who will prevent her from participating in games and competition at times of temporary disability.

Where personal examinations and close supervision are impossible, competitions and sports for girls requiring much endurance would best be omitted, especially at the period of most rapid growth.

Playing of basketball by women's rules is most strongly advocated.

Physical educators did not have the benefit of the support of such a national organization for their athletic programs. However, one thing was clear. The literature of physical education seldom reflected conflicting viewpoints. The supporters of women's athletics did not utilize the forum available to those representing more conservative positions. Indeed, from the beginning of the Women's Athletic Committee "there was a vocal group of women physical educators opposed to intercollegiate athletics for women."  

The basketball committee, meanwhile, was kept occupied

71 Smith, op. cit., p. 25.
throughout the years changing rules in response to the many suggestions they received from concerned parties throughout the country. Major changes included the limitation of guarding to horizontal and vertical planes only, refusing to allow a player who had left the game to return, and awarding an out of bounds ball to an opponent of the player causing it to cross the boundary. In 1918 the rule book was completely revised.

The Committee on Women's Athletics of the American Physical Education Association completely revised the rule book and re-arranged the order of the rules similar to that of the men's rule book. This arrangement was probably to facilitate the use of the rule book by men who were coaching and officiating women's games. The committee seemed never to be content to allow the rules to rest. Readers were constantly urged to share their suggestions for rules changes with the Committee. In order to have the rules accepted by as many groups as possible the committee added a question and answer section to clarify the rules, initiated district representation, and sent questionnaires throughout the country to encourage greater involvement. The nature of the rule guides indicated that the committee's responsibility to its broad clientele included more than annual revisions of the rules.

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73 Ibid., p. 30.
Through the years the committee has had a vision beyond that of the mechanics of rules making. They have attempted to guide the course of the game along sane and safe channels by urging repeatedly that coaches and players keep before them the true ideal of sports — joyous play in a situation where mutual respect of all players prevail.

Articles in rule guides explained how the "true ideal of sports" could be attained. Values of women's basketball were enumerated, women teachers and coaches extolled, and physical examinations were urged.

Research provided more evidence to support the values of physical activity. Generally, the findings favored partic-

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74 Ibid., p. 186.
ipation by women, but often with reservation and usually not in amounts appropriate for boys and men. Luther Gulick cited cultural heritage and instinct as the reasons for the differences between the performances of the sexes in physical activity.clelia Mosher attempted to dispel the myths about menstruation which kept most girls from physical education for three days each month.

This idea of disability and suffering has been so thoroughly inculcated in women that one who is free from pain is almost apologetic and inclined to question whether her sense of well-being at this time is not abnormal.

... it must be admitted that there is no reason for treating this function differently from the other periodic functions such as sleep, digestion, defecation and urination, which likewise have their departures from the normal.

Certain physiological and anatomical differences between the sexes were established. Girls typically were known to have larger trunks, shorter and less muscular legs, more adipose tissue in the hips and thighs, smaller lung capacity, narrower shoulders, less muscular shoulder girdle, lower center of gravity, less ability to support weight with the arms, less ability in speed and jumping games, and lower


metabolism. 83

The impact of social roles was realized and, to some extent, challenged in Leta Stetter Hollingworth's research on sex differences.

It is desirable, for both the enrichment of society and the peace of individuals, that women may find a way to vary from their mode as men do, and yet procreate. Such a course is at present hindered by individual prejudice, poverty, and the enactment of legal measures. But public expectation will slowly change, as the conditions that generate that expectation have already changed, and in another century the solution to this problem will have been found.

Typically, women physical educators accepted and strove to abide by the more common view of woman as homemaker and mother. Relatively few sought to change that role mode.

Harry E. Stewart reported his research on the effects of athletic training and basketball: "... the increased efficiency of the heart is striking." 85 Though he thought the danger of developing "athletic heart" to be as grave for girls as for boys, his conclusion favored athletic training for girls.

When, however, under competent supervision, girls are as gradually and as carefully gotten into condition as is done with men's teams, they can not only stand, but steadily improve


under a considerable amount of hard exercise."\(^{86}\)

At least a realization of the need for evidence to support positions taken regarding the degree of involvement of girls and women in physical activity was emerging. Critics of the existing situation pointed out the deficiencies.

Much has been written and said about injury to health, but we have found no trustworthy studies upon which such statements can be based.\(^{87}\)

The normal physiological status of women, of healthy women engaged in the active pursuits of life, is a subject, strange to say, of which we have hitherto known little or nothing, to which scientific investigation has never been directed: our knowledge has been of pathological conditions, of the sick, for they alone come under the observation of the physician, and the study of numbers sufficient to establish general laws seemed possible only in hospital or dispensary.\(^{88}\)

Of course, the techniques and results of research lacked sophistication by modern comparison.

Most of the conceptions were empirically determined but continued to confuse the issue until they were confirmed or rejected through experiment and research, advancement in medical science and health, and a greater knowledge of human nature.\(^{89}\)

Yet, the need was established and challenges were made to some unfounded assumptions.

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\(^{86}\) Ibid.

\(^{87}\) Dudley and Kellor, op. cit., p. 24.


CONCLUSION

The first two decades of the twentieth century laid a broader foundation for the formal standards statements which came in the next twenty years. The need for standards increased as more teams played more games each season. Women were not willing to have their athletic programs suffer the same problems for which the men's programs were criticized. Still, these problems did arise, partially at least, because there was no central rallying force to help avoid them. In other words, the women did make some of the same mistakes the men had made. There was much criticism but little action by potential women leaders. Programs were developed locally. The only models, and often the only coaches, were the men. Though the suggestions to guide and control women's athletic programs appeared wise in print, too many programs imitated the men's model.

Critics suggested a variety of potential solutions and alternatives. Women were particularly convinced that the athletic program, whether intramural or inter-institution, should be an element of the total physical education program. The masses of students were more important than the highly skilled players who could probably look out for themselves. Athletic competition was not to be a public spectacle for which admission was charged. Furthermore, women were to use rules appropriate for their needs and interests. Yet,
despite the necessity of close controls, the values of physical activity, which often lacked the support of research, were thought to far outweigh the dangers. Not to be overlooked was the fact that the addition of sports to their programs enabled physical educators to claim a closer adherence to the goals of general education.

In response to an increasingly evident need, women physical educators and college students, exerted their efforts toward developing national organizations to deal with the growing problems created by participation in sport. The Women's Athletic Committee of the American Physical Education Association, appointed in 1916, assumed the work of the basketball committee which had been functioning since 1899. The Committee emphasized the enlargement of the vision of its mission, though the basketball committee had never confined its work to the strict publication and revision of rules. Accordingly, the Committee foresaw the guidance of all athletic programs for girls and women as its responsibility.

The Athletic Conference of American College Women, a national forum for women's athletic associations, was created in 1917. One of its first resolutions opposed intercollegiate competition. The Amateur Athletic Union, by registering women swimmers for competitive events, came upon the scene as a potential villain. However, the AAU chose to enter the field of women's athletics when it appeared no other organization was ready or willing to assume a leadership role.
The stage was thus set, the cast of characters nearing completion, as the next act in the development of standards for women's athletics prepared for its debut. The efforts of these twentieth century pioneers were not to have been in vain.
CHAPTER IV

EMERGENCE, COOPERATION, CONFLICT: 1920-1940

INTRODUCTION

As athletic competition for girls and women grew, associated problems were compounded proportionately. Three groups were instrumental in developing women's programs. The Women's Athletic Committee of the American Physical Education Association assumed new responsibilities and included more sports committees. The Amateur Athletic Union recognized a need for more direct measures of control and decided to expand its interests in women's athletics. The most influential of the policy-making groups during this period was the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation which was organized to unite athletic interests for the benefit of those who played. The encounters in conflict and cooperation among these groups and other organizations influenced the extent and nature of competition which existed for girls and women between 1920 and 1940.

Though there were attempts by the women's organizations to distinguish among their services in order that each might serve a unique function, the distinctions did not endure. For example, from the beginning it was evident that the manner in which a game was played was as important to the basketball
subcommittee of the Women's Athletic Committee as were the rules. The Women's Athletic Committee was never exclusively a rules-making body nor did the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation confine its policy interests to non-school groups. Both organizations were inclined to condemn interscholastic and intercollegiate athletic competition before research proved it guilty. On the other hand, the importance of trained leadership was repeatedly emphasized. Conflict, cooperation and merging interests typified these twenty years of high ambition.

Standards for competition were formally compiled during this period. Considering preceding events, nearly all that remained was to condense and formulate existing points of view into a comprehensive whole and to give some group the authority to carry out the policies. The standards were stipulated, but no organization assumed responsibility for this enforcement in schools and colleges. Hence, the standards were recommendations only, a situation which was to impose limitations on their potential effectiveness.

ATHLETIC COMPETITION FOR GIRLS AND WOMEN

The 1920's and 1930's were years of contrast and paradox in women's athletics. Professional physical educators continued their campaign to end intensive athletic competition among high school girls' teams. Their efforts were
rewarded in several states, including Wisconsin.

Interscholastic competition among high school girls of Wisconsin has been banned as detrimental to their morals and physical welfare by the Wisconsin Interscholastic Athletic Association. The association, controlling body of all State high school athletics declared a halt on competition between rival girls' high school teams. After evils accompanying interscholastic competition had been cited, improper chaperoning, lax moral discipline on trips to other cities and the strain of excited competition were declared to be the worst evils.  

California principals decided to ban interscholastic competition except play days among high school girls. According to the decision girls were to be assured of equal facilities, women instructors, and freedom from financial exploitation. 

Oklahoma, Ohio, South Carolina, New Jersey, North Dakota, and Pennsylvania acted to curb or eliminate girls' interscholastic competition also.

The play day, described below by Helen N. Smith and Helen L. Coops of the University of Cincinnati, became the accepted mode of competition for all age groups.

A "Play Day" is the coming together of two or more schools for the athletic activity where competition is based on some arbitrarily chosen division and not on the school-against-school system. ... Teams adopt the names of colors and are known throughout the day as the "reds," "blues," "yellows," etc. In this way there is an equal number from each school on every team.

Several of the undesirable aspects of more intense forms of competition were negated by the play day. There were no audiences, gate receipts, star players, or sensational publicity releases. Many players were involved, social experiences were emphasized, and excitement was controlled. Popular by the mid-twenties, play days persisted into the fifties. Often sport competition made up only a portion of the day's events. Glee clubs, student government members, and various other campus groups met to engage in activities representative of their mutual interests. Typically, though, students from attending institutions were combined on teams which were scheduled to participate in one or more sports during the day.

Play days met the educational goals of athletics that other forms of interscholastic competition purportedly did

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The overall impact of the play day was difficult to determine. Professional literature, predictably inclined to report the progress of the ideals of its members, highlighted play days and was, in addition, "almost wholly devoted to articles on recreation" during the 1920's and through the Depression. Neither rule guides nor newspapers could be relied upon for documentation of athletics for girls and women as they could be for men's athletics.

Other forms of competition persisted despite efforts of physical education and lay leaders to eliminate them. In 1922 American women sailed to Paris for the first involvement of this country in international track competition. The coach was Harry Stewart, who had earlier urged physical education leaders to assume a more open attitude toward athletic competition. The international event was termed a "first long step in feminism" in The New York Times report.

Not only in athletics but in feminism does their sailing set a mark. Before the war women were virtually strangers to the track and field, but in the stress of conflict, particularly in Europe, when womanhood stepped forward to fill jobs left vacant by the departure of men to the battlefront, they participated in games to fit them for their more strenuous duties in industry.

... much trouble was experienced in stimulating sufficient public enthusiasm to get the

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money to send the team abroad, with the result that nearly all the girls are paying their own expenses -- one had to borrow the funds with the promise of repayment when she leaves school -- and some of the entertainment planned for them, must be curtailed.  

Financing athletic programs was a constant problem for the participants in women's competition. As Alfreda Mosscrop of Vassar College explained, many intercollegiate programs did not develop because students were unwilling to spend the money or time required.  

Another New York Times report offered a different perspective on the engagement of women in athletics.

Those somewhat too ambitious women who, not content with recognition of the fact that the sexes are different, insist that by constitutional amendment they shall be declared equal, must feel themselves much aggrieved by the managers of athletics and the awarders of records in that important domain.

For instance, out in Chicago this week there was a contest in indoor high jumping. Both men and women participated in the rivalry, but not against each other -- a truly invidious discrimination. And in a kindness which the equalitarians will be obliged to resent, the rulers of the games recognized as a new world record the achievement of a woman who leaped the bar at 4 feet 11 inches, while a man, to gain the same honor, had to go over one set at 6 feet 6 inches.

Why, it well may be asked, give the woman a glory so dim and the man one so bright? Let her wait till she competes on level terms against all comers. Then her world's record would mean something more than a revelation of physical inferiority.


Certainly it was to be expected that women's emergence in athletics would be associated, even if lightheartedly, with other efforts of the feminists of that period. Perhaps the feminists did have a role, even if incidental.

There were those who hesitated, then went ahead despite the doomsday threats of the opponents of women's athletics. Stanford, California, and Mills, involved in intercollegiate play in earlier periods, found their own solutions.

The interclass and intercollegiate plan of competition between these three institutions was given up several years ago when the Athletic Conference of American College Women, of which all three are members, voted against intercollegiate competition. It was decided, however, by the athletic associations of the three colleges that the values of knowing the women of the other institutions who had like interests, and the fun of playing together should not be given up. Out of this determination has grown Triangular Sports Day - a day on which all three groups meet and play against each other on separate teams.  

The sports days, though more formal than the play day, kept teams intact but otherwise stressed the less intensive aspects of competition. The concept was to endure many years.

Agnes R. Wayman of Barnard College, perhaps subject to a degree of self-delusion, proposed that athletic spectacles could be inoffensive and supportive of desirable competition.  


Awards, too, were considered necessary in order to stimulate and maintain interest. Even scholarships entered the picture. The Women's Athletic Association at the University of Wisconsin offered a one hundred dollar scholarship in 1924. Qualifications were membership in the association, an eighty-three percent scholarship average, and financial need. "The object as we see it is not a reward for high scholarship, but an aid to worthy effort."¹⁷

Field hockey, the persistent exception to emerging athletic standards, grew and flourished despite the efforts to control competition in other sports. College women were encouraged to participate on club teams outside their institutions.

While the various issues were hotly debated by others concerning the values of strenuous sports for girls and women, the United States Field Hockey Association, serenely confident of its position, quietly promoted the game until it was played in almost all colleges and many schools in the country.¹⁸

Those women who sought to standardize competition had a difficult task indeed. Somers' analysis of competition as a concept for women was a prophetic view of the situation: "An experience which is so foreign to a class of people will take several generations to perfect, and to be proved a desirable experience for that group to perpetuate."¹⁹

Basketball suffered the same degrees of support and condemnation as in earlier periods. On the one hand, according to Marjorie Fish in her work on women's basketball, participation was thought to develop "cooperation, sportsmanship, courage, sympathy, courtesy, perseverence, self-control, self-reliance, honesty, loyalty, initiative, and the ideal of continuing although beaten."\(^{20}\) Lou Eastwood Anderson, author of several books on women's sports, praised "the exhilarating psychological effects of piling scores."\(^{21}\) However, Mabel Lee of the University of Nebraska, the first woman president of the American Physical Education Association, found little virtue in interscholastic basketball. She associated a variety of evils with such contests: physical and emotional strain, participation during the menstrual period, rowdyism, neglect of studies and other school activities, unwanted publicity, false values, and professionalism.\(^{22}\) Considering Lee's leadership position in physical education, these were strong accusations.

\(^{20}\) Marjorie Fish, The Theory and Technique of Women's Basketball (New York: D. C. Heath Co., 1929), p. 3

\(^{21}\) Lou Eastwood Anderson, Basketball for Women With Special Reference to the Training of Teachers (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929). p. 72

The state directors of health and physical education resolved to oppose national and state interscholastic basketball tournaments for girls and favored a broad program of physical activities under female leadership. A survey in 1927 demonstrated that forty-three state high school athletic associations did not sponsor state tournaments and that only fourteen associations allowed county or smaller local competition.

Caution was the key for those contemplating the initiation of interschool competition. A firm foundation of intramural play was a necessity before any move to outside competition was thinkable. Even then the program was to be a "slow careful one under the direction of women who have gone 'through the mill' and are thoroughly trained to meet the problems as they arise." William Burdick, who was repeatedly associated with the girls' athletics, explained that competition in Baltimore on an inter-institution basis had been halted. Basketball, in particular, was condemned. Yet, in 1925 thirteen years after it had been banned, basketball competition between high school teams was reinstated.

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From the previous mentioned accounts, one could easily be deluded into the belief that interschool competition did not exist or was under strict control between 1920 and 1940. Of course, the critics had numerous targets for their accusations. Indeed, basketball competition was booming. West Virginia initiated the first state high school basketball tournament for girls in 1919. Interestingly, the tournament, its growth and rule modifications, was described in the rule guide of the Women's Athletic Committee in 1921. National championship tournaments for high school girls' basketball teams were held for three consecutive years, 1924 through 1926. In 1924 Guthrie, Oklahoma, defeated Westfield, New Jersey, in a best of three game series at Westfield. Hempstead, New York, defeated teams from Burlington, Vermont, and Youngstown, Ohio, for the championship in 1925 at Hempstead. In the last tournament Sharon, Pennsylvania, reigned after conquering Youngstown Struthers High School at Youngstown, Ohio. Though the championships did not survive their critics, interscholastic competition did. East Rutherford High School, New Jersey, maintained a seventy-six game winning streak between 1925 and 1931. By 1931 the team was traveling in search of new worlds to conquer:


"Arrangements now are being made for it to meet the Easton High School girls of Pennsylvania on March 12 in a post-season contest at Easton."²⁹

Opportunities to play basketball also existed for girls and women who were not in school. In July, 1924, the Edmonton, Alberta, Commercial Girls Graduates, known commonly as the Edmonton Grads, basketball team won the European and world championships by defeating a Strasbourg team, 37-8. "The Canadian girls played a scientific game. Every attack was featured by a signal play, which rarely went wrong."³⁰ The Grads reigned unchallenged until 1926 when they lost another international series to Newman-Stern Club of Cleveland, Ohio.³¹

The Amateur Athletic Union of the United States (AAU) initiated a national basketball tournament for women in 1926 at Pasadena, California. Six teams competed, playing boys' rules.³² The first women's all-American team was selected in 1929.³³ College teams also competed in AAU tournaments. Presbyterian College for Women of Durant, Oklahoma, won in 1932.³⁴ The Allison, Texas, high school team


³²Ibid., p. 209.

³³Miller and Horky, op. cit., p. 10.

³⁴Weyand, op. cit., p. 211.
gave the Tulsa Stenos a scare in a game in 1938.35

The Oklahoma college team won again in 1933. "The stirring triumph, which kept a crowd of 3,000 in an uproar throughout, was the sixty-second in succession for the Cardinals."36 The Cardinals' record and apparent invincibility earned the team an invitation to represent the United States at the world's championship in London in 1934.

After a baffling but highly entertaining performance, a group of girls from Oklahoma City University today lost a basketball game billed as for the world's championship to a team known as "The Five Little French Girls" and a fat little Frenchman in a Swiss yodeler's outfit.37

The "little Frenchman," the referee, allowed no pivoting, dribbling, talking, or substitutions. From the account, the American girls were baffled but adapted well, even feigning injury to finally gain time out and a substitution.

The AAU tournaments must have been spectacular affairs. In addition to all-American selections there were parades through the streets of the hostess cities, beauty contests, and free throw shooting championships. An account of a championship game provided some sense of the prevailing atmosphere.


Galveston's Anicos tonight captured the women's national A.A.U. basketball championship by defeating the Wichita Thurston in the tournament final, 13 to 8. . . .

As 3,500 fans kept up a continual uproar, the rival sextets battled through one of the roughest and oddest games ever seen in the meet. In the first half Wichita scored only one point. In the second Galveston scored only two points, both on free throws.

 Superior height was the factor which swung the scales in the favor of the Anicos. This edge enabled them to take a 5-to-1 lead in the first period, and 11-to-1 lead at the half and then curb the Thurston's vicious second-half attack. 38

In addition to national and international contests, other forms of basketball competition continued to be quite prevalent. The Aetna Life team of Hartford, Connecticut, organized in 1924, met the best teams from the United States and Canada. Playing men's rules, the team managed to win eighty-two of ninety-six contests and retain the Wilcox Trophy, emblematic of the New England championship from 1927 to 1931. 39 Many eastern college teams played limited, sports day type, schedules. Panzer School, Paterson Normal, East Stroudsburg Day Teachers College, Upsala, Swarthmore, Ursinus, Beaver, New York University, and George Washington were representative of the competing schools. Swarthmore began practice in December, 1928, for a season of seven prospective games. 40

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39 Roach, loc. cit.
Despite the efforts of physical education and lay leaders, then, basketball competition was increasing particularly among club teams. The rules were also changing, causing the game to become more competitive. As early as 1920 critics of the rules claimed that the tallest and most forceful players were often the victors, rather than the quick and skilled. "Basket ball as described in Spalding's Book of Rules is not being played. If it were, it would be an insult to a girl's athletic prowess." 41 The basketball committee of the Women's Athletic Committee invited and weighed such criticisms at annual rule revision meetings. Probably no other game has endured as much tampering.

The committee worked to unite the diverse groups playing the game under its rules. The game changed constantly. "The general trend of basketball ruling is toward a fast, clean game, with the fewest limitations compatible with the best interests of the players and good sportsmanship." 42

The basketball committee's noble intentions for the game

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could not be denied. The committee was aware that the interpretation of the rules was a key to the fulfillment of those intentions.

The Committee pleads again for an interpretation of the rules in the light of the spirit of the rules rather than the mere technical interpretation of them as they stand. Anyone who so desires can undoubtedly find sanction for almost any sort of interpretation. ... Play to win, of course, or competition becomes a farce, but win because the winning team plays faster, more skillful rather than trickier, basketball.43

Again, it can be noted that the basketball committee assumed its purpose to be much more than mere annual rules revision.

The major rules changes between 1920 and 1940 involved the division of underhand and overhand field goals into two-point and one-point categories, allowing tie games to stand, eight minute quarters, permitting substituted players to re-enter the game, guarding in any plane, center throw after a goal, and conversion to the two-court game.44 Though the rules received professional endorsements,45


changes persisted. The basketball committee strove to conciliate a variety of interests in the hope of maintaining a distinctively feminine game. Perhaps the most controversial decisions concerned the one- and two-point field goals and single-plane guarding technique which forced the distinction.

The Committee felt that to alter the guarding rules themselves would lead to rough play and personal fouls. The overhead shot is the most difficult one to guard, and, by minimizing the value of a basket made by this shot, the Committee hopes to better balance offensive and defensive play.46

To Anderson, "The controversies concerning the one- and two-point shots from the field seem absurd and unscientific."47 With the introduction of more liberalized guarding rules in 1932 a new era of basketball began. In light of changes occurring in competitive practices the basketball committee felt it had taken bold steps while preserving the essential purpose and format of the game.

Since a majority of the State Chairmen felt similarly, the Committee felt justified in reading into the Guide changes which to some may seem too radical. The basic principles upon which women's basketball has been built --


avoidance of contact with opponent
and undisputed possession of ball after
it is once secured — still remains intact. 48

Changes in rules solved only part of the problems
generated by basketball competition. The basketball
committee found itself in a paradoxical position in 1921.
Faced with the growth of basketball competition and "the
question of the inadequacy of most officials and coaches
... an effort is being made to establish a nation-wide
board of officials." 49 Without encouraging inter-
institution play, the officiating committee did meet a
definite need. As was the case of the basketball committee,
the officiating group was concerned with more than simply
describing the technical qualifications of an official.
The spirit of the game was equally important. From local
groups the officiating group grew into a national committee.

The Women's National Officials' Rating
Committee has been formed at the request
of local officials' bureaus as a further
step in securing competent, well-trained
officials. This organization neither encourages
interschool competition nor will it solicit


49 Florence D. Alden, "Introduction," Official
Basketball Guide for Women Containing the Revised Rules
games for its members. It recognizes that as long as such competition exists there is a need for accredited officials.\textsuperscript{50}

Needless to say, the AAU posed a threat to the basketball subcommittee of the Women's Athletic Committee. The AAU group did not find the women's rules adequate nor did they wish to use boys' rules. Consequently, a compromise was proposed. Eline von Borries, chairman of the WAC basketball committee, wrote to Mabel Lee, president of the parent American Physical Education Association, setting the stage for a continual battle that was to last for years.

Perhaps we are being ultra-conservative but our emphasis is so entirely different, that I believe we must stick to our guns...\textsuperscript{51}

I am convinced that we should not change radically as our rules are to safeguard health, particularly of adolescents...\textsuperscript{51}

I don't suppose you would even want us to have someone officially representing the A.A.U. on our rules committee, would you?\textsuperscript{51}

Miss Lee grossly misjudged the seriousness of the AAU position and the lasting consequences of her response.


\textsuperscript{51}Letter from Eline von Borries, Chairman of the Basketball Committee, to Mabel Lee, President of the American Physical Education Association, May 8, 1931 (in Archives of Division for Girls and Women's Sports, Washington, D. C.).
The more I think about it the more I am convinced that they are trying to bluff us out. If they do not like our rules and have been dissatisfied for some time, why haven't they gone ahead before this and published their own set of rules that would give them satisfaction? . . . we do not need them to be allied with us to give us respectability.

Why should we sacrifice our professional ideals in order to keep friendly with an organization that openly admits that it does not subscribe to our ideals? If the time has come to fight then I say, LET US FIGHT! I doubt if we will ever gain anything by compromising with them.52

The change in guarding rules noted earlier and the decision to give all field goals a two-point value came soon after this exchange, but too late to forestall the conflict with AAU which was to continue until a joint rules committee was finally established decades later.

In 1936 experimental rules designed particularly for AAU play were included in the Women's Athletic Committee rule book.53 The rules foretold of changes to come.

These rules were drawn up with the idea of providing for the highly skilled and experienced player, an opportunity to develop a little faster game by extending her territory and privileges somewhat. It is hoped that these rules will be tried by such teams, particularly in

52Letter from Mabel Lee, President of the American Physical Education Association, to Eline von Borries, Chairman of the Basketball Committee, May 13, 1931 (in Archives of Division for Girls and Women's Sports, Washington, D. C.).

recreational, industrial and independent leagues, and that a report will be made to this Committee as to the results, favorable, or unfavorable. 53

However, in 1937 the experimental rules were removed from the rule guide.

There is reported an increase in the use of girls' rules, twenty-eight states reporting a decrease in the use of boys' rules and ten states reporting no use of boys' rules. Since only two states reported the use of the Experimental rules, with one of these requesting that they be discontinued, the Rules Committee decided not to continue to publish them in the Guide. The use of boys' rules to any extent, by both school and independent teams, is found in only a few states. 55

Again, in 1938 the basketball committee reaffirmed its intention to write basketball rules for the superior player. The main rule change of the year was the decision to make the two-court version the official game.

Thus, probably in much the same spirit as in 1932, when considerable concessions were made regarding the Basketball rules in order to encourage other organizations to use the


rules of the N.S.W.A., the Rules and Editorial Committee again was seemingly striving for good relationships with the Amateur Athletic Union and other groups which were promoting girls' sports.\(^5^6\)

Basketball for women had indeed changed between 1920 and 1940. Yet the irony continued.

At about the time when this faster, more interesting game was becoming popular, there was a decided movement for the elimination, or at least deemphasis, of interschool competition for girls and women. This attitude about competition in general was largely a result of basketball as it was played between schools. As we look back most of us realize that it was the circumstances surrounding basketball which caused this attitude.\(^5^7\)

The women's rules' committee had accurately foreseen that its work included more than the task of rules-making. However, when admonitions and positive thinking failed, efforts to eliminate basketball competition could be the only predictable consequence.


RESEARCH AND MEDICAL OPINION CONCERNING
ATHLETICS FOR WOMEN

Survey and questionnaire techniques became favorite research techniques among those seeking to establish the status of athletic competition among girls and women. Lee sent a questionnaire to directors of departments of physical education for women, first reported in 1924 and repeated in 1931. In 1924 she found twenty-two percent of the colleges in the study participated in intercollegiate athletics and twelve percent participated in 1931. By 1931 more directors approved intercollegiate athletics though they were not terribly vocal in announcing their position. "Those who are 'for' seem quite content to cast their vote 'for' with few remarks while a great many of those who are 'against' seem eager to seize the opportunity 'to speak out in meeting' for their side." It might be suggested that this observation was appropriate for professional literature as well.


60 Ibid., p. 126
Research designed to test the validity of assumptions concerning women's athletics continued to be meager during the 1920's. Those, such as Alice Frymir of Battle Creek College in Michigan, whose words reached print urged caution rather than action when evidence did not give specific guidance.

For the reason that there has not been any definite physiological data available other than a consensus of opinion, which has been based on observation rather than facts, concerning the effects of strenuous activity on the menstrual period, is it not wise to be on the safe side, which, at least, will build and not harm? 61

E. H. Arnold, M.D. and former president of the American Physical Education Association, flatly stated that athletics were harmful. "Competitive organized games must be said to have influence unfavorable to the function of menstruation and therefore upon fertility." 62 Fish worried that "the girl who tries to 'put something over' an official in basket ball and succeeds, is establishing a neural circuit which will make it easier for her to apply the same principles


to her work. At the annual meeting of the Executive Committee of WAC in 1927 Ethel Perrin stated:

... there was a definite need at the present time for research work in basket ball, that a history of the girls who have participated in the game throughout their high school career be secured, and that their health status and child bearing ability be carefully studied.

No longitudinal studies of the type suggested had been attempted.

Other researchers and analysts set out to refute conventional viewpoints. Willystine Goodsell, noted writer on women's education, supported the efforts of women in physical education.

The positions taken by Dr. G. Stanley Hall and numerous other writers appear to be grounded far more upon opinion than upon experimental evidence. More specifically, their claims that the male is the agent of variation and progress, that physiological differences are paralleled by mental sex differences, and that the health of young women, especially during functional periodicity, is adversely affected by a college course, have by no means been established. On the contrary, such scientific evidence as exists rather undermines than supports such positions.

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The validity of recommendations advocating abstention from physical activity, especially during the first three days of the menstrual period, was questioned by noted researchers.

It seems evident, then, that our main task in the physical training of women is to set our girls free from the hampering effects of lingering traditions, to create ideals of health, to form habits of exercise which shall carry over into those years beyond the college games, and to develop in all perfection the physical possibilities of women, as workers, wives, mothers.

It would appear, therefore, that it is time that we recognize the so-called periodic inefficiency in normal women as a delusion to be discarded in the light of scientific health education.

All the evidence goes to refute the idea that energetic continuous exercise is bad for the normal woman at anytime, and the gymnastic teacher, who expects her pupils to refrain from their usual activities during their periods, is incurring a grave responsibility, because she is, by suggestion, bringing about the ill-health she is endeavoring to avoid.

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Not only does it seem physiologically normal to continue exercise during menstruation, but large scale experience with this policy as a mode of conduct for adolescent and young adult women has demonstrated it to be an intelligent prophylactic.  

Insightfully, Fish questioned the consistency of practices in women's athletics.

I wonder if we have not been emphasizing without scientific evidence the fact that the two-court game is too strenuous for the average high school girl if played on a large court. We permit and advocate hockey, soccer, and speedball for girls of this age, and these games require the girl to cover 85 yards and the actual playing time . . . is usually longer, 40 minutes as against 32 minutes (maximum).  

Thus, it was no wonder that in 1939 at the end of another twenty years of questioning, assuming, experimenting, and criticizing echoes of earlier conclusions could be heard: "There is relatively little in the vast and rapidly growing literature on the physiology of exercise which will specifically answer questions concerning the fitness of women for participation in competitive athletics."  

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70 Marjorie E. Fish, "Basketball: Essential Differences Between the Two-Court and the Three-Court Game for Girls of Different Age Levels," Research Quarterly, IX (December, 1938), p. 73.

71 Hellebrandt and Meyer, op. cit., p. 10.
ORGANIZATIONS TO GUIDE AND CONTROL
GIRLS AND WOMEN'S ATHLETICS

As participation in basketball and other athletic
activities increased and research generally supported more
rather than less involvement, organizations designed to
abet and control athletics also increased in number. In
1922 the National Federation of State High School Athletic
Associations (NFSHSAA) was founded. Though the NFSHSAA
was founded to control high school athletics for boys, as
time passed the Women's Athletic Committee of the American
Physical Education Association gradually conceded control
of girls' interscholastic athletics to the NFSHSAA. Girls'
groups were advised to join state athletic associations or
to serve in advisory capacities. Though many frustrating
delays were endured, eventually women did have their say
in many state groups.

The Illinois League of High School Girls' Athletic
Associations served as a model for many other state organi-
izations. The League was obviously designed to serve the
masses of students. Specifically, its purposes included the
following:

(1) To prevent interschool contests; (2) to investigate the point system of each
school; (3) to consider each individual
case in which the specified number of points for a league or emblem has been earned; (4) to decide the matter of transferring points from one school to another when a girl changes schools.  

Reacting to the prevalence of basketball among high school girls, leaders in Oregon established a point system for students which emphasized varied programs, stimulation of the average performer in an intramural program, and "the advantage of varied achievement even though of an average quality over extreme proficiency in just one activity." North Carolina joined the pattern with its Athletic Association of North Carolina High-School Girls in 1923. "Through the organization it has been possible for the leaders to study, to guide, and perhaps to control the athletic policy of most of the North Carolina high schools." Though the major national women's organizations never lost interest in the problems of high school girls' athletics, and would certainly never admit diminishing concern, a case nonetheless could be made for such an eventual diversion of attention. No small part of the cause could be traced to the predominantly college-related and/or lay leader-


ship of the organizations. However, the existence of state athletic or activities associations must have been the most significant reason.

College directors of physical education for women joined to form the Association of Directors of Physical Education for Women in Colleges and Universities in 1924. Athletics was but one of the interests of the Directors. The group took a strong stand against the involvement of American women in the Olympics in 1929. The Directors generally joined other women's organizations in opposition to intensive forms of athletic competition.

The Athletic Conference of American College Women (ACACW) continued its growth. At its 1921 conference at Indiana University representatives from Ohio State University and Oberlin College held a basketball debate. The assembled members voted to support Spalding's rules for women. In 1924 at a conference in California, ACACW took a definite stand.

against varsity competition. Telegraphic meets, involving a comparison of scores, became the approved form of competition. This resolve was reinforced in 1930.

At the 6th National Conference of A.C.A.C.W. held at the University of Michigan April 24-26, 1930, 117 colleges were represented at the meeting. The problem of intercollegiate sports was one of the many discussed on the program. Inspect of the fact that there was a feeling that intercollegiate competition is gaining in favor, the conference as a whole renewed its former pledges against such competition and passed the resolution that "A.C.A.C.W. oppose all intercollegiate competition, meaning competition in which whole teams from one college compete against whole teams from another college." The organization came out in favor of sponsoring Play Days for both colleges and high schools and in its platform asks that all colleges emphasize mass participation in sports through intramural programs and Sports Days. Notable among its resolutions is the one stating "That A.C.A.C.W. oppose participation in the Olympics by all women."

The New York Times reported that the western district of ACACW had taken an opposite position in 1929, favoring Olympic participation. Quite possibly members were looking forward to the Los Angeles Olympic Games in 1932. In 1933

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80 Lee, op. cit., p. 108.

the name of the national organization became the Athletic Federation of College Women (AFCW). By 1936 a definite platform had evolved.

The function of the federation is to align the Women's Athletic Association with the Department of Physical Education and other service departments of the college in the all-around development of college life. The efforts of the Federation are devoted to those activities which may be sponsored by the Women's Athletic Association, and which open to the student opportunity for useful recreational pursuits, and the development of outdoor hobbies.  

By 1936 AFCW "resolved that intercollegiate relations are desirable when emphasis is placed upon social contacts and enjoyment of the activity."  

Three remaining organizations exerted the greatest influence on women's athletics between 1920 and 1940. The Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) committed itself to the sponsorship of women's athletics, including Olympic participation. The Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation was born in response to the problems arising in women's athletics, particularly the actions of the AAU, and the need for unity among the various groups with interests in those athletic programs. Meanwhile, the Women's Athletic Committee

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persisted in its efforts to guide and control women's pro-
grams, particularly those associated with physical education
schools and colleges.

The decision of the Amateur Athletic Union to govern
women's athletics was not made in haste. Instead the move
was studied by a special committee. Track and field
interests initiated the action.

Track and field sports in this country will
be recognized and supervised by the Amateur
Athletic Union within a year or two, William C.
Prout, President of the A.A.U., said today.
Events for women in track and field undoubtedly
will be included in the 1928 Olympic Games,
he added. Officials of the A.A.U. have been
approached recently in the interest of women
in sports by directors of the Women's Track
Committee, and plans for making the latter a
body subsidiary to the A.A.U. are now under
consideration.

The study committee was chaired by William Burdick,
former president of the American Physical Education
Association, cited earlier for his active interest in
women's athletics. Harry Stewart, noted for his enduring
efforts to liberate women's athletics, was also a member
of the AAU study committee. Three women were included in
deliberations. The committee's recommendation was to be
taken by President Prout to the fall meeting of the AAU.

84 "Women's Track Sports May Come Under A.A.U.
col. 4.
The Amateur Athletic Union, and not a special women's organization, will in all probability standardize and control women's track and field athletics, as the result of a meeting held yesterday at the Hotel McAlpin, in this city.

As President Prout put it, the A.A.U. would be glad to take women's track and field athletics under its wing, as it had swimming for women, but that it must first have a warrant for presuming to do so.

Resolved: That the Board of Governors of the A.A.U. be requested to provide for competitions for women, and that they cooperate with women's athletic organizations, and consult with medical authorities, with a view to the standardization of events for women.

The A.A.U. took over the control of women's swimming in 1914, and if it decides to take control also of field and track athletics for women, drafting suitable rules and preparing schedules, women's athletics will be practically in the hands of the national body since, with the exception of basketball, women and girls athletics do not, in the main, go in for sports outside of swimming and track and field pastimes, and golf and tennis, which latter are under the control of special organizations.

William S. Haddock presented the motion for approval at the November, 1922, AAU meeting.

I move that the Amateur Athletic Union control all open competition in athletic events conducted for girls and women in sports now controlled and supervised by

the Amateur Athletic Union and a committee be appointed to further and advance same. The delegates approved the motion.86

The Women's Athletic Committee of the American Physical Education Association reacted to the AAU action at its December, 1922, meeting.

It was reported that the Amateur Athletic Union had appointed a committee, with Dr. Burdick as chairman, to investigate the problems of women's athletics. The committee presented its report, with a divided vote of five to five. Dr. Burdick and a number of association leaders recommended that the A.A.U. refrain from taking over the women's athletics, leaving the matter for further study for the Women's Athletic Committee of the American Physical Education Association. The Amateur Athletic Union decided to go ahead without consultation. They are asking a number of the leading women to go on an advisory committee of their own. A number of the leaders at the meeting felt such a policy was undesirable, where they had already refused to cooperate.87

Though there was some sentiment to accept positions in the AAU, "Miss Trilling, Miss Burchenal, and others thought that the committee should show its disapproval of their present methods of organization by withdrawing from the committees, or refusing to serve."88

88 Ibid., p. 69.
The physical educators undoubtedly questioned the wisdom of such practices as the selection of a former athlete to coach the 1928 women's Olympic track contingent. However, they must also have taken some consolation from the sanctioning standards stipulated by the Metropolitan AAU Committee on Women's Track and Field Athletics. Criteria for Metropolitan meets included suitable fields, appropriate equipment, and strict eligibility rules.

As described previously, after the initiation of a national basketball tournament for women in 1926, the AAU group became dissatisfied with women's basketball rules published by Spalding. That displeasure was explained in a letter from J. Lyman Bingham of the AAU to George T. Hepbron of the American Physical Education Association, dated May 1, 1931.

At the Dallas tournament in March of this year, I called a meeting of some of the coaches and officials for a discussion of the rules as they are now written. It was the unanimous opinion of this group that the present rules are not satisfactory and they did not wish their teams to play under the present boys' rules. It was therefore the consensus of this committee that they petition the A.A.U. to provide a separate rules committee.

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for girls and publish a new set of rules which would contain the best features of the present girls' rules together with some of the features of the present boys' rules....

At the present time, the American Physical Education Association by its present rules is forcing thousands of teams to play the boy's game which is admittedly too strenuous. These teams claim that the present girls' game is too effeminate. ....

... I am sure that we should be very glad to cooperate with the American Physical Education Association if they would consent to the formation of a joint rules committee.91

The preferred rules included the two-division court, six players, retention of the single dribble, elimination of the one-point shot, and the type of guarding permitted by the boys' rules. The American Physical Education Association's Women's Athletic Committee rejected AAU overtures. For years the two organizations were to remain at odds.

For forty-some years, beginning in 1922, shortly after the AAU officially asserted its authority over all open competition in athletic events conducted for women, these two organizations conducted a continuing feud based primarily upon professional jealousies, although both groups rationalized the cause as being one of "philosophical

differences." Whatever the reasons, the result not only prevented any practical consideration of rules standardization, but of much greater consequences, severely curtailed the overall sports participation of several generations of American girls.92

The Women's Athletic Committee (WAC) of the American Physical Education Association (APEA) offered explanations for their seeming obstinence in resolutions approved in 1922 and 1929. In 1922 the WAC reacted to the involvement of women in the international track and field meet in Paris and the AAU which promoted the trip.

Since the Women's Committee on Athletics of the American Physical Education Association is convinced that the American Physical Education Association is the only logical organization to direct the policies in Women's Athletics, they go on record as disapproving of any affiliation with the Amateur Athletic Union with relation to athletics for women.

The Committee on Athletics for Women appointed by the American Physical Education Association, representing the entire country, feel very strongly against participation by American women in the field and track meet in Paris to be held during August, 1922. We feel that field and track for women is in its infancy in this country, and that it is so little organized, that no team can be properly chosen as representative of the United States.93


In 1929 the organization took an official stand against participation in the Olympics by women.

Resolved, that the Section on Women's Athletics of the American Physical Education Association, which is interested in the adaptation of athletic activities to the varied types of interest and ability of all girls and women, and encouraging participation in the activities suited to the individual needs, go on record as being opposed to girls and women entering the Olympic Games, and

Resolved, that unless and until scientific research established the fact that formal contests in any type of athletic event are beneficial or at least not detrimental to the health and character of the girls and women participating, the Section on Women's Athletics of the American Physical Education Association is opposed to the entering of girls and women in such formal spectator athletic contests.94

The WAC was, even as these resolutions were formulated, experiencing its own identity crisis in the middle years of the 1920-1940 period. It was the action of the AAU in sponsoring women's Olympic participation which, according to von Borries, spurred the WAC to seek to change its status in the American Physical Education Association. "It seemed evident that a committee type of organization was inadequate to act for women interested in athletics on a national basis."95 In a series of political maneuvers


95 Eline von Borries, The History and Function of the National Section on Women's Athletics (n.p., 1941), pp. 9-10.
the Women's Athletic Committee finally became the National
Section on Women's Athletics (NSWA) in April, 1932.\footnote{Mabel Lee, "Foreword to History of the Organization of National Section on Women's Athletics" (unpublished paper in the Archives of Division for Girls and Women's Sports, Washington, D. C., December, 1957), p. 15.} Real-
ization of status as a section "meant that the particular and
unique function of the committee, that of making and revising
rules and publishing Guides for various athletic activities,
was safeguarded by a guarantee of stability in policy and
the assurance of the work being kept in the hands of experts."\footnote{von Borries, History and Function, op. cit., p. 12}

The basketball committee was one of the increasing
number of sports committees which continued to function
under the Rules and Editorial Committee of NSWA. The
basketball group was subjected to constant challenges to its
rules. Answering inquiries, standing firm against the chall­
enge of the AAU rules, and constantly revising existing rules,
the committee worked tirelessly. Its chief problem remained
constant. Rules were originally formulated at a time when
women were thought to be quite weak and unable to participate
in sustained activity. "As concepts of women's stamina
changed, the Basketball Committee was hard-pressed to keep
pace with adjustments in the rules."\footnote{Paulajean Searcy, "The History, Organization, and Function of the Division for Girls and Women's Sports, 1940-
occurred in 1939 when the Rules and Editorial Committee decided to formulate rules for the highly skilled player. "The policy is adopted partly to overcome objections by players who are now using A.A.U. rules, and partly because it is felt that mediocre players might benefit by playing under rules which favor skillful play."99

Among its many functions, the WAC never doubted that standards for sport participation was a major one.100 Sports committees were chiefly responsible for rules, but "it was necessary for years that these committees undertake general publicity also concerning standards and the content of athletic programs."101 In 1929 the WAC offered a five hundred dollar graduate research scholarship at Wellesley College to be used to study "physiological effects of different types of competition, and should result in a thesis or publication for the benefit of those interested."102 In 1932 a "Monograph on Athletics for Girls and Women"


101von Borries, History and Function, op. cit., p. 8

appeared in the *Research Quarterly*. Contemporary problems in girls and women's athletics, health and leadership considerations, desirable types of competition, point systems and awards, publicity, needed research, and standards for an athletic program were discussed in the lengthy piece.\(^{103}\) The work of WAC and NSWA was carried out through state representatives and a number of committees. State representation had originated with the Basketball Committee in 1922 and, gradually, those representatives assumed more functions until by 1936 they were appointed by and served the interests of the NSWA. The selection of state representatives illustrated, again, the subtle way that the organization was dominated by college-level membership. Illustrative of this point was the request made by Elinor M. Schroeder, NSWA Chairman in 1937, of Mabel Lee to assist in finding a Nebraska representative. Because of the flexibility in their schedules, college teachers were preferred. "Public school teachers are very welcome, but frequently they have such heavy schedules they can do nothing but the daily job."\(^{104}\)

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The WAC and NSWA operated under several handicapping circumstances. The budget was minimal. In fact, to accomplish their tasks the women must have expended considerable sums from personal funds. There was no permanent office staff, forcing committee members to find clerical assistance at their own institutions. Most formidable of all was the fact that the organization was totally dependent upon volunteers for its existence. Women had fulltime jobs and added the burdens of national office to those responsibilities. Without doubt this circumstance worked to limit the attainment of the lofty goals set by the membership. Compound the voluntary work force by the realization that WAC and NSWA had neither the control nor legislative power to govern practices in women's athletics and one is left to marvel at the achievements that were accomplished. One of the most noteworthy accomplishments was the publication of a monograph which established standards for women's competition, thus ending an era where interschool competition had been rigidly opposed by professional women physical educators.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF STANDARDS FOR COMPETITION

In 1922 another organization to guide and control athletics was born. The National Amateur Athletic Federation (NAAP) was created to unite not antagonize, existing athletic organizations. The NAAP set lofty purposes:

... to improve and place wholesome physical activities within the reach of all; study the best methods of furthering the development of the physical, social and moral well-being of all classes of individuals through participation in wholesome physical activities; educate its constituency in particular and the public in general regarding the functions and value of physical activities when properly conducted; adopt, formulate and publish principles, standards and rules governing the games and events included in the activities to be promoted; administer such forms of amateur athletics as may be agreed upon from time to time through its constituent organizations, or as a federation, and to promote and stimulate State, sectional and national championships.

Mrs. Herbert Hoover, a vice-president of the new Federation, suggested that a separate group for girls and women be established. Accordingly, a Conference on Athletics and Physical Education for Girls and Women was convened at the National Museum in Washington, D. C., on April 6 and 7, 1923. "It was a massing of forces related to play recreation

and focusing upon great national needs and national issues. The Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation accepted both group and individual memberships. An office, run by Lillian Schoedler, executive secretary, was opened in New York City. The aims of the Women's Division were "(1) the encouragement of sports and games for everyone, and (2) the establishment of standards, principles, and ideals for girls' athletic programs that will insure the wise choice and direction of all games." The purposes were made known through local workshops, publications, and state committees. However, the resolutions adapted at the 1923 meeting, formalized into a platform in 1924, and readopted in 1931 were the most widely recognized results of all the efforts of the Women's Division. The resolutions were the culmination of years of experience, observation, and analysis by women associated with athletics. They have been acknowledged as the first formal standards for girls and women's athletics.

The resolutions, stressing "play for play's sake," were to influence noncompetitive as well as competitive athletics. Commercialization and exploitation were to be

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108 Ibid., p. 10.
eliminated in favor of universal play opportunities under the leadership of competent women teachers, coaches, and administrators. The resolutions favored research to establish the effects of physical activity on the participants. Symbolic awards, appropriate costumes, planned publicity, and medical examinations were important factors in the achievement of the goals of enjoyment, sportsmanship, and good citizenship. Conferees urged that any international competition be under the control of a committee from its own membership. Health and physical education information was to be included in the training of elementary and secondary teachers, volunteers, and physical educators and recreation supervisors.  

At its 1925 conference the Women's Division urged the elimination of gate receipts and sought to discourage championship tournaments. Commercialism and exploitation, ugly words to the Women's Division, were strongly condemned. Lillian Schoedler, executive secretary of the Women's Division, advocated the "abolition of intercollegiate and interschool contests." The New York Times asked editorially why the women's viewpoint was not equally applicable to boys' athletics. Speaking for the Women's

109 Ibid., pp. 77-79.
112 Ibid.
Division, Mabel Lee attacked men's clubs for commercializing women's athletics. She recommended athletics for the masses of participants, protection of players from exploitation for the benefit of spectators, minimizing emphasis on championships, guarding health, and selection of appropriate costumes.  

Perhaps the greatest battle waged by the Women's Division was against women's participation in the Olympic games. At the opening session of the fifth annual conference in 1929 opposition to the Olympic Games among delegates present was obvious. Specialization, intensive training, and attention to the few violated the women's platform stand. Several alternatives to outright opposition were offered. Particularly because the 1932 Games were to be held in Los Angeles, Helen Bunting of Stanford University wanted to become involved in the planning and execution of the events. The prevailing feeling, though, opposed women's participation.  

In response to these sentiments it was reported:


Olympic and A.A.U. leaders expressed opinions yesterday that opposition by the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation to participation of women athletes in the 1932 Olympic Games would have no effect on the games and that this branch of the games would be held as scheduled. 115

Daniel J. Ferris, secretary-treasurer of the American Olympic Committee, bluntly stated the decision to persist. "They did not give us any assistance in the past and perhaps we can't expect it this year. They have no control over anybody. The United States will be represented as it always is." 116

At the last meeting of the Women's Division convention in 1929 the organization voted officially, 54-11, to oppose participation of women in the Olympic Games of 1932.

As a substitute for women participating actively in the Olympics, the delegates adopted a resolution suggesting the staging of a festival which might include dancing, music, singing, mass sports and conferences. This would be run simultaneously with the Olympics, but conducted entirely by the Women's Division of the N.A.A.F. 117

Though apparently tilting windmills, the Women's Division did provoke a reaction. After the American delegates to the International Amateur Athletic Federation threatened to withdraw its male athletes from the Olympic Games in 1932 if


116 Ibid.

women did not participate, the International Olympic Committee voted to make no changes in its events for women.¹¹⁸

The Women's Division endorsed the play day as the most desirable form of competition. Occasional, informal contests between two schools were, however, acceptable. The group realized that intramurals might harbor the same dangers that intensive competition bred.¹¹⁹ Despite the approval of competition cited in these statements the Women's Division gained a reputation as an organization standing in opposition to all forms of women's athletic competition. Conference speakers often left reporters feeling competition was evil.

Condemning intercollegiate competition athletics for women, speakers at a meeting of the women's division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation urged, instead, a constructive intramural program to avoid the pitfalls into which they said men's athletics had fallen.¹²⁰

This difference between what speakers often said and what the organization believed was never overcome.


Endorsements of the platform of the Women's Division came from numerous and varied sources. In 1925 the National Association of Secondary-School Principals decided to exert its influence against interscholastic competition for girls. The National Council of Catholic Women voted its approval of the platform in 1925 also. Two hundred delegates in conference at the University of Cincinnati, considering problems in girls' athletics, chose to champion the Women's Division platform for guidance in seeking solutions. The organization of directors of college physical education for women supported the platform until the directors chose to formulate their own viewpoint. Public school principals resolved "that the platform of the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation of America be adopted by California."

In St. Louis lay support of the platform was used to exert pressure on political powers to curb practices in municipal

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basketball leagues for girls. 126

Just as the Women's Division received much support, so was it criticized. The vote against participation in the 1932 Olympics drew opposition from two noted physical educators, Jesse F. Williams and William L. Hughes.

This is probably against the majority judgement of teachers and directors in the field. There are good reasons why women but not high school girls should participate in tennis, in golf, in swimming, in skating, and in dancing; and good reasons why they should not enter the lists in track and field events. In their complete opposition to the participation of women athletes in the 1932 Olympics the N.A.A.F. may have missed the opportunity to give leadership to the proper kind and amount of athletics for women. 127

Cognizant of the steady growth of athletic competition among women, yet aware, too, of the successes of the Women's Division, Gladys Palmer of the Ohio State University offered an interesting retrospective analysis in 1938.

Not detracting in any way from the excellent service rendered by the Women's Division, I venture to suggest that they might have become a more powerful factor in the conduct of all sports competition for women had they not, from their inception, taken a stand against state, national, and international competition in any form. Had they set up an additional platform and lent their guidance in this area we would perhaps have no problem of policy at this time. Since 1923 there has been a greater increase


in organized state, national, and international events than ever before. This has been due, in part, to the very platform which calls for "every girl in a game and a game for every girl." 128

In summing up the work of the Women's Division, Agnes Wayman of Barnard College noted many successes.

State girls' basketball tournaments have been abandoned, intramural programs organized, health supervision furnished or improved, commercialization of girls' games stopped or checked, exploitation prevented, the average everyday girl given a better chance to play -- and this is only a small part of what has been accomplished in localities through the efforts and influence of the Women's Division. 129

Though the impact was frequently delayed, the Women's Division had clearly accomplished a great deal.

In June, 1940, the Women's Division merged with the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. The merger was not as simple as some sources would lead one to believe. The Women's Division had coexisted with the APEA's Women's Athletic Committee and its successor, the National Section on Women's Athletics. Memberships were held in both organizations by many women. Eventually the work of both groups overlapped and duplications occurred.


Before the Women's Division was organized the WAC had decided to cooperate with the National Amateur Athletic Federation. Blanche Trilling was appointed to represent the American Physical Education Association on the Board of Governors. In 1927 the Executive Committee of WAC reported exploring possible working relationships with the Women's Division (WD) including a joint headquarters, pooled stenographic assistance and cooperation between the rules (WAC) and policies (WD) functions of the two groups. In 1929 the two organizations exchanged memberships on their executive committees. Tensions between the two groups increased when the NSWA committee on standards, appointed in 1933, published its own set of standards for sports programs in 1937. The Women's Division expressed concern about the liberal position of NSWA regarding athletic competition. Perhaps the differences between the organizations were best illustrated in excerpts from an exchange of letters between Mabel Lee and the NSWA chairman in 1937, Elinor M. Schroeder. Lee opened the correspondence referring to NSWA.


... I think of the above group as the school group and of the NAAF outer fringe as the girl club group -- Scouts, Campfire Girls, Girl Reserves, athletic associations, recreation centers, industrial groups, Olympic committees, Y.W.C.A.s, all types of groups beyond the school that touch girls and women in their athletic interests. Also from the very first we have accepted NAAF as the standard setting body for women's athletics and Woman Athletic Section as the rules making body. These two distinct functions should be kept distinct.

Schroeder's lengthy response defended NSWA's overt movement into the policies and standards area. It should be kept in mind that NSWA and WAC had long been involved in the development and encouragement of high standards in women's athletics.

I am interested in your statement that the NAAF should be the standard setting body and that the NSWA should be the rules making body, and that these two functions should be kept distinct. While I subscribe to the principle that the NAAF and the NSWA should not duplicate or overlap, in the case of standards and principles I feel that the Section should have the privilege of making statements. These two organizations duplicate very little in so far as services and studies are concerned, and that is right and proper. On the other hand, the Section has long felt the need for a statement of standards for athletics and for an interpretation of means by which these standards may be put into effect.

We cannot very well see how principles and standards can be put into a pigeonhole. They are part and parcel of everything we do -- our whole large program is based upon principles, exemplifies them (we hope!), and

133 Letter from Mabel Lee to Elinor M. Schroeder, March 5, 1937 (in Archives of Division for Girls and Women's Sports, Washington, D. C.).
promotes higher standards in actual practice. The leaders and "prophets" of our profession have made many statements of principles and standards for our guidance regardless of whether we are NAAF or NSWA, and antedating both organizations.

If the NSWA can re-state standards and principles and suggest means by which these may be translated into desirable practices, it is making a contribution to the central goal of the profession as a whole. The NAAF should construe this contribution as a "boost" toward its own goals, not as a raid upon its private preserves, for after all we are all dedicated to the same "cause." We should be interested in the outcome -- not in the instrument.

The Section's statements are not new or original -- in the sense of their derivation or underlying ideas. They comprise sound educational theories and principles stated and interpreted in regard to the field of athletics for girls and women. They are a statement of our beliefs as exemplified during years of work in our field of helping leaders of girls organize and guide activities more wisely and for the benefit of the participant. We operate on the basis of these standards, therefore we state them. We are going a step farther in suggesting means by which these standards may be put into effect, we are interpreting each standard and telling what it means and how the program should be organized if it is to conform to sound principles.

As I see it, what we need is not so much "new" standards or more standards but to make effective those which have been aptly stated by the great leaders of our profession as well as by educators in general fields. The Section's program is dedicated to that goal, and in stating standards and interpretations thereof it is simply stating philosophy upon which it has operated for years.134

It was no surprise, then, that Anne Hodgkins, vice-chairman of the Women's Division, approached the executive secretary of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation (AAHPER), successor to the American Physical Education Association, N. P. Neilson regarding a merger of the Women's Division and AAHPER, not NSWA, in December, 1938. The Women's Division realized that it could no longer maintain its position financially. Neilson proposed a joint committee of Women's Division, NSWA, and AAHPER representatives. The committee met and explored the possibility of retaining the Women's Division function in a sub-committee on standards of AAHPER. Group memberships and dues were to continue. Amy Howland was NSWA's lone representative at the meeting. In a letter to Jane Shurmer, NSWA Chairman, she described the circumstances.

It was like taking a leap in the dark -- going to that meeting on Friday for I had no inkling of what previous moves the NAAF had made with Neilson, but I suspected that finances was the cause behind the move and I was quite correct in that surmise. Perhaps you know that I served on the NAAF Executive Committee for two years -- resigned then rather than serve my third year for I was fed up with a number of things -- but I did know a good deal about their financial situation over

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a period of years as I served in the chairman's place [sic] for four months -- also I know that they have been on the rocks financially several times.¹³⁷

Howland reported her response to the sub-committee on standards proposal. "The gist of what I said was that I didn't [sic] believe that the AAHPER officers would or could bring in an outside group and say to one of its sections 'here is the group that will make your standards for you.'"¹³⁸ Finally, after hours of meeting the goal of the Women's Division in the merger was clear.

• • • the only thing they would absolutely hold out on was the assurance from AAHPER that their work of the past would not be lost and that publicizing Standards for Girls and Women's Athletics would go on, and that people (Groups) who wanted to would still have the opportunity to pay for the privilege if they wanted . . . .¹³⁹

The Women's Division rejected the proposals formulated by the joint committee. Referring particularly to NSWA's position on interschool competition, the Women's Division suggested that "N.S.W.A. should re-define their standards and submit same to N.A.A.F. for its endorsement."¹⁴⁰ From


¹³⁸ Ibid.

¹³⁹ Ibid.

the tone of Howland's earlier letter, such action was unlikely. The merger of the Women's Division and AAHPER took place in June, 1940, with no apparent effect on the structure or functions of the latter organization.

In a letter to Mabel Lee this writer asked if the influences of the two organizations, Women's Division and NSWA, were different.

Yes the influence of these two was different and I find it hard to make people understand this. WDNAAF, an organization of lay people, reached the lay world trying to get NSWA standards accepted in all groups not school groups while NSWA, an organization of phys. educ. women, made the sports rules and established standards and (since all its leaders were teachers of p. ed.) pretty much controlled girls and women's sports in lower schools and colleges. Of course many leaders in P.E. profession worked in the WD and advised it.  

In a paper read before a Women's Division conference in San Francisco in April, 1939, Lee had elaborated the differences between the organizations. It is interesting to note that these remarks were made while negotiations for a merger progressed.

Standard-setting in the field of athletics for girls has been the one all-important function for which the Women's Division has existed -- that and the effort to reach the untrained leaders in order to interpret for them the fine points of our standards, to guide them in their leadership with girls, to advise them whenever they need help, to bolster up their courage to fight for

141 Letter from Mabel Lee, Emeritus Professor, University of Nebraska, to the writer, November 8, 1971.
our standards even when they must fight alone as so often happens.

The standards as stated by the Women's Division are brief and concise, written purposely so for laymen who usually want educational material served to them in digested form. For those who wish to discuss the fine points and the whys and wherefores of our principles, the N.S.W.A. has done a real service in the publication of its pamphlet. On the other hand, the Women's Division's clear cut, concise form of statement, filling less than one printed page as compared to the 56-paged pamphlet of the N.S.W.A., is a jewel for its purpose, namely, to reach the great group of laymen who work in athletics for girls -- people who do not talk the language of the educational philosopher, people who must "read as they run." 142

It is that "56-paged pamphlet" with which this study must deal next. The major work relating to standards during the 1920-1940 period was that of the NSWA. However, it is well to be reminded once more that neither the resolutions and platforms of the Women's Division in 1923 and 1924 nor the standards monograph of NSWA in 1937 were created out of vacuums. Guides for behavior in athletic competition had been in constant demand since women began to play. Because "standards fully formed are not inherent in nature; conduct is always a reflection of the organized provision set by society for making them effective in individuals." 143


143 Williams and Hughes, op. cit., p. 41.
The work of several organizations which were dealing directly with competitive athletics set the pattern for the standards which the NSWA eventually developed. Resolutions of the Maine Girls' Basket Ball League required that League members show proof of medical examinations, be accompanied by chaperones, compete against League members only, play on specified courts, and use Spalding's official rules for women. Similarly, the Playground Congress advocated adoption of certain standards for women's athletics in 1922. The recommended standards resembled the later work of the Women's Division and NSWA.

Massachusetts physical education teachers, meeting at the State Department of Education, established criteria for interscholastic play in 1926.

We are opposed to the interscholastic competition for girls, except under the following conditions: That the team shall be coached by women under approved girls' rules; that the representative teams shall be picked from contestants in intra-mural contests; that all games shall be played in the afternoon; that no team shall compete in more than three games in one sport in a season; that no team shall contest with any team not observing these rules.


146 "Is Competition Good for Girls," Mind and Body, XXXIII (May, 1926), p. 52
Pennsylvania, too, moved to control girls' interscholastic contests. The platform of the Women's Division was reflected in that state's action.  

The Young Women's Christian Association advocated women's rules, women coaches, medical examinations, and urged local associations to abide by the ideals of the Women's Division. "They have needed and appreciated standards of such a national organization to back them in bringing up standards in local places."  

The women's basketball committee of the American Physical Education Association compiled a list of recommendations for schools which competed interscholastically. While exceeding Women's Division principles by recognizing the existence of interscholastic play, the recommendations in other respects reflected the platform. For example, the committee urged health safeguards, controlled practices per week, the start of competition in January and then only one game per week, no more than nine games played in the season, no overnight excursions, admission by invitation, control of publicity:  

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by the school principal, women instructors and officials, and abstinence from play during the menstrual period. 149

Anna Hiss, Director of Physical Education for Women, at the University of Texas, too, realized that the thinking of the national organizations could be valuable in guiding existing competition. In fact, her plea was for cooperation if correction of existing conditions was to be expected. In 1934 the state university assisted in the conduct of a state basketball tournament for women. As a result of the cooperation a State Advisory Board, including a woman physician and woman physical educator, set rules requiring women officials, women coaches as soon as possible, medical examinations, a minimum age limit of seventeen years, NSWA women's rules, a maximum of two games per day, and a social gathering on the first day of the tournament. 150 Notably, the Rules and Editorial Committee of NSWA was responsible for submitting the Hiss article for publication.

As has been pointed out previously, "The National Section had been born of the need for a standardizing agency for basketball rules and practices and almost immediately had


become involved in establishing desirable standards of conduct for other sports." This observation can be borne out in a sequence of actions which began shortly after the origin of the Women's Division.

In the *Official Basketball Guide for Women Containing the Revised Rules 1924-25* the resolutions of the Women's Division were quoted. More important, however, were the events preceding that quotation. At the Springfield convention of the American Physical Education Association in 1923, the Women's Athletic Committee approved certain excerpts from the resolutions of the Women's Division formulated during the previous week.

Your committee calls attention to the following excerpts from the resolutions adopted by the Washington Conference and approved by this committee, which have particular bearing upon the subjects of Inter and Intra-mural competitions, upon which there has been so much discussion.

**Resolution 4:**

(a) That girls' and women's athletics be protected from exploitation for the enjoyment of the spectator or for the athletic reputation or commercial advantage of any school or other organization.

(b) That schools and other organizations shall stress enjoyment of the sport and development of sportsmanship, and minimize the emphasis which is at present laid upon individual accomplishment and the winning of championships.

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Resolution 5:
That for any given group we approve and recommend such selection and administration of athletic activities as makes participation possible for all, and strongly condemn the sacrifice of this object for intensive training (even though physiologically sound) of the few.

Resolution 6:
(a) That competent women be put in immediate charge of women and girls in their athletic activities even where the administrative supervision may be under the direction of men.

(b) We look forward to the establishment of a future policy that shall place the administration as well as teaching and coaching of girls and women in the hands of carefully trained and properly qualified women.

Resolution 10:
Whereas. We believe that the motivation of competitors in athletic activities should be that of play for play’s sake; and

Whereas. We believe that the awarding of valuable prizes is detrimental to this objective; be it

Resolved. That all awards granted for athletic achievement be restricted to those things which are symbolical and which have the least possible intrinsic value.

Resolution 11:
That suitable costumes for universal use be adopted for the various athletic activities.

Resolution 12:
Whereas. We believe that the type of publicity which may be given to athletics for women and girls may have a vital influence both upon the individual competitors and upon the future development of the activity; be it
Resolved. That all publicity be of such character as to stress the sport and not the individual or group competitors.

Your committee recommends that the Committee on Women's Athletics

1. Make themselves familiar with the complete set of resolutions.

2. Take active steps to see that they are applied to girls' athletics.

3. Use every opportunity to bring them to public attention.\textsuperscript{152}

The Women's Athletic Committee next expanded upon those approved resolutions. A very basic, even though moderate, difference between the views of the WAC and Women's Division was apparent in the additional resolutions. The WAC accepted the existence of interscholastic athletics among girls and women and sought to guide, without condemning, that competition.

\textit{Whereas.} We endorse the foregoing resolutions; and

\textit{Whereas.} We believe them to express the fundamental policies upon which any competition in athletics for girls and women should be based; be it therefore

1. \textit{Resolved}, That no consideration of inter-institutional athletics is warranted unless

(a) The school or institution has provided opportunity for every girl to have a full season's programme of all-round athletic

activities of the type approved by this committee.

(b) Every girl in the school or institution (not merely the proposed contestants) actively participates in a full season of such activities and takes part in a series of games within the school or institution.

(c) These activities are conducted under the immediate leadership of properly trained women instructors who have the educational value of the game in mind rather than winning.

2. Resolved, That in cases where the foregoing conditions obtain, and proper and responsible authorities (preferably women) deem it desirable educationally and socially to hold inter-institutional competitions, the following requirements should be observed:

(a) Medical examination for all participants.

(b) No gate money.

(c) Admission only by invitation of the various schools or institutions taking part, in order that participants may not be exploited.

(d) No publicity other than that which stresses only the sport and not the individual or group competitors.

(e) Only properly trained women instructors and officials in charge.

Note - The committee feels that it is questionable whether inter-institutional athletics are ever warranted for children under high school age, except when such competition is conducted by the chart system or communications by mail, telegraph, etc.

Your committee was unable in the short time available to prepare further recommendations for presentation at this meeting or for the
proper elaboration of these here presented, but among other matters which they desire to emphasize and for which they wish further time are the following:

1. The undesirability of traveling away from the home town or community to take part in competitions, especially in the case of girls below adult age.

2. The necessity of limiting the number of games.

3. Desirability of working out some type of meet which

   (a) Is an incident of the general programme of athletics for all.

   (b) Is a logical culmination of a season's programme.

   (c) Is not confined to one type of activity.

4. The desirability of working out a programme of activities in which the competing unit is a group and not an individual.

Finally, the committee does not wish it to be inferred from these recommendations that it is advocating or attempting to promote a policy of inter-institutional games. 153

With the acceptance of a new constitution creating the National Section on Women's Athletics came the appointment of a special committee on standards in April, 1933. The committee was to "draw up an explicit statement of the prin-

ciples for which the Section stands."154 The committee took its task quite seriously and did not act in haste. Proposals were submitted to professional leaders for review and criticism. Research was reviewed. The Legislative Board of NSWA remained outwardly calm as the standards committee work extended over several years.

Although no doubt all of us are impatient to have in our hands a concrete statement of the policies we as a Section endorse, we can be assured that the final result of the work of the Committee will be many times more valuable to us as a product of this careful procedure than if it were rushed through just for the sake of getting some sort of a publication out on the market.155

Finally, in 1937 the standards committee report, the "56-paged pamphlet," was published.

The standards were to serve "administrators, teachers, and leaders of informal and athletic programs in schools, communities, commercial, industrial, and recreational groups."156 The statement of standards included three elements:

A discussion of the construction and conduct

of the program in terms of the method of classifying athletic activities, bases of selecting them, and factors concerned in adapting them to various age groups and to various situations.

An analysis of leadership in athletics from the point of view of the administrator and from the point of view of the teacher.

An application of the foregoing for the participant herself.157

Among program considerations were the pre-adolescent, adolescent, young adult, and mature adult age classifications. The location and nature of indoor and outdoor play facilities were described. The strenuousness, complexity, and intensity of activities were identified. Play groups were designated individual, partner, small and large informal groups, or informal and formal teams. In conducting the program key factors were the acquisition and testing of skill, practice-periods, visual aids, health safeguards, organization of competition, officiating, rules, and awards. The administrator was to guide in determining the purpose of the program, delegate authority, supervise facilities and equipment, and generally oversee the program including finances and public relations. Professional and personal qualifications of teachers and the desired results of their efforts were designated. The objectives and responsibilities of the

157 Ibid.
In each instance a general standard was stated and then described. The Standards Committee also defined "standards" in detail.

A standard is an authoritative rule or model constructed as a guide to action. To be valid:

- Standards must represent the most reliable current expert opinion.
- Standards must be endorsed by all available scientific findings.
- Standards must be constructed definitely to meet the situation at hand.
- Standards must be issued by responsible and recognized agencies in the field.

Standards serve as a basis for program making, as a means for motivation and stimulation of activities, and as a method of appraisal. To be effective in guiding action, standards must be sufficiently general to operate in many situations and sufficiently specific to indicate a course of action in any given situation. Furthermore, to ensure their continued usefulness, standards must be flexible and subject to revision rather than fixed and traditional. The basis for the revision of standards is a revision in the data from which they are derived. Therefore, in view of the nature and the function of standards, their formulation and revision must be entrusted to those agencies which represent responsible, impartial, and democratically constituted leadership in the field. Once established by such means, standards have the force of authoritative statement which renders them binding upon all person

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158 Ibid., pp. 26-63.
The committee carried out its task so thoroughly that the standards survived nearly intact for twenty-five years. The committee, though, did not cease to function. Once the standards were published the committee assumed the tasks of adapting, applying, digesting, and extending their work. The need for more work grew when it was realized that the standards were not achieving expected results.

Very soon after the publication of the Standards Report in the spring of 1937, a demand arose from all parts of the country for a condensed statement of the important applications of the Report. It had seemingly not been written on the level of the layman’s appreciation; although the Committee on Standards had attempted to produce an easily understood guide for all players and all instructors, this goal had not been achieved.

At the same time support for the standards came from various sources, including remarks by Gladys Palmer of Ohio State.

By committee cooperation they have published a report on standards which is an outstanding contribution in the field of athletics. The contents are well organized, simply written, based on sound educational principles, reflect present practice, and are broad in viewpoint. These standards make it possible for me as an administrator to establish a policy in regard to intercollegiate competition. It is this:

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159 Ibid., p. 22.

Each opportunity for intercollegiate competition shall be judged individually, first, in terms of its probable value to the students concerned; and, secondly, in terms of its administrative advisability.\textsuperscript{161}

The Athletic Federation of College Women endorsed the standards.\textsuperscript{162} In 1939 and 1940 the Athletic Policies Committee of the Midwest Association of College Teachers of Physical Education for Women elaborated the NSWA standards for its region.\textsuperscript{163}

**CONCLUSION**

Thus a period of tremendous activity came to a close. Basketball grew and the tempo of play increased. The need for research was recognized. Organizations continued, originated, struggled, fought, and merged. In 1920 there had been no formal, nationally-approved set of standards for competition in women's athletics.

"Standards" had been implicit over the years in many of the activities of the successive women's committees which dealt with basketball and other sports. But basketball had always seemed to provide the greatest number of problems, if only owing to its great popularity and widespread participation among school, college, and non-


school groups. The rules, the writings on the
conduct of sports, the advisement services given
by these committees, and convention programs
were largely — though sometimes quite indirectly —
concerned with promoting desirable conditions
for participants in many sports. The "seeds" of
standards had been germinating for many years. 164

By 1940 two major sets of standards had been formulated.
The Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic
Federation was born in 1923 when problems in women's
athletics were multiplying, and after the Amateur Athletic
Union had decided to become involved in the promotion of
women's athletics. The Women's Division sought to unite
women's athletic interests behind its resolutions and platform.
Similarly, the National Section on Women's Athletics, formerly
the Women's Athletic Committee, had developed a set of
standards in 1937. Neither the Women's Division nor National
Section on Women's Athletics could enforce their policies.
The standards were recommended guidelines upon which programs
of athletics could be based. Both organizations accepted the
importance of competition. The Women's Division favored
intramural programs and play days over more intensive forms
of competition. The National Section on Women's Athletics
assumed a somewhat more liberal view by advocating sports
days. Both views drew criticism. The play days were condemned
as "asceptic affairs." 165 The Women's Division worried


165 Jesse Peiring Williams and William Leonard Hughes, Athletics in Education (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders
that the NSWA was much too liberal. The standards work was endless. "We set standards and thought that they were effective in upgrading general practices as well as controlling the interscholastic angle."\textsuperscript{166} The women struggled with standards constantly.

The interests of the two organizations were merged formally in 1940. After the vast amount of work on standards by the time of the merger "...the same problems continued to arise regardless of the fact that there had been a steady increase in the number of persons who were working toward solving such problems."\textsuperscript{167} Undaunted, the women renewed their efforts to promote healthful, worthwhile athletic competition for girls and women.

\textsuperscript{166}Letter from Ruth H. Atwell, former Chairman of the National Section on Women's Athletics, to the writer, December 2, 1971.

\textsuperscript{167}Kesler, op. cit., p. 93.
CHAPTER V

A PERIOD OF CONTROLLED GROWTH IN WOMEN'S ATHLETICS:
1940-1955

INTRODUCTION

In contrast to the previous two decades, the years 1941 through 1955 were relatively calm. Though there was a gradual revival of inter-institution competition throughout the period, the prevailing atmosphere was one of controlled growth. Organizations had stabilized. The problems of competition which did exist were met with less emotion. Researchers and observers analyzed practices with more objectivity. The impact of culture upon women's roles in all aspects of society was increasingly recognized.

The realization of the inevitability of athletic competition for girls and women was more apparent as successive committees strove to maintain control in somewhat more realistic than idealistic terms. It was difficult to distinguish the relative weight of the factors influencing this era. Certainly the women's organizations had achieved much with their various standards. The depression of the 1930's, which had not caused the cessation in competition one might have expected, was succeeded by the Second World War. Curtailment of transportation and the general national war mobilization
effort did serve to diminish athletic competition. After 1945 the distractions of the war were quickly forgotten as competition resumed and organizations refocused their efforts on the development and implementation of standards.

ATHLETIC COMPETITION FOR GIRLS AND WOMEN

The period did not open peacefully. The leadership in women's athletics waged a war of its own against a move by the Women's Division of the Physical Education Department at The Ohio State University to sponsor a national women's intercollegiate golf tournament in 1941. A few months earlier in a speech to the northeast section of the Athletic Federation of College Women (AFCW) Patty Berg had expressed the hope that the United States Golf Association would some day create a tournament for college women. The Ohio State staff considered Berg's remarks and decided that women's intercollegiate competition should be kept in the hands of women. It seemed logical to the college women to become involved before independent sports organizations took charge. Physical education was giving its services to the handicapped, posture cases and other individuals with special needs; the time seemed ripe to turn an equal portion of time to the highly skilled.\footnote{Statements expressed by Mary Yost in a speech prepared for the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Women's National Intercollegiate Golf Tournament, n.d. (in the records of Mary Yost at The Ohio State University).}

\footnote{Mary Yost, "Swinging into Competition" (unpublished paper in the records of Mary Yost at The Ohio State University), p. 2.}
Realizing the precipitous nature of its decision, the Ohio State staff exercised great care in preparing publicity and awards. Sportsmanship was emphasized. Numerous social events were planned.

The stated purposes of the Tournament include the provision of: (a) opportunities for college women to participate in a golf tournament with others of comparable skill; (b) opportunities for students to develop an appreciation of highly skilled performance; (c) opportunities for the development of high standards of sportsmanship under stress of keen competition, and (d) opportunities for social and cultural existence through constant contact with students from other institutions and geographical areas.

Because of the criticisms to which they had been subjected, team sports, particularly basketball, were avoided in selecting the activity for the tournament. "The Executive Committee of the National Collegiate Athletic Association is behind us; the National Section on Women's Athletics agrees with us, if the report of their standards committee is indicative of their opinion; the National Amateur Athletic Federation, Women's Division, is non-existent." The most provocative aspect of the Ohio State plan was a proposal for a "Women's National

3"History of the Women's Collegiate Golf Tournament" (unpublished paper in the records of Mary Yost at The Ohio State University), p. 1.


5Yost, "Swinging," op. cit., p. 5.
Collegiate Athletic Association." The Association was to provide intercollegiate competition for women, formulate rules for play if necessary, supervise regional and national tournaments, and establish standards for play.

In March, 1941, the tournament was announced to the profession in letters of explanation and invitation by Gladys Palmer, Chairman of the Ohio State women's division of physical education. The staff had not consulted professional organizations previous to the announcement, anticipating that would precipitate the appointment of a study committee which would delay the event.  

As a result of this tournament we found ourselves very severely criticized by many of our professional colleagues. Friends of many years stopped speaking to us. We were accused of being publicity seekers. "The Old Guard" of the profession resented the fact that we didn't consult -- we acted.

Mary Yost, a member of the tournament committee, had no recollection of a concern for the standards or sentiments of the National Section on Women's Athletics (NSWA) with regard to the tournament. The staff was more concerned about the reaction of the Midwest and National Associations of Directors.

6 "Constitution and By-Laws of the Women's National Collegiate Athletic Association" (unpublished paper in the records of Mary Yost at The Ohio State University), p. 1.

7 Statements expressed by Mary Yost, op. cit., p. 5.

8 Ibid.
of Physical Education for College Women. Accordingly, staff members were dispatched to the annual meetings of each group. The midwest group, upset that it had not been consulted, decided to send a committee to evaluate the tournament and report to the Directors. The three Ohio State representatives to the Directors meeting in Atlantic City, New Jersey, in April, 1941, were alternately ignored and attacked. Eventually, the Directors were provoked to pass resolutions regarding competition.

Since one institution has sent a letter to the members, stating the belief that a need exists for opportunities in competition for college women of superior skill, and recommends the formation of a Women's Collegiate Athletic Association, the National Association of Directors of Physical Education for College Women has considered the matter and states its position as follows:

1. We believe that needs in competition can be met in more advantageous ways than in competition on a national basis, and therefore consider national tournaments inadvisable.

2. We do not approve the formation of a national organization which would tend to increase the number of varsity competitions.

3. We recommend that the National Association endorse the well defined statement of "Policies for Sports Days and Intramural Athletics for College Women" as authorized by the Midwest Association of College Teachers of Physical Education for Women.

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9Statement by Mary Yost, personal interview, October 8, 1971.

10Telegram from Dorothy Wirthwein and Violet Boynton to Gladys Palmer, April 2, 1941 (in the records of Mary Yost at The Ohio State University).
We recommend that those standards be actively promoted by each member. We recommend to the National Association that a committee be appointed representative of the sections. (1) to study the needs of college women for competition and the extent to which those needs at all levels of skills are being met by the present programs. (2) to study existing practices in competition in colleges and to determine how far the standards of the National Section on Women's Athletics are being made effective. (3) to determine what form of competition will meet the needs of college women most adequately.

Thus, the study committee was formed after the golf tournament was announced. The Directors also sent an open letter to deans of women and directors and teachers of college physical education for women describing the organization's opposition to the tournament and urging support for the policies.  

Also in 1941 the Legislative Board of NSWA questioned Gladys Palmer. It appeared to the Board that Palmer felt:

A. That the use of the term "National" for the golf tournament was thoughtlessly chosen and is ill advised.

B. That since the College Directors Association has organized nationally to include in its membership teachers as well as directors of physical education, there should be no need of a national organization dealing with intercollegiate athletics for women.

11"Resolutions Adopted by the National Association of Directors of Physical Education for College Women," April 29, 1941 (in the Archives of the National Association for Physical Education of College Women, University of Illinois), p. 1. Hereafter this collection is cited as NAPECW Archives.

12Letter from Elizabeth Kelley, President, National Association of Directors of Physical Education for College Women. NAPECW Archives.
C. That the golf tournament to be held at Ohio State University in June is in the form of an "Experiment" which may be deemed inadvisable to continue in other years.

D. That experimentation in intercollegiate athletics for women is implied in the Standards of the National Section on Women's Athletics.

The NSWA also determined to send two observers to the tournament. 14

Elizabeth Halsey of the State University of Iowa expressed her personal disappointment toward the existence of the tournament in a letter to Gladys Palmer.

My own personal reaction is one of regret that Ohio State University, which has contributed so much to progress, not only in physical education, but in education, is promoting an intensification of competition at a time when our society is in such great need of better techniques of cooperation. I believe that democracy can adapt to rapidly changing economic and social conditions. It must, however, move away from the cutthroat competition of regulated individualism toward acceptance of disciplined self-regulation and cooperative planning. Our schools must contribute more than lip service to this evolution. 13

According to Mary Yost the women's national collegiate athletic association did not become a reality in 1941.

I wish I knew what the future will bring. I personally don't think we will be able to

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14 Ibid., p. 12.

15 Letter from Elizabeth Halsey to Gladys Palmer, May 1, 1941, (in the records of Mary Yost at The Ohio State University).
form an organization. I think that confusion and bad practices will increase until the time will come when we can laugh and say, "We told you so." But that is an empty satisfaction when you are honestly trying to do a job that you know needs to be done.

The tournament itself was a successful event, establishing a positive precedent for the future. Eleanor Dudley of the University of Alabama emerged as the winner from among the thirty participants from twenty-one institutions. The golf tournament, interrupted by World War II, was resumed in 1946. Whether, at the time, the Ohio State staff realized it was creating a tempest and accurately anticipating future events, the initiation of the women's intercollegiate golf tournament eventually fulfilled the prophecy for the future. As will be noted in the next chapter, the tournament was the event which ultimately led to a national organization for the sponsorship and control of national athletic championships for college women.

THE GAME OF BASKETBALL

With the national women's organizations alert for increases in competitive athletics, sports days continued to be the most commonly reported form of basketball competition. The years between 1940 and 1955 were filled with surveys, experimentation, and fending off other groups seeking rules changes. The Basketball Committee of NSWA seemed more con-

16 "Girls Athletics" (unpublished paper in the records of Mary Yost at The Ohio State University), p. 9.
cerned about keeping the men out of the group than promoting the game in the best interest of the players.

The game and the rules which governed it maintained the general conservative tradition.

The major rules changes were few in number though the game continued to demand more skillful action and allowed more complex strategy. A substitute was, at last, permitted to re-enter a game any number of times in 1949. For a group interested in the participation of as many players as possible, it seemed strange that substitutions had been limited until that time. Rules changes occurred only in odd years after 1949. The rule book was published annually, however, because the revenues realized from sales of the basketball guide contributed a significant portion of the NSWA operating budget. 17

In 1953 the Basketball Committee made sixty-four changes in the rules in an effort to eliminate non-essential differences between the rules for girls and boys. Reassuring the consumer that the rules were written in the best interests of the players, the Committee nonetheless recognized the number of men throughout the country who were coaching girls' teams. 18 Though standards for competition recommended that


women should fill leadership roles in girls' athletics, the reality of the situation necessitated the accommodation of men coaches and officials. Despite the fact that the changes in 1953 did not alter the game to any great degree they were not well-received.

I am distressed about the reaction of the many women to the changes in this year's basketball rules. I expected that they would come as a shock to many people but I didn't believe that they would be called radical. The changes are matters of game routine and have not materially altered the game.

Obviously, the role of the general membership of NSWA in changing rules was not a significant one.

As basketball competition increased in quantity and intensity, colleges continued to have fewer problems than high schools. The Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) continued to promote competition and sponsor a national tournament which was thought to be a strong incentive for participation. The NSWA seemed much more willing to tolerate the AAU contests. In fact by January, 1948, the AAU was invited to designate a person to serve in an advisory capacity on the NSWA Basketball Committee. The AAU reciprocated.

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19 Letter from Josephine Fiske to Aileene Lockhart, October 20, 1953. DGWS Archives.


World War II curtailed both basketball competition and the work of NSWA and its committees. After the war play and problems resumed. In the spring of 1946 a representative of the Oklahoma High School Athletic Association, Lee K. Anderson, met with the NSWA Basketball Committee urging the formation of a joint rules committee.

We pointed out at that time that the rules were unrealistic in that they did not cope with situations arising where it was to a team's advantage to commit intentional fouls. We were told we should not have men coaches and men officials, and we should teach that it was unsportsmanlike to commit an intentional foul. With over 500 girls [sic] teams playing interschool basketball, a half-dozen women officials approved by the NSWA Board, and less than fifty percent enough women coaches to go around, the advice we received did not go far in solving our problems.

In 1948 another appeal was made to NSWA by concerned state high school athletic associations for a conference. Gaining no satisfaction from these meetings, the men from the associations finally developed their own organization, the Girls National Basketball Rules Committee for Secondary Schools, and modified rules in July, 1952. The Girls National Basketball Committee stated its aim in considering any rules "to give the welfare of the girls playing the game priority over

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all other considerations." Subsequent efforts to compromise failed. The comments of Grace Fox, Basketball Committee Chairman of the National Section for Girls and Women's Sports (NSGWS), which had succeeded the NSWA, helped to explain the failures.

I have tried to be broadminded about the matter of the men and the need for inviting them to "sit in" on the committee meeting and I just cannot see that any good will be accomplished by such an act. It has been tried before -- I know without as much preliminary ground work -- but they felt they had gained nothing before when actually much was done then that they wanted. I do not believe they will be satisfied until the continuous dribble and tying the ball become legal and I do not believe they will be content to be "observers" at the meeting. I anticipate that the meeting would become a discussion (argument?) with them over these points and they would expect to be heard as much as any member of the committee.

The Basketball Committee of NSWA was a rather closed group, representative of the "family-type" nature of its parent organization. As illustrated in the description below, NSWA leaders had the power to keep an extremely tight rein on the nature of its membership.

The Basketball Committee is composed of fifteen persons and any number of advisory members. The chairman of the committee is elected for a two year period by a vote of the


25Letter from Grace Fox to Jo Fiske, Basketball Chairman of the National Section for Girls and Women's Sports, n.d. DGWS Archives.
members of the Rules and Editorial Committee with approval of the Legislative Board of the NSWA. The members of the committee are selected by the chairman from suggestions made by State Basketball Chairmen and others who have been active in this sport. An attempt is made to have representatives from High Schools, Colleges and Recreation groups.

The Basketball Committee works closely with the State Basketball Chairmen who are appointed by the state NSWA representatives.

The function of the Rules Committee is to edit for publication the annual Basketball Guide which carries the official rules, to revise and clarify the rules in the light of the needs and interests of all groups, players, spectators, coaches and officials. The work of the committee is directed toward arriving at one set of basketball rules for girls and women which rules will have universal use. The committee conducts studies in order to secure information concerning controversial issues, and finally this committee works toward the improvement of standards for participation in basketball in the United States.

The competitive world was one of marked contrasts. Tiny Wheaton College in Massachusetts, playing according to NSWA rules, was quite content to play a very limited schedule with neighboring colleges. The Wayland Baptist College Flying Queens of Plainview, Texas, on the other hand, played according to a variety of rules on their trips across the United States and in other nations. The team had been organ-

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27 Letter from Christine White, Emeritus Professor at Wheaton College, to the writer, November 22, 1971.
ized by women students in 1947. By 1950 the team sponsors, owners of a local air service, were flying the team around the country and into Mexico. The school president accepted the team as a public relations factor. The team proceeded to win several AAU championships.

Elsewhere, basketball competition was also growing rapidly. In San Francisco there were two hundred fifty industrial, recreation, and school basketball teams. In Maine, New Gloucester high school foresaw the end of its seventy-three game winning streak as its entire starting team graduated at the end of the 1949-1950 season. Baskin, Oklahoma, high school won two hundred eighteen consecutive contests before defeat.

In addition basketball was becoming an international sport. In the summer of 1951 an American team toured South America as representatives of the AAU. In 1953 the first World Championship Tournament for Women was won by the United

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32Ibid., p. 227.
States at Santiago, Chile. Basketball for women became an event in the second Pan American Games in 1955. The United States also won that championship, played according to men's rules. There was no doubt that basketball, in its many forms, was nearing maturity. The growing pains were giving way to the tolerable limits of diversity. Neither the basketball nor standards committees of NSGWS could deny or ignore the changing events.

ORGANIZATIONS TO GUIDE AND CONTROL GIRLS AND WOMEN'S ATHLETICS

The Athletic Federation of College Women encouraged sports days among its member associations and provided the forum for discussions of the problems of competition. The National Association of Directors of Physical Education for College Women also chose to favor sports days as the most intensive form of athletic competition suitable for college women. Its Committee on Competition surveyed the competitive practices of two hundred twenty-seven colleges and universities in 1943 and found eighty-one percent had some form of extramural competition. Sixteen percent participated in varsity athletics. The results indicated a sharp increase in contrast to Lee's findings in 1924 and 1931. As might

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have been expected, the survey demonstrated the modifying influence of the war. Eighty percent of the respondents observed the standards of NSWA. "Postwar predictions seem to indicate that there will be an increase in interest in both extramural and intramural programs."³⁵

The attention of the Directors, by then renamed the National Association of Physical Education for College Women (NAPECW), turned again to athletic competition among the colleges in 1950 when a Committee on Competition was reconstituted. In its April 1, 1954, report the Committee stated several findings which were to have an impact on future action.

1. There is need for more effective coordination between N.A.P.E.C.W., N.S.G.W.S. and A.F.C.W. . . .

2. Opinion is almost equally divided between those who feel there should be a separate statement of policies and standards for varsity-type competition in colleges and those who do not.

4. A large percentage of respondents do not feel the public is sufficiently well informed by N.S.G.W.S. of the reasons for changes in basketball rules. The comments indicate that the rules should not be changed so frequently.

5. Although 46 percent would like to have N.S.G.W.S. redefine its standards, a number commented that it should be a continuing process of evaluation. . . .

6. Well over 50 percent are against any modification of N.S.G.W.S. standards.

³⁵Ibid., p. 71.
7. The replies are overwhelmingly in favor of a committee of N.A.P.E.C.W., N.S.G.W.S. and A.A.U. to study mutual problems.

The cooperation which resulted among NAPECW, NSGWS, and AFCW was to become the next step toward development of the women's national collegiate athletic association which the Ohio State University staff had proposed in 1941. This tripartite arrangement will be discussed in the next chapter.

Whereas the Directors had not seen fit to give blanket approval to the NSWA standards monograph in 1941, choosing instead to support the Midwest college policies for sports day and intramurals. NAPECW accepted NSGWS standards in 1953. The Board of Directors then elaborated on the standards in a policy statement which was accepted by the membership on April 17, 1954.

POLICY on COMPETITION

1. That the authority for approval of physical education activities involving women students shall rest with the department of physical education for women. This includes intramural activities and extramural activities such as varsity-type competition, play days, sports days, demonstration games, telegraphic meets, dance symposia, and performances and demonstrations by special groups.

2. That women's varsity-type sports should be conducted only as they meet NSGWS standards of Health, participation, leadership and publicity.

3. That Sports Days, which is competition on an informal basis, not be confused with varsity-type competition and the emphasis continue to be on

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this sports day type.

4. That college women shall not participate:
   a. as members of men's intercollegiate athletic teams.
   b. in touch football exhibition games, or any other activities of similar type.
   c. either with or against men in activities not suitable to competition between men and women such as basketball, touch football, speedball, soccer, hockey and lacrosse.

5. We do not subscribe to college sponsorship of women participating in tournaments and meets with agencies organized primarily for competition and for the determination of championships at successively higher levels (local, sectional, national, etc.).

Recognizing the great contribution of athletic activities to optimum development of children and youth as individuals and citizens; the inadequacy of pertinent scientific information; the lack of understanding and appreciation of desirable programs; the concern and study of other professional groups toward solution of the problems involved - the Board of Directors of NAPECW recommends that the efforts of colleges and members of NAPECW may most appropriately be directed toward:

1. Better informed major students through special training in:
   a. understanding and appreciation of the problems involved in competitive activities and acceptable ways of facing them.
   b. planning for and working with the highly skilled girl as well as the average skilled individual.
   c. consideration of policies, standards, and practices basic to sound athletic programs for elementary as well as secondary schools.
3. Better informed students in the service program through the promotion of understanding and appreciation of desirable athletic programs.

4. Research on the contribution of athletic activities to optimum development of children and youth.

AFCW and NAPECW, composed primarily of members of the physical education profession, lacked consistency in the application of policies. A perpetual thorn in professional idealism was the exception made in the case of field hockey competition. National, sectional, and local tournaments were played annually. All-stars were chosen at each level until a national team was finally selected. That team represented the United States in international competition. Encouraged by women physical educators, college teams and individual students participated in various events of the United States Field Hockey Association. Often whole weekends were consumed in hockey competition. Teams played more than one game per day. This writer was accused of being in error about the hockey situation by Bessie H. Rudd, member of the committee which revised NSWA standards in 1948 and a hockey enthusiast. Rudd justified national tournaments in hockey because teams were composed of players from several teams as the competition progressed. Hence, there were no winners in her view.

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37 Board of Directors of the National Association for Physical Education of College Women, "Policy on Competition," June 18, 1953. NAPECW Archives. (Mimeographed.)

38 Letter from Bessie H. Rudd, Emeritus Professor at Pembroke College, Providence, Rhode Island, to the writer, November 21, 1971.
Miss Rudd was correct, of course. There has never been a winner. However, other factors, such as international competition, acceptable in field hockey competition even among college teams, were condemned for other athletes. These inconsistencies complicated the task of uniting sentiment behind standards for competition.

In contrast to earlier times, physical educators were accused of shirking their responsibilities to the highly skilled girl or woman performer.  

The girls who desire highly-organized sports often seek non-school programs, because they feel these programs better fulfill their desires. Thus, the school is also losing their opportunity to provide guidance in a field where wise guidance is needed.  

In Ohio interscholastic basketball competition for girls was eliminated. Stoll was not certain that the decision had accomplished its purpose.

Today, whether we like it or not, we must face the fact that the practice was not in reality eliminated, but rather removed to gymnasiums where the activities were not sponsored or controlled by school authorities. . . . The trained leader succeeded in sweeping her doorstep clean by throwing the problem into the lap of the general public whose actions originally were responsible for the undesirable conditions present at interschool competition.

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The organization to which many highly skilled performers were driven was the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU). Neither the AAU nor NSWA kept its differences with the other secret. Roxy Anderson, Women's Track and Field Commissioner of the Pacific AAU and rebel within her own organization, placed blame on both groups.

So for years the NSWA has been the deadend at which the AAU finds itself in its search for feminine athletic material, limping along on a hit-and-miss system of reaching a few talented youngsters via the interest generated by the selection of women's teams for Olympic and Pan American Games. The hard cold fact is that there just isn't any program of competitive athletics for girls in the schools governed by NSWA mandate and THERE NEVER WILL BE UNLESS the AAU can make certain concessions to the NSWA point of view. The present stalemate looks like it could hold for centuries!

The real hitch revolves around the coaching and training of women athletes by men. Up to this point the AAU has had to rely upon male coaches due to a lack of ability and/or interest on the part of women for this undertaking. The number of women teachers with coaching knowledge in the competitive sports is negligible. Both the NSWA and AAU must accept the fact that until such time as there are enough women coaches to do an adequate job, the AAU must rely upon those few qualified men interested enough to help form girls' clubs.

If the NSWA and its affiliates are to get in on the ground floor and maintain the standards they wish observed in the whole field of women's competitive sport, they will need to cooperate with the AAU. On the other hand, the AAU will

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need to respect and observe the standards as set up by the NSWA insofar as this is possible, if there is to be a steady flow of young talent from the schools and playgrounds seeking international team berths through AAU organizations.

Anderson had also urged the AAU to support its own program for women more completely. The divisive issues must have been clear to both NSWA and AAU. Since both groups were meeting apparent needs of their memberships and neither organization was likely to cease to exist, the remaining alternative was clearly one of cooperation. As has been indicated, the joint effort began with an exchange of members on the basketball committees.

For the National Section on Women's Athletics the decade of the 1940's was one of promotion of its program and further solidification of its position. To promote standards the state representatives were authorized to cooperate with other organizations, including those holding counter views. The Legislative Council of NSWA's parent organization, the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation (AAHPER), took a stand against interscholastic championships for girls and boys in April, 1940. In 1946 Helen Manley,

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43 Dorothy S. Tapley, "Minutes of the Legislative Board," April, 1941, p. 16. DGWS Archives.

AAHPER president, appointed a Cooperative Committee on Women's Athletics to study the relationships and prospects for cooperation among NSWA, AFCW, and NAPECW. Among recommendations from the resulting meeting were two which urged AFCW to redistrict corresponding to AAHPER subdivisions and to affiliate with AAHPER. Both recommendations were carried out. The final suggestion was for each organization to formulate a policy which was to be incorporated eventually into a joint statement for endorsement by AAHPER.45 In 1947 the NSWA ended its objection to women's participation in the Olympic Games.46

The NSWA provided little information about its activities to its membership, all women in AAHPER, through the outlets available in professional literature. For example, there was little of substance reported of executive meetings held in 1947.

Three NSWA Legislative Board meetings were held at Seattle on April 21 and 22. Annual reports of all officers, district chairmen, standing committees, special committees, and short-term committees were made at this time. Under new business two reports were made as follows: report of meeting of Joint Committee of NSWA and NFSHSAA; report of National Conference on Prevention and


Control of Juvenile Delinquency. Watch for summaries of these reports. *47*

Often NSWA reports carried more names than news. Because the organization was totally dependent upon voluntary service, citing names of volunteers in monthly columns was one means to reward such work.

Two researchers reviewed events of the 1940's and summarized the status of women's athletic competition in similar fashion.

As the decade 1940-1950 drew to a close, however, a change in attitude toward the level of competition considered suitable was noticeable, a change prompted by the realization that there were very few well-conducted programs of activity for girls of superior athletic ability. *48*

A definite change in attitude toward competitive sports is noticeable at mid-century. Interschool competition is being sanctioned. The greatest need seems to be efficient leadership if the educational outcomes are to be realized. *49*

The growth in competitive athletics was indeed gradual, building slowly through the 1950's and into the 60's. The much needed position of Consultant in Girls and Women's Sports was created by the Board of Directors of AAHPER in 1950. *50*

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*48* Searcy, loc. cit.


The large and active NSWA, at last, had an executive secretary to coordinate and carry out the will of the membership on a full-time basis. The Legislative Board of NSWA, composed of thirty members, had eight standing committees in 1953: Executive and Finance, International Relations, Nominations and Elections, Officials Rating, Operating Code, Public Relations, Research, Rules and Editorial, Standards and Visual Aids. These committees, working through state representatives and their committees, aimed "to promote a wholesome sports program for all girls and women" by stating standards, publishing and interpreting rules and related information, and stimulating research.

Effective June 1, 1953, the National Section on Women's Athletics became the National Section for Girls and Women's Sports (NSGWS).

The principles which this organization has upheld vigorously since its inception in 1899 will continue to be of paramount importance. Although we who are active in the work of the Section have held to the concept of serving both girls and women in all physical activities, many school administrators and lay people who sponsor sports programs for girls are unaware of the scope of NSWA, mainly because the present name does not bring out this concept.


52 Ibid.

The name change emphasized the breadth of interest of the organization. "Sport" replaced "Athletics" indicating a concern for more than competitive aspects. By adding "Girls" to its title, the organization hoped to make clear its interest in secondary school as well as college sports programs. To re-enforce the importance of secondary school members, a National Leadership Conference on Girls and Women's Sports was held between June 26 and July 2, 1955. The conferees were members of NSGWS state committees intent upon improving relationships with various groups interested in girls' sports within their states.54

THE DEVELOPMENT OF STANDARDS FOR COMPETITION

Concluding her study of the development of standards for competition by NSGWS and its antecedents in 1953, Kesler surveyed the opinions of thirty women physical educators to determine current problems in athletics.

Current problems of competitive athletics as determined by this survey seem to be continuous ones. Current leaders of girls' and women's sports are apparently combatting situations almost identical with those faced by leaders twenty, thirty and forty years ago. There seems to be no doubt but that both the search for more trained women to take leadership roles and the search for more efficient means of interpreting to lay persons the theory and practice of competition for girls

women will be continuous also.\footnote{55} The Standards Committee kept up that continuous effort to redefine, clarify, and promote the essential purposes of NSWA and NSGWS. The Committee's efforts were both aided and obstructed by research to which it turned increasingly to support standards statements.

Research, which progressed from nearly exclusive use of surveys in earlier periods, began to investigate basic assumptions about women and girls in athletics. Moore pointed out "the temptation to accept the ideas of the past without regard as to whether these ideas have a scientific basis acts as a hindrance to progress in any field of endeavor."\footnote{56} The conclusion of his study of sex differences allayed some doubts but perpetuated another.

\begin{quote}
Competition among girls at their own level, with girls of similar ability under a suitable supervisor, preferably a woman, should result in no more unsportsmanlike conduct, emotional outbursts, or physical collapse than would be found in a game among boys.\footnote{57}
\end{quote}

There was to be no real substitute for the woman leader.

In assessing the period before 1951 Skinner expressed the need to distinguish between "competition" and "undesirable


\footnote{56}Roy B. Moore, "An Analytical Study of Sex Differences as They Affect the Program of Physical Education," Research Quarterly, XII (October, 1941), p. 603.

\footnote{57}Ibid.
In an effort to set standards for girls' games that are conducive to the welfare of the feminine sex, an attitude has been adopted, at various times, that would indicate that sports are governed more by the differences in the sexes than by educational principles.

As late as 1955 "the literature revealed no research which had a direct bearing on the problems of outcomes of participation in interscholastic competition for girls." Bell studied the relationship between participation in interscholastic basketball and selected personality traits. Although she did find some differences between players and non-players, she could not conclude "that they are due to participation in interscholastic basketball." Thus, hand in hand with the pressure on the Standards Committees of NSWA and NSGWS to validate statements came, increasingly, evidence which both challenged and supported those policies.

The Standards Committee of NSWA spent 1940 and 1941 completing work on "Desirable Practices in Athletics for Girls and Women," which was to be "a concisely worded statement of minimum standards and procedures applicable to schools, recreation groups, organizations, and individuals interested in


60 Ibid., p. 69.
the promotion of athletics for girls and women." In December, 1940, the statement of "Desirable Practices" was accepted by the Legislative Board of NSWA. The document had to be withdrawn from publication at the last moment as a result of criticisms which had been solicited. Reviewers were concerned that the statement might be interpreted to favor interscholastic competition to a greater extent than NSWA intended. The paper included a statement concerning inter-institution play: "A program of competition with other schools or organizations should be permitted only when it is possible to carry on this type of competition without detracting from the instructional and intramural programs." That statement did not appear in the version which finally was published in September, 1941. In the published copy extramural competition was identified as play days, sport days, and telegraphic

63 Margaret M. Duncan, "Report of the Standards Committee Chairman to the Legislative Board of the National Section on Women's Athletics," April, 1941, p. 1. DGWS Archives.
64 "Desirable Practices," loc. cit.
meets. Extramural competition was a category separate from those forms in the December, 1940, draft. A final reference to extramural play urging adherence to state and local regulations and NSWA standards was also missing from the published version. Hence, when "Desirable Practices in Athletics for Girls and Women" was published it reinforced the conservative stand on interscholastic competition which had typified earlier periods in NSWA history. Sections on standards, leadership, health, sport seasons, practice periods, types of competition, publicity, and education of spectators were quite obvious condensations of material in the standards monograph of 1937.

The need for local or specific interpretation of the NSWA standards monograph was illustrated in the work of the Midwest Association of College Teachers of Physical Education for Women. Its document, "Policies for Sports Days and Intramural Athletics for College Women" was authorized in April, 1941.

Five years ago, the members of the Women's Physical Education Section of the Ohio College Association faced a rapidly developing program of sports days which presented many pressing questions of policy and standard. A committee appointed by this association worked for three years on a statement of policies for the guidance of the colleges that were facing this problem. In 1938, a committee of the Midwest Association of College Teachers of Physical Education for
Women took over the project. The National Directors of Physical Education for College Women approved the Midwest policies in April, 1941, while delaying acceptance of the NSWA standards monograph. The Standards Committee of NSWA approved the Midwest statements at a December, 1940, meeting. The NSWA Legislative Board gave its approval in April, 1941. The Midwest policies abstracted and refined the NSWA standards, making them applicable for the college woman athlete. No legislative or enforcement procedures accompanied the Midwest statements. They remained recommendations or guides for actions, as were the standards in the NSWA monograph.

The Standards Committee had formulated plans to reorganize and enlarge its services to the membership, but the Second World War limited those plans. In fact, between 1942 and 1945 the Committee was nearly inactive. There is no evidence to indicate that the findings of the Committee on Competition of the National Directors organization had any influence on the work of the Standards Committee. Nor was the Standards Committee called upon to approve or investigate the national

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67 Margaret M. Duncan, "Report of the Standards Committee Chairman to the National Section on Women's Athletics," p. 3. DGWS Archives.

68 Dorothy S. Tapley, "Minutes of the Legislative Board," April, 1941, p. 10. DGWS Archives.
intercollegiate golf tournament sponsored by The Ohio State University in 1941. Thus, though the standards were recognized, the Standards Committee was not active in local interpretations or consultations for several years following the publication of the monograph in 1937. In 1941 it was still possible to examine practices designed to meet the needs of highly skilled women college students and conclude that diversity ruled the day.

Much of this evidence indicates that the problem is not being met in a fashion satisfactory to the students. It also indicates that there are nearly as many different schemes as there are institutions, and that some of these schemes involve undesirable practices and that others are likely to lead the profession into difficulties which would not be unlike those encountered in men's athletics.\(^{69}\)

Eleven national organizations provided members of a jury to study principles and procedures for conduct of interscholastic athletics for high school girls in a study by Katherine Montgomery.

National leaders in athletics for adolescent girls, as represented by members of the jury composed of qualified persons, are in agreement concerning the general conduct of athletic programs except where type of competition is concerned. Here, these leaders agree in approving intramurals, play days, and sports days, and in disapproving state and national tournaments but they are divided on the question of county and district tournaments, and on the advisability of track and field events in

\(^{69}\)"Girls Athletics" (unpublished paper in the records of Mary Yost at The Ohio State University), p. 7.
intramural, play days, and sports days.  

Differences among jurors within organizations, including the NSWA, were noted.

During the war the standards of NSWA became the accepted policies of several branches of women's war services. NSWA rules were also official for women's service athletic activities. As women took the places of men in industry, athletic activities increased. Accordingly, the "Standards Committee is studying the problems of athletics for women in industry and is planning an interpretation of standards for this group."  

As the Second World War drew to a close, the Standards Committee became involved in an extensive new project.

It was decided to allow all Sports Chairmen to set up specific standards for the conduct of tournaments . . . in their particular sports; these standards shall be submitted for approval to the Standards Committee which will in turn make recommendations and submit them to the Policy and Finance Committee.

An expansion of athletic activity was anticipated. The task of translating the general standards of the 1937 publication into specific policies for seventeen sports was to take years

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72 Ibid., p. 2.

73 Christine White (sec.), "Minutes of Meeting of Policy and Finance Committee," April 21, 1945, p. 3. DGWS Archives.
to accomplish. The statements submitted by the Sports Com-
mittees to Elinor M. Schroeder, Standards Committee Chairman,
were refined by one of her Wellesley graduate students. The
refined statements were evaluated by a jury of seven in each
sport. Each sport jury rated the fifty-three items submitted
to it for three age groups to determine if each item was
essential, important, or desirable for the sport under con-
sideration. Out of this process came guides to specific
action.74

Coincidentally, in October, 1946, fourteen colleges
were represented at a meeting at Temple University to formul-
ate desirable practices in specific sports.75 There is no
evidence that any communication took place between members at
the Temple meeting and the Standards Committee. It must be
remembered that the NSWA encouraged local groups to apply the
general standards to their local needs. Palmer thought such
local action was inadequate:

The period from 1940-47 has been one of increas-
ing confusion with everyone making his own

74 Statement expressed by Elinor M. Schroeder in an
address, "Standards for Girls' and Women's Athletics -- Why,
What, and How to Interpret to Participants and Public," at
Cleveland, Ohio, May 4, 1946. DGWS Archives.

75 Claire M. Johnston (ed.), "National Section on Women's
Athletics," Journal of Health and Physical Education, XVIII
decisions. Here and there are signs of local leadership but since the abandonment of the Women's Division national leadership has waned. 76

The Legislative Board and Standards Committee of NSWA persisted in their efforts to apply their standards for competition to specific sports. The "Basketball Standards for Girls and Women" first appeared in the 1947-48 basketball rule book. The standards were for competitive basketball, both intramural and extramural. The informal and occasional sports day was contrasted with the varsity, single highly selected team form of competition, but no preference was stated. The standards did emphasize NSWA's primary concern for the participation of the many. The basketball standards followed the pattern of earlier publications, listing statements concerning the welfare of the player, leaders and officials, publicity and public relations, and play periods and season limitations. 77

In a revised version in the 1949 rule guide, the basketball standards placed an unusual emphasis on extramural competition.

In secondary schools and in colleges or universities emphasis should be on the intramural program. Only as this program affords opportunity for all girls to participate in a variety of sports may it properly be extend-


ed to an extramural program. This same approach is recommended also for sports programs sponsored by recreational organizations or industry.

The desirable pattern for extramural experience is through the sports day. Extramural competition should not lead to county, state, district or national championships. All forms of competition should, rather, be carried on through a broad program of activities for many participants of various levels of skill and governed by standards such as those which have now been adapted to meet the distinctive characteristics of basketball and to the needs of participants at three age- or maturity-levels. 78

A description of a play day was added to the informal types of competition. 79 Otherwise, the standards remained essentially the same throughout the period.

An interesting sidelight occurred in 1945 as Elinor Schroeder was guiding the development of the first specific sports standards. In a letter she indicated that she had attempted to gain approval for evaluators from outside NSWA to study the standards.

I suggested that ratings or at least something of evaluation or consultation, be sought from leaders in other organizations. I suggested AAU Pres and 1 other member designated by him, E. Gates for YWCA and another designated, ditto for National Rec., etc. Industrial Rec. Ass'n. I wanted these at least as supplementary ratings.

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79 Ibid., p. 93.
This proposal was turned down flatly. "Dangerous" "these are our standards" etc. So I had to pull in my horns. . .

Therefore, the standards as rated are 100% NSWA -- committees, Board, and more recently the Reviewing Committee.

Tis too bad it is so, methinks -- but maybe we can in time submit our standards and have them rated by other groups -- would be a good idear. 80

The result of these expanded ratings and the cooperation that might have been engendered can only be speculated.

At the AAHPER convention in 1947 the Board of Directors approved a joint statement of policy on interscholastic athletics compiled by the AAHPER and the National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations (NFSHSAA). A continuing joint committee was also recommended. 81 Though women were included on the committee and their familiar themes appeared in the statement, it was clear that the principles applied more to boys than to girls.

The Physical Education Division of AAHPER passed two resolutions regarding athletic competition at that same 1947 convention.

College women. Be it resolved that controlled competition on all levels of ability be conducted in a spirit consistent with the broad functions of physical education and that such

80 Letter from Elinor Schroeder to Alfreda Mosscrop, Chairman of the National Section on Women's Athletics, May 7, 1947, p. 1. DGWS Archives.

competition be administered by, or have the approval of departments of physical education for women in accordance with NSWA standards.

... that we go on record as definitely opposed to interscholastic competition for elementary schools boys and girls.

The work of NSWA was, thus, recognized and approved by another division of its own professional association.

The NSWA standards monograph was revised in 1948 under the leadership of Elinor Schroeder. Bessie Rudd told of the revision sessions in which she participated with Schroeder and NSWA chairman Marion Purbeck.

We three and one or two others spent 3 days in a New York hotel, working about 8-10 hours a day. Then there was much correspondence, revising and adding, and more meetings. The whole point of doing NSWA standards was because the NAAF resolutions were too restricting, and not realistic on what was going on.

I was hesitant about being on the committee because I was involved in an intercollegiate program at Radcliffe both as a student and after as an instructor.

I am sure that the NSWA standards had great influence on intercollegiate programs and in High School programs, because guide lines were given.

The revision task was clearly not an easy one despite the fact that only minor changes were made.


... certainly I recog [sic] that standards are a vital issue and dear to every heart. Certainly I ought to know how hard it is to meet all contingencies, how hard to word things, how much interp [sic] has to be done. After all, I've lived with standards for yrs and yrs -- went thru the earlier struggles ... when we finally produced the Monograph. Standards is our essence and of course everyone has ideas and a right to express.

THE thing that has bothered me this past yr, and which seemed so unfair under the circumstances, was the charges that an "eastern clique" was runni [sic] NSWA, and pre-empting standards work. (among other NSWA projects) ... Subsequently, in the fall of 1945, alternative plans for procedure were submitted in duplicate. ... The procedure followed was approved ... We have followed orders all the way. ... And you know how carefully we have weighed every statement, every comma.

So far as I can see and so far as I evaluate what is good and what not good to do, it seems to me the issue is not what we believe is ideal but rather what we think we can put over to win interest and adoption of standards as a working basis among those groups where conditions are free-for-all.

The observation about the eastern interests assuming much of the work of NSWA was both predictable and excusable. Many of the women active in the organizations were easterners, a circumstance easily perpetuated because of the many appointive positions in the NSWA structure. Among the easterners were Elinor Schroeder and Elizabeth Beall of Wellesley, Alfreda Mosscrop of Vassar, Bessie Rudd of Pembroke College, Christine White of Wheaton, Josephine Fiske of Goucher College

84 Letter from Elinor Schroeder to Bessie Rudd, September 15, 1947, p. 1. DGWS Archives.
in Baltimore, Ruth Atwell of George Washington University in
the District of Columbia, Wilhelmine Meissner of Flushing
High School on Long Island, and Ruth Abernathy of the State
Education Department in New York. Others, not from the
East who were active in NSWA were Anna Espenschade of the
University of California, Martha Gable of the Philadelphia
Public Schools, Alice Schriver of Washington University in
St. Louis, Norma Leavitt of the University of Missouri, and
Grace Fox of the Florida State College for Women. Even the
various chairmen were elected within NSWA rather than in a
floor vote at conventions. Had committee members been located
over the country, the budget, in all likelihood, could not
have been stretched to pay travel, lodging, and food expenses
for an extended meeting of all members. These difficulties
plagued the organization throughout its history. Whether the
positions taken represented the will of the membership is a
matter of doubt or, at least, tenuous conjecture.

As mentioned, there were few changes in the standards
document which was published in 1948. In organization it was
a duplicate of its 1937 predecessor. Phrases and word-usage
were brought up to date. "Extramural" was the word chosen to
describe interschool programs. As in the earlier edition, no
special preference was given any of the various forms of com­
petition: play days, sports days, telegraphic and invitational
meets. The availability of standards for specific sports was
announced at the end of the monograph. Little reference to these "new" standards appeared in the literature of that period.

While the standards remained relatively constant, a significant modification of NSWA's earlier position in opposition to the participation of girls and women in the Olympic Games occurred. The report of an NSWA Olympic Study Committee urged that standards for competition be suggested to the Olympic Committee.

1. The participants have a doctor's certificate of approval for competition in the Olympics.
2. The participants be at least 16 years of age.
3. The participant be coached by women trained in physical education from the time the preliminary preparation begins, through the competition, and, where this is impossible, that the participants be under the direct supervision of trained women physical educators.
4. The participants be adequately housed en route and at the Olympics in areas entirely separate from the men.
5. The health of the individual be considered of paramount importance at all times.

It is further recommended that:

The Olympic Games Committee seek the advice of leaders in the physical education profession in regard to policies concerning women in the Olympics.

Convinced that efforts to stop participation had been fruitless, NSWA chose to attempt to become involved in policy-determination for participants.

The "Desirable Practices" brochure was again revised. The 1949 edition faithfully resembled the 1948 standards monograph. The material was also printed in the official publication of the National Recreation Association for the benefit of those who worked with girls and women's athletics in non-educational settings. "Desirable Practices" was also adopted by the Florida High School Athletic Association for its girls' programs.

Specific sport standards were completed in March, 1951, with the publication of winter sports standards. In a survey updating information concerning the use of standards, forty-four state basketball chairmen reported to the national organization.

Thirty-nine state chairmen reported using NSWA standards. Fourteen of the thirty-nine also used standards set up by the State Athletic Association in some areas of the state. Four states indicated that State Athletic Associa-

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tion standards were used exclusively.91

The NSWA standards were used as models for the policies developed by the Women's Physical Education Section of the Ohio College Association. The Ohio statement superseded the Midwest Association's 1941 policy statement, because practices in the 1950's were different from those of the previous decade.92

NSWA ideals received support in the Report of National Conference on Cooperation in Health Education.

Interschool competition for girls should be limited to invitational events, chiefly in the form of sports days or play days where mass participation is emphasized. All girls' athletic activities should be taught, coached, and refereed by professionally prepared women leaders, and should be divorced entirely from any interscholastic athletic contests for boys.93

However, Riherd found that NSWA standards were not used by the forty national sports organizations conducting women's programs. The sports organizations were interested in promoting their sports rather than the welfare of the partici-


92 Sub-committee of the Athletic Policies Committee of the Women's Physical Education Section of the Ohio College Association, "Policies for Sports Days for College Women," October, 1951, pp. 2-3. (Mimeoographed.)

Hoping to clarify its scope of interest, NSWA became NSGWS in 1953. Accordingly, the change necessitated yet another revision of the standards monograph. Again there were no significant alterations in the format of the monograph. "Sports" replaced "athletics" throughout the publication.  


1. The sports program should meet individual needs with consideration given to physique, interests, ability, experience, health, and maturity.

2. A medical examination should be given each girl prior to participating in the sports program.

3. A healthful, safe, and sanitary environment should be provided for all activities.

4. Every girl should have the opportunity to participate in a variety of activities including both individual and team sports.


5. Competition should be equitable between girls of approximately the same ability and maturity with due consideration given to players ranging from the unskilled to the expert.

6. Lengths of sports seasons should be limited and maximum number of practice periods and games carefully weighed.

7. Games should be played according to girls' rules and the officiating done by qualified officials.

8. Types of competition should be varied. Intramural competition should be stressed and extramural competition be an outgrowth of intramural program. Extramural competition should be limited to a small geographic area; should be separate from boys' contests when possible; and should include informal social events after the games.

9. The leadership for the program should be of the highest caliber. The instructing, coaching, and officiating should be by qualified leaders and preferably by women wherever possible.

These principles appeared in basketball rule guides for many years.

In 1954 the Education Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators published its position on school athletics. Indicating its belief that the athletic experience was educationally valuable, the Commission urged that schools end their neglect of girls' athletics by providing adequate

leadership, facilities and program. NSGWS rules and standards were also recommended by the Commission.97

In April, 1954, a committee was appointed to develop a plan to determine the manner in which various people interpreted NSGWS standards. After preparing discussion materials and holding eight preliminary discussions, the results were not too favorable.

A. Relatively few individuals anywhere are sure they understand what a Sports Day is. The variety of viewpoints and questions expressed within discussion groups tends to add confusion. . . .

B. . . . Basic emphasis everywhere is on all of the girls; problem of the highly skilled has not been solved to the satisfaction of any group. "NSGWS gives inadequate direction in this area," is frequently expressed.

C. . . . Rated officials desirable, BUT (1) who has them (2) where can you find them (3) how can you pay them (4) how can you train high school students to do a good job (5) Intra-mural standards differ so markedly that this rating is 1.0 better than none (6) students can't control play if it tends to be rough, etc.

Even the leaders chosen to guide discussions gave different interpretations of the materials.

When all factors were considered, standards were matters of local concern. Christine White, of Wheaton College, who was


quite active in the NSWA, indicated that policies which gov­erned competition at her institution were formulated and implemented by the Physical Education Department. Similarly, the practices at Smith College reflected the will of the chairman of physical education, Dorothy Ainsworth, and her staff. "They felt that because of their numbers and the high level of skill, they had enough high level of play without going outside the college. Miss Ainsworth was adamant about having no intercollegiates. I do not think the students felt the same way." 100

No doubt the Standards Committee was confronted by an impossible task in meeting the interests of all groups concerned with women's athletics. The position of NSGWS represented

. . . the carefully considered consensus of thousands of experienced women about what is "right" for girls in one important area of their lives, defining one set of appropriate roles for girls in relation to changing cultural concepts.

That they represented a consensus of thousands might have been based on more hope and faith than fact. However, there could be no question of the careful deliberations used in

99 Letter from Christine White to the writer, November 22, 1971, p. 2.

100 Letter from Bessie H. Rudd to the writer, November 21, 1971, p. 1.

formulating the standards.

When it is necessary to revise, enlarge, or change standards, the Committee on Standards follows a definite procedure: 1. Each sports subcommittee is asked to review the specific standards for its sport and to suggest changes, revisions, additions, and deletions. 2. The Committee on Standards then reviews the suggestions and submits the statements to experts in the field for their approval or disapproval and suggestions. 3. The final statements are drawn up and submitted to the Legislative Board of NSGWS for final action. If the Board votes its approval, only then are the revisions adopted and published in the guides.

CONCLUSION

The period 1941-1955 closed with few issues settled. The National Section on Women's Athletics and its successor, the National Section for Girls and Women's Sports, continued to favor sports day competition rather than the play day form of the previous period. There were fewer major conflicts among organizations concerned about girls and women's athletics and sports. A linguistic distinction between "sports" and "athletics" was re-emerging. Researchers, such as Naomi Leyhe of Indiana University, pointed out the shortcomings of the standards for competition.

The literature revealed a lack of scientific data in regard to the various phases of competition. In order to support policies and standards

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or perhaps in order to alter present policies and standards, controlled experimentation is recommended concerning such factors as: (a) The amount of harm, if any, done by excessive competition, (b) The effects of different types of competition at the various grade (age) levels; (c) The effect of county, district, state and national tournaments on adolescent girls and young adults; and (d) The physical and emotional results of various types of competition.

Two major standards revisions occurred but no change in format or philosophy resulted. In fact, the philosophy of the 1937 document withstood the years remarkably well, proving that the years consumed in preparation of that original document were well spent. The standards were interpreted in various forms. Sets of standards were formulated for the sports in which NSWA had an interest. Of major import to this study were the specific basketball standards which first appeared in the 1947 rule guide. True to tradition, the game of basketball was not standardized, although a breakthrough of sorts occurred when NSWA and the AAU exchanged members of their basketball committees.

World War II had a delimiting influence on athletic competition. Subsequently, a gradual, but steady, increase was noted.

The present trend in competitive sports for girls and women tends to be back to interscholastic and intercollegiate competition

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more on the extramural basis than the varsity type with the emphasis upon individual and dual sports. The situation will determine the type of competition.

The Ohio State University initiated the women's intercollegiate golf tournament in 1941. Though a companion effort to establish a women's national collegiate athletic association failed, the tournament had a profound and lasting effect. In fact, in the next chapter, the ultimate result of the golf tournament will be noted in the development of a national association to guide and control women's intercollegiate athletic championships.

Finally, it should be noted that the complexity of cultural factors influencing attitudes toward athletic competition for girls and women began to receive more thoughtful attention. Recognition, however, was simply one step in coping with the significance of the realization.

Our purposes must certainly include opportunity for women to participate in a wide variety of sports and recreational activities, yet we must, on the other hand, be extremely careful and be aware of the fact that we must help our young women develop feminine attributes so that they can take their important place in society.

Caught on the horns of such a dilemma, girls and women's athletics moved into yet another era.

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CHAPTER VI

CHANGES AND CHAMPIONSHIPS: 1956-1971

INTRODUCTION

If the 1940 through 1955 period could be identified as one of controlled growth and adjustment, the years 1956 through 1971, in contrast, were reminiscent of earlier times of conflict and complexity. Athletics in general and basketball competition in particular became contemporary versions of their much modified ancestors. Competition among schools and colleges increased in both quantity and quality. The game of basketball changed markedly. A national organization emerged to guide and control competition for college women. This organization was the culmination of the work of women physical educators who had cautiously nurtured the growth and development of sports programs. In all, attitudes toward competition, increases in competitive events, and changes in rules demanding more skillful performance grew in harmony during this period.

It was not a time without conflict and problems. The DGWS and Amateur Athletic Union resolved some of their differences, but relations with the National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations (NFSHSAA) and the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) became strained. The
middle-of-the-road, noncommittal position of the Division for Girls and Women's Sports (DGWS) was inadequate to cope with pressures from various groups. DGWS found itself tumbling over the brink of commitment.

Standards to guide and control girls and women's athletic competition proliferated between 1956 and 1971. The results of research in various disciplines gradually added substance to position statements. In turn, unfounded assumptions were identified and gradually discarded. In light of research and a variety of other factors the tone of standards became less dictatorial and pedantic. Rules changes, too, reflected a boldness partially born of the confidence instilled by the results of research.

At last, competitive athletics had begun to gain recognition as a valuable, though still extracurricular, educational experience. By 1956 a majority of the women members of the United States Olympic team were chosen from among college students. Times had indeed changed from the days when a woman was forced to choose between athletic ambitions and a career in physical education. For years the two interests had not been a favorable combination in the minds of many

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women physical educators. Any sport interests generated by school physical education programs were, evidently, to remain sporting. The distinction between sport and athletics, the latter categorized as undesirable, had been a majority view among women physical educators for years. As attitudes and programs changed the future possibilities grew diverse and unpredictable. Acceptance of the inevitability of change did not provide ready means for coping with it.

ATHLETIC COMPETITION FOR GIRLS AND WOMEN

While some leaders welcomed greater opportunities for athletic competition and organized to accommodate them, others met the situation with more caution. Whether attacking the future boldly or timidly, women did not reject tradition. The new experiences were planned upon the foundation of long-standing standards for competition. The health and welfare of the player remained a focus of the programs. Simultaneously, standards formulated by national organizations became increasingly more refined and explicit.

Critics in this era offered contrasting viewpoints. In the past interscholastic and intercollegiate programs were to have been carefully planned extensions of the intramural program. Compliance with that dictum had been burdensome to both programs and participants. Barbara Schrodt may have expressed sentiments harbored by many of her less vocal colleagues when she spoke to members of the Western Society for Physical Educa-
tion of Collage Women in 1966.

I do not believe that extramural sports are an outgrowth of the intramural programs. You look at them very carefully. Really and honestly, do you pick your athletes from the intramural teams? Isn't it true that when you have an extramural sport within a few weeks that team has left the equivalent intramural program far behind. Intramurals is for a different kind of girl completely and to build our extramural program on intramurals will not be increasing the standard of play in my opinion.2

Christine White whose active career also spanned an earlier period when women were struggling to gain the upper hand regarding competition offered a moderate view of the trends in the decade of the 1960's.

I believe that, in general the present trend toward more extensive intercollegiate competition for women is a healthy one to the extent that it contributes to the total educational program of the college. The type and scope of any such program must be determined within the educational framework of the individual institution. Policies and practices which do not have no justification for their existence. I still believe [sic] strongly in the old MSWA-DGWS statement that the one purpose of athletics for girls and women is the good of those who play; I should hate to see it otherwise and at the risk of sounding alarmist I would hate to see women repeat the mistakes made in men's intercollegiate competition in the first quarter of the century.3


3Letter from Christine White, former Chairman, National Section on Women's Athletics, to the writer, November 22, 1971, p. 1.
Similarly, Mabel Lee could not forget her years of opposition to men promoters and exploiters of women's athletics when asked how she viewed developments in women's athletics.

With much dismay though not with alarm for I am sure today's and tomorrow's leaders will be equal to the situation they are now brewing but it will be a hard fight when men promoters start to "muscle in" on what they (DGWS) are now building up to as soon as it begins to look promising to them (the men) financially and publicity-wise. I fought the men promoters in my day -- today's leaders can fight the next rounds but my generation didn't "ask for" the fight and as I see it today's are. We'll just have to wait and see what happens next! . . . I sound like Women's Lib which I am not in many ways. But I do abhor men sports promoters who try to take women's sports out from under control of women.

Interestingly, men's athletics were being subjected to much criticism just as women's athletics were growing. Jack Scott, founder and director of the Institute for the Study of Sport and Society, attracted considerable attention as a result of his attacks on racism, false amateurism, drug abuse, authoritarian coaches, and other negative elements he associated with athletics. Women could not relax their enduring wariness of the male model in athletics. In a 1962

4Letter from Mabel Lee, Professor Emeritus, University of Nebraska, to the writer, November 8, 1971, pp. 2-3.

study Griffith identified a continuing need for supervision of girls' interscholastic basketball teams by mature women. In his study of teacher dismissals in Iowa he found that half of those dismissed for immorality, thirteen percent of 288 dismissed teachers, were men coaches accused of improper relationships with members of girls' basketball teams they coached. The cautions over the years about the dangers of men coaches without women chaperons had not been wasted. The need for standards had not diminished as competition increased.

The concern, then, was still one of promoting the development of competition without attendant difficulties. Thomas J. Hamilton, former chairman of the Olympic Development Committee, asked selected athletic leaders how women athletes might be developed in the United States.

... the substance of their suggestions was that if acceptance of girls' sports could be gained in the schools and colleges from the women physical education leaders, a proper program might be evolved. I was told that the only way this could be achieved was to get the idea initiated and sponsored by women who had stature in the physical education field and who were progressive and forward looking.

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These progressive women were earning their way to leadership positions in national organizations guiding sports programs. Their efforts to develop programs were abetted by research findings regarding the potential of women athletes.

Though research on women athletes continued to be a neglected area in the 1950's, in the next decade that situation was reversed. Many aspects of women in athletics were examined. Results supported some beliefs and destroyed others. Those writing standards for women's athletic competition became increasingly concerned that their work should be based on the findings of researchers. They found support from various sources. For example, a challenge to the assumption of the masculinizing influence of athletics came with the realization that body build would not be altered significantly by exercise.8 In an effort to determine the relative strenuousness of running events ranging from the 220-yard dash to the mile run, Skubic and Hilgendorf, supported by DGWS funds, found all four runs were "strenuous work."9 Also studying strenuousness in terms of heart rates, Griffin found field hockey a more strenuous

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8 Anna S. Espenschade, "Women in Competitive Sport," Proceedings, First National Institute, op. cit., p. 28

activity than basketball among selected-student groups.\(^{10}\)

Comparing her findings with information about nonathletes, Gyula J. Erdelyi, M.D., found fewer complications in pregnancies, shorter labor, and no disturbance of the onset of menarche among the 729 Hungarian women athletes she studied. Her conclusion was widely cited:

> In my opinion those female athletes who are perfectly healthy gynecologically and whose menstrual cycles do not show any unfavorable change under the stress of competitive sports and whose performance during the period is not worse than their usual averages may participate in competitive sports during their actual periods. However, in view of the literature and my own experiences, we should not approve participation in competition during the menstrual period in certain sports in which female athletes show a higher percentage of poor performances during the period.\(^{11}\)

As a result of these efforts, standards became less arbitrary and generally tended to allow more intense competition.

Meanwhile, the Amateur Athletic Union reported a survey in which medical opinion was polled. The consensus of opinion of the medical groups "was that athletic competition was not

\(^{10}\) Norma Sue Griffin, "A Comparison of the Heart Rate of Female College Participants in Field Hockey and Basketball" (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon, 1967), p. 71.

detrimental to the well being of the female in good health when the activity is carefully supervised."12 They also agreed that "while the masculine type may enter athletics, athletics do not make masculine types."13

The physiological impact of athletics was only one concern of researchers. Employing psychological testing instruments, Malumphy found, contrary to popular stereotype, that women college team sport participants were reserved, shy, and sober.14 Peterson and others had found comparable traits in a study of Olympic and AAU team sport athletes.15 Interpreters were cautioned that the evidence did not justify concluding that athletics bred certain personality types.

Social aspects of women's athletics were also under investigation. Ernst Jokl, noted for his research in physical education, suggested that "A start has scarcely been made in the development of the superb athletic endowment of white girls


13Ibid.


in the United States whose great potential abilities are held back by taboos."¹⁶ Rosenberg and Sutton-Smith noted an expansion of role perception as grade school girls became increasingly involved in games previously identified with boys.¹⁷ Despite this involvement in a wider variety of games most women still did not seek to become highly skilled athletes. According to Ulrich "a great deal of the difficulty that the American woman has had in discerning her sex-oriented role stems from the fact that the cultural concept of the female role negates the cultural concept of the American personality."¹⁸

The Research Committee of DGWS compiled the results of research on girls and women's athletics into a publication for its membership. Planned for periodic revision, DGWS Research Reports: Women in Sports, was written in the language of the layman so that the results of research could be available to a greater number of those who might use the information.¹⁹ The research reported in the digest represented a


mere introduction to the multitude of subjects available to the researcher in women’s athletics.

Questions of ethics confronted the researcher and standards writer. Erdelyi represented one point of view.

There is no doubt that we can influence the onset of a menstrual period with hormones, especially since we have the powerful new steroids. We should not consider this procedure as "doping" since the hormone we use will not increase the original capability of the female athlete, it only intends to eliminate the disadvantageous premenstrual phase or menstruation.

The medical-ethical side of this problem is still disputed. I believe we should disapprove any attempt to change a regular menstrual cycle but in those cases where we are dealing with an irregular, abnormal menstrual cycle we may schedule the individual therapy so that the onset of the menstrual period would not interfere with the date of an important contest, for instance a World or Olympic championship.

As the researcher experimented with the influence of hormones and drugs on athletic performance, the writer of standards was confronted with the necessity of dealing with the associated ethical issues. At the same time quantitative evidence was increasing, it became clear that certain judgments of qualitative aspects of performance rested upon human interpretation.

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As will be noted, greater care was exercised in handling this area of the standards as the burden of that judgment became clearer.

THE GAME OF BASKETBALL

Experimentation was not confined to the laboratory. Action research occurred constantly on the basketball court as hundreds of coaches and players experimented with and evaluated proposed rules changes. At the beginning of the 1956-1971 period Doris Soladay, chairman of the Vermont DGWS at that time, explained why girls' rules had to be different from those for boys.

Rules for men and women are different in such games as basketball because of basic anatomical differences. The typical female body has wider hips and a broader pelvis with shorter oblique legs. Contrast this with the male physique — broad shoulders, narrow hips, the bones of the upper leg nearly parallel and perpendicular to the floor — and the consequent decrease in efficiency for women in activities involving jumping and running is evident. Therefore, in order for a girl to equal the running or jumping performance of a boy, she must work much harder than he to counteract this difference. The girls rules are constructed to eliminate much of the personal contact involved which could result in permanent injury.

By 1971 Soladay was a commissioner in the organization sponsoring national championships, including basketball which

was played according to rules nearly identical to those for the men's game. The game and the people guiding its growth had changed often and markedly during the intervening years.

In 1957 the free throw lane was widened, forcing the tall forward to be more mobile. In 1960 it was permissible to tie a ball in an opponent's possession. Ball handling, as a result, had to be sharper. At last, guards could block opponents' shots. The three-bounce dribble in the 1961 rules allowed players to change direction. In the same year it was decided to award the ball to an opponent behind the end line after a field goal or successful free throw. No longer would the official need to run with the ball to midcourt for a center throw after every field goal. After a year of experimentation, the roving player concept which allowed two players to play the whole court was approved in 1962. All players would henceforth need to develop both offensive and


24 Morrison, op. cit., p. 59.

defensive skills. It is interesting to note that the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) had adopted the rule in 1936 after it had been used for the first time in the game which determined third place in the national tournament that year.

Finally, in 1964 the DGWS and the AAU produced a joint set of rules. An overtime period had replaced sudden death in cases of tie games. A center jump started each quarter. Goal tending was added to the list of violations. Two free throws were awarded for fouls in the last two minutes of the fourth quarter and in overtime periods.

Considering the slow development of the game, it must have seemed unlikely that any additional major changes would occur in the near future. At that point it seemed safe to one basketball historian to make a prediction. "There seems little likelihood that the unlimited dribble will be incorporated into women's rules. The removal of the division line and the permitting of all players to cover the court also seems a remote possibility."


28 Morrison, op. cit., p. 77.
Coaches and players were to find their new roving player strategy had become obsolete quickly. In 1966 the continuous dribble changed the pace as well as the nature of the game. Once a dribble was initiated the movements of a player were much less predictable than when she had to stop at the end of three bounces.

The most significant single change in the history of women's basketball was yet to come. In February, 1969, the Joint DGWS-AAU Basketball Rules Committee decided upon a two-year experimental period during which all teams in the country were encouraged to explore the possibilities of the five-player, full-court, game. Opinionnaires appeared in both DGWS and AAU rule guides. When the results were tabulated, the five-player game was the nearly unanimous choice of the respondents. The committee adopted the five-player rules as the official rules for girls and women's basketball. The game had changed remarkably in ten years.

Developments in the rules were, for the first time, ahead of other changes in the game. The great majority of colleges and universities continued to favor informal, sports


day competition. Basketball continued to be the most popular form of intercollegiate athletic activity. In a 1968 study Heflin found that "the existing competitive programs in selected colleges and universities in the United States were relatively recent." The majority of programs were less than ten years old.

Informal leagues were not uncommon. Often representatives from neighboring institutions met to plan schedules for the coming season. On the whole the intercollegiate program was typified by informality in contrast with the men's program.

Of course, there were exceptions. The Wayland College Flying Queens basketball team nearly lost its wings in 1961. The College had announced the discontinuation of the team because of the expense of the program. Scholarships were to be stopped also. The team was saved by the business community of the Plainview, Texas, area, which contributed funds to underwrite expenses. Wayland was a member of the National Girls' Basketball League.


33 Letter from Christine White, former Chairman, National Section on Women's Athletics, to the writer, November 22, 1971, p. 1.


The greatest amount of competitive basketball was still played by high school girls. For example, Tennessee had a quarter century of tradition underlying its program in 1956 when over three hundred teams were competing across the state. Only thirty-seven were coached by women. Men officials were employed exclusively since the girls traveled with and played the same schedule as the boys' teams. No women physical educators participated in rule-making or policy decisions. After efforts to exact rule compromises from the National Section on Women's Athletics failed, Tennessee had turned to the Girls' National Basketball Committee rules in 1952.36

Though Tennessee, Iowa, Texas, and Oklahoma typically garnered the center of attention, other localities were also actively competing in interscholastic basketball. The Hanover high school girls in Massachusetts won ninety-nine league games without a loss between 1963 and 1972. The team had also won southeastern and eastern Massachusetts tournament titles in its division of play.37

In a sense, then, intercollegiate basketball competition among the majority of institutions lagged behind interscholastic programs in quantity and intensity. College teams such as Wayland, playing in a league as well as in the annual AAU


tournament, were rare exceptions. It was not until 1969 that the first National Invitational Collegiate Women's Basketball Tournament was held at West Chester, Pennsylvania. "This tournament was the first attempt to bring together women's collegiate teams for national competition." The first National Intercollegiate Championship in basketball was held in 1972. Intercollegiate basketball competition had, after thirty years, joined golf as a national championship activity for women.

ORGANIZATIONS TO GUIDE AND CONTROL GIRLS AND WOMEN'S ATHLETICS

The informal meetings in 1948 between the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) and National Section on Girls and Women's Sports (NSGWS, which was succeeded by the Division for Girls and Women's Sports, DGWS) representatives regarding unification of basketball rules grew to formal, joint committee status in 1968. The union was not free of suspicions. When the DGWS representative returned from an early exploratory meeting in 1959 recommending the joint committee concept, her colleagues on the Executive Council of DGWS considered the matter at length before approval was voted.

We should look carefully at a compromise with AAU. To many DGWS members this would be waving a red flag in their faces. There are plenty of people who object to our working with AAU. It may be standards and not rules, but even so, the feeling would be the same. Our concomitant attitudes may be quite different.

If we cannot change them perhaps we should join them. We are changing our attitude about competition and perhaps we have some responsibility to meet with them. We should be more flexible so we can change in keeping with the times.

Perhaps we have not appealed to the highly skilled as much as we should and the AAU may be giving us a jolt that we need.

Because of our cooperation with this group through a joint committee on Track and Field we have women officials and chaperons (even if men coach) for AAU and Olympic meets.

We deplore differences in rules and for the last two years the AAU has sought a meeting so we could get together. Now strangely, we are on the receiving end.

We are obligated to follow through. To accept the invitation does not necessarily mean we will change any rules. This will give us a step further to present our own ideas and ideals.

Is this a class-cast problem? DGWS may be considered high class. AAU may appeal to a different type girl. We should not expect them to accept our standards when there are probably standards of their own for their own group. We should bless 'em, work with 'em, and hope they can enjoy one day, the same kind of life we do.39

By 1964 considerable progress had been made not only in the development of a common set of rules but also in other noteworthy areas.

Very close and amicable working relationships have been established with this group and real progress was made: (1) The AAU and DGWS basketball rules are now entirely the same; (2) DGWS officials, including the DGWS representative, refereed at the National Tournament, the first time women have officiated these games; (3) A woman with DGWS background is the new Women’s Basketball Chairman; (4) The chairman is attempting to get more DGWS people to work with the AAU Basketball Committee; (5) The DGWS representative served on the selection committee for the World Tournament and All-American teams. Strong, positive representation to this group has certainly paid off.

On January 1, 1968, the Joint DGWS-AAU Rules Committee became official.

The Athletic Federation of College Women (AFCW), a service organization for its athletic/recreation association members, underwent two name changes and a major reorganization between 1956 and 1971. In 1957 the organization became the Athletic and Recreation Federation of College Women (ARFCW). In 1961 the Faculty Advisory Committee of

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ARFCW asked DGWS to consider assuming responsibility for the ongoing work of ARFCW.43 After the Board of Directors of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation assented to the change, the services of ARPCW were incorporated into DGWS.44 In a "Policy Statement on Competitive Events" ARFCW recommended use of DGWS standards in addition to its own guidelines.

1. An event must originate within a college or university of A.R.F.C.W. membership.

2. A student who participates must attend college or university for one semester or two quarters and be a student in good standing.

3. The name National or Intercollegiate may not be used.

4. An event must be recognized by the A.R.F.C.W. before its name can be used in connection with the event or the event can be publicized in its newsletter, the Sportlight.45

In 1971 the ARFCW became College Women in Sport.46 The national organization existed to sponsor the biennial conference, a forum for the consideration of national issues. State and local ARFCW groups were left to determine their own futures.

44Flinchum, loc. cit.
46Flinchum, op. cit., p. 80
The Division for Girls and Women's Sports (DGWS) of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation (AAHPER) increased its role in the development of competitive sport programs between 1956 and 1971. The organization acted both independently and in conjunction with a variety of groups to achieve control over interscholastic and intercollegiate programs.

As the period began the Board of Directors of AAHPER had invited the National Section of Girls and Women's Sports (NSGWS) to consider accepting divisional status in the Association. Rejecting the invitation in 1955, the Legislative Board did forward the petition for a change in status in 1956 after a personal appeal by Ruth Abernathy, the AAHPER president. NSGWS officially became the Division for Girls and Women's Sports on June 1, 1957. It seemed "the real significance of the transition lies in its promise of opportunity to strengthen and expand our work and to better meet specific interests." Among the many problems which plagued the efficient operation of DGWS and the effective application of its standards was one of communication. Partially, the problem was one of communication. Partially, the problem was one of

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representation of concerned interests.

The school administrators, teachers, or coaches have little, if any, direct affiliation with the administrative machinery of this group other than services rendered upon request. It might be that if some procedure were advanced whereby the persons directly in charge of athletic programs were given more recognition and allowed more participation, the strength of this organization would double.49

Because these groups had no representation on the Executive Council, it was imperative that decisions affecting their interests be communicated. DGWS never did solve the communication problem, though the matter was considered repeatedly. In 1960 the Executive Council took no action on a recommendation to improve the information to constituents.

There seems to be a need for a specialized and inexpensive publication each year relating to the various division interests of the Association. For each Division, a combination convention proceedings, yearbook of activities, and annual of highlights would best describe the needed publication.50

Because of the possibility of misinterpretation, a motion to distribute Executive Council minutes to state DGWS chairmen was rejected in 1970. The minutes could be loaned only at


Finally, in 1970 the DGWS chairman chose to share Executive Council concerns by means of general mailings to AAWPER members interested in girls and women's sports. Unfortunately, the information about interscholastic controls and the threat created by the National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations to take responsibility for that area of competition in the first mailing was misleading. The inability to satisfactorily solve the communications problem was an unfortunate shortcoming which undoubtedly affected the achievement of DGWS goals. In fact, the members must have found it difficult to identify with goals and positions which were supposed to have been an expression of "their" own views. DGWS, after all, was obliged to reflect as well as guide the will of its membership.

The National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations (NFSHSAA) became more deeply involved in girls' interscholastic athletics in the 1960's. Elements of its position agreed with the standards of DGWS. The NFSHSAA advocated a wide variety of sports, as many participants as possible, regular physical examinations, and social activities with every contest. However, the differences between NFSHSAA and DGWS were also made clear. The NFSHSAA indicated that


52 Letter from Edith Betts, vice-president of the Division for Girls and Women's Sports to members of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, October, 1970. (Mimeographed.)
athletic programs for girls were valuable experiences if appropriate leadership was provided.

State associations and divisions of the D.G.W.S. differ in their beliefs as to whether interscholastic contests for girls make a contribution great enough to balance the difficulties which often arise when such contests are sponsored. These opinions are greatly influenced by conditions in connection with teaching personnel and training facilities. Almost any program, including an interscholastic program, can be made to function efficiently if there are adequate, well trained personnel and proper facilities. In their absence there are many dangers.53

The great diversity in interscholastic athletic programs had led one DGWS chairman, Katherine Ley, to admit to high school athletic administrators, "I am confused, and I am present chairman of the organization that writes the standards for girls competition."54 Confronted with the increase in girls' interscholastic programs, the National Council of NFSHSAA urged its member state associations to get involved in a leadership role.55

The DGWS became concerned in 1970 when the NFSHSAA decided to publish basketball rules. Though DGWS had


recognized state athletic associations as the local regulatory body for girls interscholastic programs in 1968, there was no intimation that the NFSHSAA might add yet another set of girls' basketball rules to the list that DGWS had been struggling so long to reduce and unify. As a result, DGWS was provoked to open that new line of communication to its members. Edith Betts, DGWS chairman, expressed the concern of the Executive Council in strong terms in the first general mailing to AAHPER members interested in girls and women's sports.

Not only may the making of girls rules be taken out of the hands of those women who direct the program, but the training of officials and the workshops and clinics which DGWS sponsors on the local level may be in jeopardy. Members were urged to utilize DGWS state services, talk to principals and men physical education teachers, and write state advisory committees. The concern of the DGWS was apparent to the writer in conversations with officers during a visit to Washington, D. C., in June, 1971. A subsequent general mailing from Betts urged DGWS members to cooperate with state athletic or activities associations in order to encourage the use of DGWS rules and standards.

56 Letter from Edith Betts, Vice-President of the Division for Girls and Women's Sports, to members of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, October 1970. (Mimeographed.)

57 Letter from Edith Betts, Vice-President of the Division for Girls and Women's Sports, to members of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, May 5, 1971. (Mimeographed.)
were also advised by the next DGWS chairman, JoAnne Thorpe, to stimulate the selection of women to direct girls' programs at the state level.58

A National Conference on Girls' Sports Programs for Secondary Schools was sponsored by DGWS in the summer of 1971. One hundred thirty instead of the four hundred expected participants considered the issues and problems of their sport programs. The discussions and resolutions from the Conference led the DGWS vice-presidents in attendance to propose a Secondary School Sports Council and an Equal Opportunities for Women in Sports Commission in order to improve athletic programs and to study discrimination against women in sports programs.59 In a sense, DGWS had turned its attention to the secondary schools because of criticisms suggesting that its concern had become focused on the college level. For many years the leadership of DGWS had been chosen from college members. Their natural interests and the attention demanded by expanding college athletic programs had caused a concentration of energies on that level. A greater balance of interests seemed necessary if the entire membership was to be served.

58Letter from JoAnne Thorpe, Vice-President of the Division for Girls and Women's Sports, to members of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, October, 1971. (Mimeographed.)

59Ibid., p. 1.
We are interested in serving the secondary school teachers and this can be done most effectively by encouraging them to serve on committees of their state high school associations. Cooperation all along the line is necessary if we are to be successful.

The United States Olympic Development Committee, formed in September, 1958, was interested in aligning its efforts with the policies for competition of DGWS. As a result two organizations jointly sponsored five national sports institutes. The first institute in November, 1963, was a landmark in the development of sports for girls and women.

It is the first concrete effort of any sports organization in the history of the United States to meet the need to emphasize improvement of sports skills of all girls, regardless of their level of ability, and to help establish a broader base for a varied sports program in public schools and colleges.

In thirty years the DGWS position with regard to the participation of women in the Olympic Games had completely reversed. The organization was, in 1963, lending its support to the development of talented Olympic-caliber performers. However, sports programs at all skill levels profited from

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the information and impetus provided by the national institutes.

The middle years of the 1960's began a period of self-examination for the DGWS. The evaluation was necessitated by the realization that "since 1923, DGWS's beliefs have not changed but society and cultural currents have changed." Even the most sacred of totems were subjected to criticism. "If DGWS is to grow and remain an influential women's sports organization, it cannot be completely bound by the traditions and thinking of the past fifty years." In 1965 a program to revise and consolidate standards was initiated "in light of the broader role of sports for women in our society." Specific sport standards were removed from the various rule guides in favor of more general statements which could be justified in light of the results of research.

At that time one of the most vocal critics of DGWS was one of the organization's most active and respected members, Phoebe Scott. The mid-1960's had been a time for action according to Scott.

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64 Ibid., p. 57
Because the sports climate for women has been changing. Because more girls are seeking excellence in sports competition. Because sports for girls has [sic] been growing up. Because the classroom and intramural programs while popular in the past, no longer provide the challenge for today's women. Because our ever increasing knowledge concerning growth and development has not supported our concerns regarding the delicacy of the female in relation to hard physical work. Because it is impossible to stand still in our society today regardless of how firmly our feet may be planted in the soil of the past.66

She requested a re-examination of the interpretation of "competition." Too long "we have confused the term with the outcome of excess surrounding some overzealous programs of sports competition."67 The appropriate age-level for most effective competition needed analysis in light of research findings concerning the thirteen-to-fifteen age group. "Instead of protecting the girls from the dangers of over-activity we may well be concerned with the lack of opportunity for sustained vigorous activity possible in many of our programs."68

At a national conference on college sports programs for women Scott asked her listeners to interpret their practices realistically. Through high school career days, sport clinics, 

67 Ibid., p. 102
68 Ibid.
and workshops "we all recruit and we have done so for years." She proceeded to demonstrate that women had violated their dictates in their own play habits, playing three hockey games in one-day tournaments, participating in AAU basketball leagues during non-teaching moments, and striving for all-star selection in hockey and lacrosse competition. The problems mounted as competition increased.

We must dare to be different. We must see the problems in their true perspectives and we must know what we believe. We must anticipate the direction of growth rather than accept the patterns of the past as the only solutions to the problems of today.70

By 1971 DGWS had been given "a responsibility far beyond that which was envisioned by these women who were first responsible for its organization."71

Thus did DGWS face its future in 1971. With its parent body, AAHPER, undergoing complete structural reorganization, DGWS was considering its own alternatives within the organization and exploring key issues: the role of membership in decision-making, the possibility of an elected executive board, and the focal interests of the years ahead.72


70 Ibid., p. 29.

71 Scott, "DGWS-Here," loc. cit.

 Historically, it was a significant time to speculate concerning the future of what was, essentially, a women's organization. Was DGWS a part of the feminist movement? Criteria suggested by Annie Gottlieb, writing on contemporary feminism, certainly applied to DGWS organization.

As long as women were kept apart, free women would remain isolated instances, and a "movement" could be dissolved, bought off with a concession -- like the vote -- or absorbed into a national crisis. Without community there could be no tradition; without sisterhood, a few of us might defy, but we could neither inherit nor transmit.73

Perhaps it was necessary to build a feminine world before reintegration. Gerald Kenyon, sport sociologist, considered such a view obsolete.

With increasing opportunities to "go where the action is" -- places which often include men -- a sports program models [sic] on D.G.W.S., may have become somewhat of an anachronism, if not irrelevant. ... I see reflected in the D.G.W.S. movement, if I may say so, a great fear of men -- over and above quite legitimate apprehensions about men's athletics. Thus, so long as the D.G.W.S. would retain its separatist doctrine, it can't be expected to make the contemporary scene. In more general terms, as women become more liberated, women as a subculture become less viable, and thus women's organizations and their programs, from the

W.C.T.U. to the Y.W.C.A. may lose some of their appeal. 74

A clue to the solution of this dilemma may emerge from an account of the development of the DGWS role in the competitive interests of college women. In 1956 a Tripartite Golf Committee, made up of members of the DGWS, ARPCW, and National Association for Physical Education of College Women (NAPECW), was created to attend the women's national intercollegiate golf tournament and to report on the values and conduct of the events. The business of the committee at its 1957 meeting included the formulation of policies for hostess schools. Essentially, the purpose of the Tripartite Golf Committee was to lend continuity to the tournament. 75

Correspondingly, the Tripartite Committee sought to study the larger implications of extramural sport competition for college women. The seeds planted by that first national intercollegiate golf tournament in 1941 were growing into the national association for women's athletics foreseen at that early date by its sponsors.

74 Gerald S. Kenyon, "Explaining Sport Involvement, With Special Reference to Women," *Sports and Dance in our Culture*, Proceedings of the Fall Conference of the Eastern Association of Physical Education for College Women, Lake Placid, New York, October 17 to October 19, 1969, p. 16.

The Tripartite Committee, aware of developments in competition in sports other than golf recommended "that there be a National Council on Extramural Sports for College Women, composed of representatives from the NAPECW, AAMPER (DGWS), and the ARPCW" to determine policies for women's intercollegiate sport competition.\(^7^6\) The National Joint Committee on Extramural Sports for College Women (NJCESCW) was the result of the recommendation. Golf and other sport interest groups became sub-committees of NJCESCW. Each sport sub-committee developed policies for its activities in accordance with the basic purposes of NJCESCW. The policies were, in turn, reviewed by the DGWS standards committee. Chairmen of DGWS sports committees also worked with NJCESCW sports committees.\(^7^7\) NJCESCW served as a standard-setting and sanctioning organization.

Finally, though, the complexity of the structure of NJCESCW and the difficulties encountered serving three mistresses combined for the eventual dissolution of the organization. "The NJCESCW at its June meeting, 1964, agreed to recommend to the parent organizations that the Joint Committee be discontinued as of June 1965 and that its functions be

\(^7^6\)Council Appointed to Study the Larger Implications of Extramural Sports Competition for College Women, "Committee Report," June 14, 1957 (in the records of Mary Yost, The Ohio State University), pp. 10-11. (Mimeographed.)

assumed by DGWS.°

The NJCESCW has carried out real and needed functions, including the following: it has studied issues and problems in the conduct of extramural sports for college women and has made recommendations as needed; it has formulated standards, policies, and procedures for the conduct of extramural events in several sports and has served as a sanctioning body for the conduct of these events for those who wanted it; it has assisted in conducting the Intercollegiate Golf Tournament.°

As a part of the ongoing series of events lending substance to the athletic movement, a Study Conference on Competition for Girls and Women sponsored by the DGWS was held in February, 1965, "to explore the problems of controlling competition, the need for controls and to set up guidelines for controlling competition." The guidelines developed at the conference were to serve as minimum standards for interscholastic and intercollegiate programs.

Generally the Guidelines have been well received, but it was noted that in some cases there has been misunderstanding about their purpose. The Guidelines should not be viewed as directives or restrictions, but rather as helpful suggestions for the organization and administration of extramural programs. They do not constitute regulations which must be followed unless some local body adopts them and agrees to work under them.


80 Barbara Stephenson (sec.). "Minutes of the Executive Council," May 7-11, 1964 (DGWS archives), Appendix II.

Though equipped by 1966 with guidelines for competitive events, DGWS, nonetheless, had no place in its structure to absorb the functions of NJCESCW. A study committee examined the intercollegiate situation throughout the nation and decided that DGWS would need to assume a new and bolder leadership role to give direction to that competition. Momentous decisions were made by the Executive Council of DGWS in March, 1966, when it stipulated:

That DGWS assume the responsibility of the following two functions:

a) The sanction of closed intercollegiate sports events which are statewide or larger in scope. Sanction would be given after determination that organizational plans for the event follow DGWS guidelines and standards.

b) The sponsorship of national intercollegiate tournaments. Sponsorship would imply assistance with funding, publicity, site selection, conduct, and evaluation.82

A Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (CIAW) was appointed by the DGWS vice-president to fulfill those functions. The first commissioners were Katherine Ley, Phebe Scott and Maria Sexton. The decision to sponsor national tournaments was hastened by activities of the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), a body heretofore administering men's programs. In the summer of 1967 two members of DGWS were invited to serve on an NCAA committee to study the feasibility

82 Trekell, op. cit., p. 29.
of organizing to assume leadership in women's athletics.

The establishment of such a committee represented a sudden reversal of direction on the part of the NCAA which only a year earlier had expressed no interest in women's athletics. If the National Collegiate Athletic Association began to be concerned about women's athletics, the National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics, the small college group, would feel forced to take similar action. The Commission was at an urgent point in its development. To forestall action by the men's groups, it seemed best that they be made aware that the Commission for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women was operating and had a plan of action. 83

As a consequence of the NCAA action CIAW sprang forward in a leadership role. Announcing its plans in a national press conference, deliberately scheduled to precede the NCAA's January, 1968, meeting, CIAW proclaimed its schedule of six national championships for the 1969-1970 season. 84

These events had broader implications than appeared. AAHEP had kept a neutral position in a persistent controversy between the NCAA and AAU. The object was to work with all groups for the improvement of sports programs. However, pressures began to mount to cause AAHEP to commit itself to the view of one organization or the other. 85


84 Ibid.

took an alternate course by assuming leadership in national and intercollegiate championships for women.

CIAW set out to provide programs for the highly skilled women. "Athletics" was included in the title to distinguish its interest in intercollegiate athletic programs from earlier emphases on sports days and play days by DGWS and its antecedents. CIAW began operation in September, 1967. Its functions were threefold.

1. To encourage organizations of colleges and universities and/or organizations of women physical educators to govern intercollegiate competition for women at the local, state, or regional levels.

2. To hold DGWS national championships as the need for them becomes apparent.

3. To sanction closed intercollegiate events in which at least five colleges or universities are participating.

Reflecting the traditional concerns of DGWS standards, sanctioning was to be based on appropriate facilities, equipment, conduct of events, finances, insurance, medical examinations, first aid services, officials, awards, rules, eligibility, scholarships, and social events. To resolve inconsistencies between CIAW and DGWS policies it was recommended that the

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87 Ibid., pp. 4-9.
chairman of the Philosophy and Standards area of DGWS and chairman of CIAW meet to consider differences. 88

At this juncture the National Association for Physical Education of College Women (NAPECW) became involved with the development of national intercollegiate championships. NAPECW was able to provide the avenue to regional district development which was not available through regular DGWS channels.

Each district president agreed to appoint a special Presidents' Committee. The charges to these committees were: 1) to determine intercollegiate activities already in existence; 2) to be a liaison with the DGWS Commission through the Commissioner for Regional Development; 3) to be consultant for any group or any individual that asked for help in discussing the problems involved; and, 4) to interpret at a regional level, the policies and activities of the Commission. 89

Recognizing its continuing responsibility to prepare coaches and administrators for intercollegiate athletic programs, NAPECW absolved its districts from further involvement in CIAW in 1970. "The original charge has been served; that of surveying the status of intercollegiate athletics in the districts. This is now a District matter. A district can continue to include this committee if it so desires." 90


Circumstances were ripe for the final act in the chain of events leading toward a national intercollegiate athletic organization for women.

The growth of women's intercollegiate athletics had made increasingly apparent the need for an organization through which member institutions could be represented, express their concerns, and have a voice in the formation of policy.91

Under the continuing sponsorship of DGWS, the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW) replaced CIAW on July 1, 1972.92 The purposes of the new organization were suggested in the "Proposed Operating Code."

1. Foster broad programs of women's intercollegiate athletics which are consistent with the educational aims and objectives of the member schools and in accordance with the philosophy and standards of the Division for Girls and Women's Sports (DGWS).

2. Assist member schools to extend and enrich their programs of intercollegiate athletics for women.

3. Stimulate the development of quality leadership for women's intercollegiate athletic programs.

4. Encourage excellence in performance of participants in women's intercollegiate athletics.93

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91 Letter from Frances McGill, Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics for Women, to prospective members, January, 1971, p. 1. (Mimeographed.)


Active members were to be accredited colleges and universities in the United States or its territories which sponsored intercollegiate athletic programs for undergraduate women students and which belonged to regional or local groups governing intercollegiate athletics. Each institution was to be represented by a faculty member. Representation proved to be a bone of contention among prospective members. Potentially, the rule allowed athletics to move outside the physical education department and into the hands of an institutional athletic committee.

Thus, the national collegiate athletic association for women which had been foreseen by the planners of the first national collegiate golf tournament for women in 1941 was, at last, a reality. Questions continued to plague the planners of intercollegiate athletic programs for women. Was it a feminist movement? The accusation was denied. Yet, statements of the CIAW chairman might have been interpreted contrarily: "why should men be the arbiters for women's programs -- women don't govern men." Also, "women must get out of the bad habit of thinking in terms

94 Ibid., pp. 1, 6.
95 "Women Organize to Administer Sports," Up Date, June, 1971, p. 3.
of what can be raised at a bake sale. Was AIAW an imitation of the NCAA? Were there enough highly skilled women to warrant national competition? Could a purist position regarding scholarships and recruitment be maintained? As was the case in earlier endeavors, the birth of AIAW was shrouded in a certain amount of doubt. Only time would remove the reservations.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF STANDARDS FOR COMPETITION

Although each succeeding organization from the Tripartite Golf Committee to the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women developed standards for competition, those efforts were essentially separate from the work of the standards area of the Division for Girls and Women's Sports. The standards monograph of DGWS, under continual revision, served as the basic reference for the various organizations. Consequently, while serving as a resource for related areas, the Standards committee carried out its regular workload. It must be remembered that standards encompassed an entire sports program from informal play to the most intense competition.

Mabel Locke, Chairman of DGWS during its transition from a section to a division, described standards work during her tenure and criticized subsequent developments.

The standards monograph was constantly under revision. We had not written standards for enough sports at that time. We were just moving into the age of intercollegiate sports programs and developing standards for their conduct. Some of us old timers did not and do not now approve the direction we have taken in sanctioning and approving of tournaments, feeling that the greatest good that DGWS could do was to write standards as a guide for those who wanted to follow. I believe the standards have been an excellent guide to those who use them -- however they are completely ignored by many and unless we discipline ourselves NO amount of sanctioning and approving will correct the situation.97

In 1957 the standards committee prepared a statement on competition for publication, revised the "Desirable Practices" flier and the entire standards monograph, and reviewed team sport standards which continued to appear in the rule guides at that time.98 The "Statement of Policies and Procedures for Competition in Girls and Women's Sports" contained precepts "through which desirable outcomes in competition may be achieved."99

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murals, including intercollegiate or more formal types of competition, were described and criteria for their adaptation to various age levels were enumerated.

The revised standards monograph the third such revision, was published in 1958. Numerous changes in wording typified the revision, but no changes were made in basic philosophy. DGWS continued to condone the extramural concept of competition. Standards for the program, leader, and participant remained essentially the same. Selected standards reflecting the content of the monograph, appeared in the basketball guide.

Standards in sports activities for girls and women should be based upon the following guides:

1. Sports activities for girls and women should be taught, coached and officiated by qualified women.

2. Programs should provide for every girl, and should include a wide variety of activities.

3. The results of competition should be judged in terms of "benefits to the participants" rather than by the winning of championships, or the athletic or commercial advantage to schools or organizations.

Health and Safety Standards for Players

Careful supervision of the health of all players must be provided:

1. Require an examination by a qualified physician at the beginning of each year.

2. Require a written statement of approval by a qualified physician following the serious illness of a player.

3. Restrain girls from playing during menstrual periods or when injured or unduly fatigued.

4. Provide a healthful, safe and sanitary environment for sport activity.

5. Limit competition to a geographical area which will permit players' return at reasonable hours; provide safe transportation.

General Policies

1. Select the members of all teams so that they play against those of approximately the same ability and maturity.

2. Arrange the schedule of games so that there will be no more than one highly competitive game a week for any one team or girl in any one sport.

3. Allow no player to participate in more than one full-length game or match in a vigorous activity, or its equivalent, in one day of organized competition.

4. Discourage any girl from practicing with, or playing with a team for more than one group while competing in that sport during the same sport season.

5. Promote social events in connection with all forms of competition. ⑩

The operating code of the Philosophy and Standards Section of DGWS stated the purpose of the section: "to study reasons for and implications of contrasting viewpoints; to construct statements of belief; to formulate, evaluate, and revise standards; and to give the best direction possible to the sports program." Fulfilling its appointed task, the standards section "worked with the National Joint Committee on Extramural Sports for College Women on the revision of policies and principles for the conduct of extramural sport events for college women" in 1958.

The DGWS Executive Council considered standards at length in December, 1960. The possibility of changing the statements in sport guides to "recommendations" rather than "standards" was explored. Concern was expressed for the reliability of the research upon which the standards were based. Members also thought it would be wise to limit the number of future changes in standards. Any changes must also have been limited by the Philosophy and Standards Section annual budget allocation of thirty-five dollars.

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Barbara B. Godfrey, chairman of the newly organized Philosophy and Interpretations Area, described the role of standards committee chairman in a letter inviting Marian Kneer to assume that position.

Essentially it entails revising or re-writing the Standards publication of DGWS. As I understand it, this needs to be done for two reasons primarily: (1) the new statement on competition, and (2) the exhaustion of the present supply of the publication.105

Godfrey had received a request for factual information in defense of girls' basketball rules. Her reply identified her responsibility as chairman of the Philosophy and Interpretations Area.

... both anatomy and kinesiology show us the difference in red or "power" muscle fibers of the male vs. the female and the leverage advantage in muscular performance of the male vs. the female. These relatively simple points indicate that where performance involving these skills is involved competition between the sexes is silly since such different "people" would thus be competing. ...

Another point probably not considered by some -- especially if it is the participants who are concerned with "girls rules" -- is that in many ways basketball is a more skillful "ball-handling" game, if well played, by girls than by boys; that is, especially without the "delay" type dribble or the "full-court" movement dribbles. ...

I don't think you should be concerned with making any apologies for differences in girls rules for basketball from boys. Girls achieve as girls in competition with other girls, their own kind. Our rules are for us and we are proud of them. May I add that historically some of the girls [sic] rules in basketball specifically developed before some of the boys rules.106

The concern expressed earlier in the DGWS Executive Council that standards, or, as in this case, interpretations, be based upon reliable research appeared justified in light of the content of the letter.

Subsequently, a project to interpret standards through a series of questions and answers was finally abandoned after changes in leadership and scarcity of questions limited progress.107 Undaunted, DGWS next set out to join other AAHPER divisions to explore the possibility of developing guidelines for junior high school sports programs.108

At this juncture, two investigators reported studies which focused upon DGWS standards for competition. Daves, who could find no previous studies dealing with extramural sports programs for college women, studied extramural programs

106Letter from Barbara B. Godfrey, Chairman of the Philosophy and Interpretations Area, to Anne H. Gilbert, Girls' Physical Education Teacher, Mabel Public Schools, Minnesota, (DGWS archives), pp. 1-2.


in Illinois colleges. She found divergencies regarding
skill level of participants, quality of officiating, faculty
workload distribution, budget allocation, medical examinations,
and the value of social events. She recommended that DGWS
formulate a standard for minimum practice time and that the
maximum number of games or matches per day be increased.109

In another study, Scott compared standards of the Amateur
Athletic Union, Catholic Youth Organization, Division for
Girls and Women's Sports, National Association for Physical
Education of College Women, Midwest Association for Physical
Education of College Women, Women's Physical Education
Section of the Ohio College Association, and Ohio Association
for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. Her premises
and findings depicted the standards situation as it existed
in 1963.110

Theoretically, the standards published by
the national associations are accepted by
and adhered to by women physical educators
in all sections of the country. It should
make no difference, therefore, which section
of the country is represented as typical.
Realistically, however, there is often a
disparity between the stated standards and

109 Marise Daves, "A Study of Practices Used by Women's
Athletic Associations in Illinois to Conduct Extramural
Sports Programs" (unpublished doctoral dissertation, New

110 Gwendolyn D. Scott, "A Comparative Study of Standards
and Policies in Athletics for Girls and Women" (unpublished
doctoral dissertation, Case-Western Reserve University, 1963),
p. 9.
actual practice by individual physical educators. . . . This can be attributed to several factors: (1) associations may suggest standards and policies, but they have no punitive powers, thus the individual physical educator is free to accept or reject them; (2) the local philosophy usually determines practices as intramural competition and sports days are especially prevalent in urban areas and interscholastic competition are more dominant in rural areas; (3) the size of the school, staff available, together with the proximity to other schools likewise tends to determine the type and amount of competition.111

Scott identified fourteen areas of accord, ten areas of disagreement, and eighteen areas of doubtful agreement among the standards studied. Sources of conflicts she felt were the diversity of standards and practices among the agencies and associations and "the zealous tenacity of the human element in maintaining respective positions."112 Scott listed five recommendations to reconcile differences.

1. The groups must agree that a desirable program of competitive sports for girls and women is of greater importance than the question of which group should exercise control.

2. The groups must agree to meet in good faith without questioning the honesty, sincerity, integrity, or motives of each other.

3. The groups must accept the fact that resolving conflict and achieving change entails concessions from both sides.

111 Ibid.

112 Ibid., pp. 36, 79-81.
4. The groups must keep lines of communication open at all times.

5. The groups must understand that it will take generous amounts of time, patience, and devotion to resolve conflicts that have existed for forty years.113

Such studies should have provided some insights for those formulating standards in DGWS. However, records of DGWS examined for the present study gave no intimation of the influence or utilization of the Daves and Scott studies.

Despite an area operating code, there was apparently some confusion about the functions of the area chairman. Finally, the Philosophy and Interpretations Area chairman, Barbara B. Godfrey, suggested that her role in the interpretation and distribution of information concerning DGWS beliefs be increased. She also asked that the Area be more fully informed of statements and activities dealing with girls and women's sports.114 Philosophy and Interpretations seemed to be an area in search of its own purpose and functions.

Still, the work of the area progressed. The "Statement of Policies for Competition in Girls and Women's Sports"

113Ibid., p. 83.

was revised and approved by DGWS and AAHPER in May, 1963. The statement typified the growing concern of DGWS for the highly skilled player.\textsuperscript{115} The revised policies were incorporated, in turn, into the standards for basketball printed in the rule guide.\textsuperscript{116} With the removal of specific recommendations regarding the desirability of certain practices the basketball standards also reflected the determination of DGWS to base standard statements on more substantive evidence than traditional idealism.

The statements of two outside groups gave support to DGWS policies during 1964. In its statement of basic beliefs the Society of State Directors of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation endorsed DGWS standards for the conduct of girls' programs.\textsuperscript{117} Similar confirmation and support came from the Committee on the Medical Aspects of Sports of the


The standards monograph was revised for the fourth time in 1964. Again, only changes in format occurred as each standard statement was moved to precede rather than follow the section which described it. The revised DGWS policy statement on competition supplemented the standards material.

"Sports Standards for Girls and Women," though similar in content, replaced the specific basketball standards in the 1964 edition of the rule guide. As had the basketball standards, the new section described desirable forms of competition for various age levels and listed standards for the welfare of the participant, leaders and officials, publicity and public relations, and specific guides for practices and play periods and lengths of seasons.

The results of "The Study Conference on Competition for Girls and Women in February, 1965, indicated that conference participants were influenced by DGWS standards in the formulation of guidelines for interscholastic and intercollegiate


Meanwhile, the DGWS standards were undergoing a critical analysis and reorganization.

A study of DGWS belief statements resulted in "DGWS - We Believe" which was published in September, 1965. This completed phase 1 of this continuing project which now moves into phases 2 and 3, an examination of standards and a study of the materials developed with a view to revising or replacing the Standards Monograph. A committee will carry on this work and it is hoped that all materials such as statements on beliefs and guidelines can be pulled together into one publication.122

The title of the Philosophy and Interpretations Area was changed to Philosophy and Standards Area and a subcommittee on research was added to the latter.123 DGWS awarded a fifteen hundred dollar grant to Vera Skubic and Jane Hilgendorf for an "investigation of the energy output required in various activities so that physiological evidence would be provided for evaluation of the specific sports standards which appear in DGWS guides."124 Even though specific sport standards were removed from the guides, DGWS had taken a significant step toward the formulation of more reliable standards.


Asked to review the significance of standards and the events of her years of service in DGWS, Marguerite Clifton summarized her involvement through the time of the development of the Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics for Women.

The continuing development and revision of standards by DGWS would appear to be considerably durable considering the intensifying pressures these days to sanction grants and aids or scholarships for athletic ability. On the other hand, revision of standards eight or ten years ago to provide improved opportunities for the highly skillful performer has broadened the horizon of the interscholastic and intercollegiate programs for our young women. Thus, I cannot help but feel that constant attention to meaningful appraisal and revision of standards as needed must be maintained in the DGWS structure.

The very early publication of standards in 1940's and 1950's appeared to have little effect upon programs other than to perhaps repress enlarging the scope of girl's sports programs at that time. What occurred [sic] in the 1960's in regard to increased opportunities to the highly skillful performer could just as easily have happened in the previous decade. Perhaps one of the most significant standards documents of the 1960's was the first one in 1962 or 1963 which dealt very openly with policies concerning what should be permissible for the highly skillful performer. We did not expect the document to remain intact at the time we hammered it out with the help of the executive directors of the various men's organizations, but our hopes that it would provide guidance seem to be fulfilled.125

125Letter from Marguerite Clifton, former Vice-President of the Division for Girls and Women's Sports, to the writer, November 5, 1971, p. 1.
To a question concerning events which took place with regard to standards during her tenure, Clifton cited her own important contribution to that area.

This was an effort on my part to raise serious questions about the standards stated in the monograph as well as some specific standards provided in each of the sport guides. In other words, I raised havoc with the fact that many of the latest standards were indefensible on the basis of lacking supportive research evidence. Such items as how do you justify eight minute quarters in a particular sport, etc. Why are a certain number of practices required prior to participation in an intramural meet? As a result of these kinds of inquiries, the standing committee on research in DGWS had some real problems on which to focus. The research and publications by Skubic and Hodgkins on cardio-vascular respiratory problems evolved essentially from Skubic's role on the DGWS research committee at this time. As I have followed the more recent developments in stipulating standards, DGWS appears to have maintained at least somewhat of a research oriented approach to the rationale for revision or development of new standards.126

DGWS continued to evaluate its position and broaden its scope of interest. The "DGWS Statement of Beliefs" replaced "Sports Standards for Girls and Women" in the 1966-1967 basketball rule guide. The statement referred to two "new" forms of competition, international and corecreational. Though good team play was to be encouraged in corecreational events, a girl was to be prohibited from playing "(1) on a boys inter-collegiate or interscholastic team; (2) against a boys inter-collegiate or interscholastic team; and (3) against a boy in

126 Ibid., pp. 1-2.
a scheduled intercollegiate or interscholastic contest."\textsuperscript{127}

The belief statement was further divided into beliefs about administration, leadership, and policy-making. Though reorganized, the information in the sections was not novel.

In 1967 McNutt studied the compliance to intercollegiate athletic guidelines of colleges in the Midwest Association for Physical Education of College Women. She found that most institutions with one thousand or more undergraduate women students "follow D.G.W.S. rules for competition, use qualified women coaches and qualified officials, avoid competitions with men's teams, and provide for social meeting of the participants."\textsuperscript{128} While a few colleges considered tournaments important, most institutions reported participating in them occasionally. As a result of her study, McNutt recommended that administrators become more familiar with guidelines, that coeducational athletics and national championships in individual sports be provided in future guidelines, and that more effort be made to enforce guidelines on eligibility.\textsuperscript{129}


\textsuperscript{129}Ibid., p. 174.
The three original commissioners of CIAW had, of course, foreseen McNutt's concerns and moved on to complex problems which had accompanied the announcement of national intercollegiate championships.

We have loads of big problems. We've struggled with artists from all over the country in an effort to get an acceptable design for awards for DGWS National Tournaments. We work and worry over the many facets of television and radio rights, insurance contracts, eligibility, policies, procedures, officials, advisors, evaluations, geographical distributions, California's fifth year students, research, and even complimentary tickets.130

These were considerations few women associated with intercollegiate athletics had ever attempted to solve. The frustration was evident in additional remarks by Maria Sexton, who, with Katherine Ley and Phebe Scott, was a CIAW commissioner.

"Sometimes it has seemed as though we were just three idiots trying to commit professional suicide."131

Simultaneously, as the college women were struggling to organize their national tournament structure, high school women were also receiving advice about the progress of their own competitive programs.

130Opinion expressed by Maria Sexton in an address, "Directions for Tomorrow's Highly Skilled Girls and Women," at the Midwest Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation at Detroit, Michigan, November 1, 1968.

131Ibid.
To avoid violating rules established for the boys competitive program (by State High School Athletic Association), women should make every effort to know the regulations the school must adhere to, then set up a program which follows these rules and are in line with the principles of DGWS standards.132

As if to leave no stone unturned a policy statement on competitive athletics for elementary school children was published in 1968. The elementary school recommendations resulted from the joint efforts of the American Academy of Pediatrics, a Committee on Medical Aspects of Sports of the American Medical Association, American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, and Society of State Directors of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. Topics included conditioning, leadership, grouping, equipment, facilities, and medical care.133

Two particular problems were difficult to resolve. Traditionally opposed to women participating on men's teams, events across the nation caused DGWS to evaluate that position again in 1971. For example, in New York State girls were allowed to compete with boys in non-contact sports. To preserve


opportunities for girls and women in the athletic world, and yet recognize that competitive experiences were quite limited in many locales, the DGWS Executive Council took the following action in October, 1971.

The Division for Girls and Women's Sports subscribes to the belief that teams for girls and women should be provided for all girls and women who desire competitive athletic experiences. Funds, facilities and staff should be available for the conduct of these programs. While positive experiences for the exceptional girl or woman competitor may occur through participation in boys' or men's competitive groups, these instances are rare and should be judged acceptable only as an interim procedure for use until women's programs can be initiated or as a procedure for use when women's programs cannot be provided.

The second persistent problem area was that of scholarships for athletes. As early as 1962 DGWS reported the results of a scholarship questionnaire in which thirty-five institutions were found to provide some type of aid. Athletic scholarships were most numerous, followed by scholarships to physical education majors, to women's athletic association members, and to students with academic ability. Athletic scholarship recipients participated in basketball, track and field, golf, and tennis. The study was conducted by the Philosophy and Interpretation Area.  


The DGWS position against the awarding of scholarships to athletes provoked an exchange of views in 1969. Three Palm Beach, Florida, physical educators disagreed with the scholarship stand. They felt many institutions would not support the policy. It was unrealistic to expect satisfaction from a continuing reliance on pleasure as a motivation for participation. Parity with the men's program was an obvious temptation as was the desire to rank equally with other subjects which could be achieved, in part, by rewarding superior performance. Katherine Ley, CIAW commissioner, responded.

As for athletic scholarships for women, the DGWS and CIAW stand firm on the belief that, in our culture, women must be students first and athletes second. Special talent scholarships and merit awards should not be given to entice a student to attend a certain institution of higher learning. Such recognition may be given after one year in residence assuming, of course, the student's academic performance warrants a special award.

In 1971 the DGWS restated its position on scholarships.

The Division for Girls and Women's Sports does not approve of awarding scholarships, financial awards, or of giving financial assistance designated for women participants in intercollegiate sports competition.


Despite the statement and supplementary rationale, the issue seemed far from dead.

As might have been anticipated, the Philosophy and Standards Area was busy revising the standards monograph for the fifth time as the decade of the 1960's drew to a close. A revised edition appeared in 1969. The format was changed completely. The opening section described DGWS, its purpose, beliefs, and functions. The nature and values of competition were explored. Standards for the leader, administrator, official, participant, nature and conduct of the program, and implementation and evaluation were listed and explained. Specific attention was given financing, health safeguards, recruiting and financial aid, eligibility, length of season and games, scheduling, travel, officials, rules and awards. The publication concluded with reprints of the DGWS policy and beliefs statements and the various guidelines for age-level competition.\(^{139}\) The standards monograph reflected a much greater concern for the more intense forms of interscholastic and intercollegiate athletic competition.

Another revised edition, the sixth, of the standards monograph was published in 1970.\(^{140}\) Further clarifications of the scholarship position and amateurism were included.


Specific recommendations relating to length of the season were eliminated and left for local determination.

An additional revision of the standards monograph was in process as the present study was written.\textsuperscript{141} There was some evidence of a rising sentiment for specific sports standards.\textsuperscript{142} In 1970 there was even a threat to the continuing existence of the Philosophy and Standards Area in a proposal for Council reorganization. Reasoning that the interpretation of standards was a responsibility of all Executive Council members, the need for an ongoing philosophy and standards area was doubted. A special committee could be appointed for planned, periodic standards revisions or for special circumstances.\textsuperscript{143} No subsequent action on the proposal was noted.

Edith Betts, former DGWS vice-president reviewed the events of those last active years between 1968 and 1971, particularly with regard to standards revisions.

This action was taken because a need was felt for changes due to changes in educational philosophy, research and sport practices. Many DGWS constituents write in and ask why such and such is true and those queries must be examined. They often result in changes where justified.

\textsuperscript{141}Statement by Mary Rekstad, personal interview, November 2, 1971.


\textsuperscript{143}"Structure and Function," April, 1970 (DGWS archives), p. 3.
Since the majority of regional intercollegiate groups use DGWS as their basic guide, these standards have a very great influence on actual intercollegiate practices. Since the CIAW was an arm of DGWS all of its requirements were based on DGWS standards (such as the scholarship statements).

Needless to say all change brings problems of one sort or another. One of the chief problems is communications, letting your constituents know about the changes and why they are made. Also letting administrators and male colleagues know and helping them understand our philosophy is a problem.

Thus ended approximately eighty years in the development of standards for girls and women's athletic competition.

CONCLUSION

In the years between 1956 and 1971 basketball had changed markedly. The game became transformed as rules successively permitted two, then all, players to play the whole court. Changes in guarding permissiveness, the dribble, and other techniques contributed to the "new" game. It was difficult to determine to what extent changing attitudes toward intensive forms of competition encouraged rules changes and the degree to which the opposite was helpful. At any rate, in 1972 a national championship for women's intercollegiate basketball teams became a reality.

144 Letter from Edith Betts, past Vice-President of the Division for Girls and Women's Sports, to the writer, January 11, 1972, p. 1.
The Division for Girls and Women's Sports (DGWS) replaced the National Section for Girls and Women's Sports in the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation in 1957 and almost immediately increased its role in the development of competitive sports programs. Liaison work with other sport organizations broadened. Its position with regard to participation in the Olympic Games reversed the organization's early tradition of opposition when DGWS cooperated in a series of sports institutes intended to eventually develop highly skilled athletes.

The responsibility of DGWS for intercollegiate competition grew through its involvement in a succession of four organizations created to cope with and control the growth of increasingly formal intercollegiate athletic programs. The long road to a national organization for women's intercollegiate athletics, begun with a controversial golf tournament in 1941, reached a climax with the formation of the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women in 1972.

Increasingly, standards for interscholastic and intercollegiate athletics were formulated by the state athletic associations and national organizations promoting and controlling competition. The role of the DGWS standards committees in these areas diminished, but the standards area
maintained its inherited activities. A series of policy statements and revisions was published. The standards monograph underwent a succession of revisions. The changes reflected the influence of the growth of athletic competition among girls and women and the desire to eliminate unfounded assumptions from DGWS publications. Controversial issues, however, demanded DGWS Executive Council action. The Philosophy and Standards Area function had become less a policy-making one than a locus for the publication of the work of other DGWS groups. As a result, it was not surprising that the continued existence of the Area should be questioned. Unless the purpose and functions undergo alteration, the Philosophy and Standards Area could cease to exist in the near future.

For years the DGWS and its antecedent organizations had been criticized for their strong belief that women should guide girls and women's athletics, for their seemingly timid approach to leadership in girls and women's sports, and for their unwillingness to commit themselves to a goal of excellence in athletic performance. The 1956 to 1971 time period may be said to have eliminated most of the reticence. There can be no doubt that DGWS had committed itself to feminist pursuits, choosing to remain almost exclusively woman-led and woman-oriented. Circumstances also forced DGWS to assume a leadership role in a program area committed to the pursuit
of excellence, intercollegiate athletics. The timeliness and viability of these actions are for history to judge. Even the membership of DGWS was divided in its loyalty.

The impact of the DGWS commitments can only begin to be measured. Since the DGWS membership comes primarily from the field of education, it is there that the influence of strong commitment to more intensive forms of competition will leave its deepest mark. Leadership, staff, budget, facility, and publicity implications are potentially great. As they worry less about comparing themselves to men, women will demand an equality which will imply access to play time and space not previously available to them. The long struggle to make athletics an extension of physical education instructional and intramural programs will be ended. The athletic girl and woman will find themselves welcomed into physical education programs which accommodate their pursuit of excellence in performance, rather than discourage such ambitions. A most significant step would be the designation of the athletic program as a curricular rather than extracurricular experience. Hence, the educational implications of recent trends in girls and women's athletics are, potentially, profound.

It was difficult indeed to conceive of the eventual significance the invention of a game for a dissatisfied
YMCA class in 1891 was to have. However, the subsequent growth of basketball, women's athletics, and standards for competition created an intricate, unbroken web. Basketball was seized and modified by women with an enthusiasm unknown in the history of women's sports. The enthusiasm led to excesses and role conflicts. Before the twentieth century dawned groundwork had been established for women's basketball and the policies which were to guide its growth. The Women's Athletic Committee persevered under numerous title and structure changes assuming greater and greater responsibility for the guidance of sports programs for girls and women. In fact, the Committee survived as the only national organization devoted exclusively to girls and women's sports programs. Because of its association with an education organization, the Committee and its successors would measure their greatest influence on that aspect of society.

Operating on the premise that "the one purpose of athletics for girls and women is the good of those who Play," the formulators of that statement had definite ideas about the manner in which that "good" should be achieved. Those ideas were eventually compiled in a monograph of standards, or guides to action, for girls and women's sports programs. The welfare of the player and sound leadership practices were the foci of the standards publications. First formulated

by a special committee of the National Section on Women's Athletics in 1937, the standards remained unchanged for thirty years. By 1969 increases in quantity and quality of athletic competition, as well as new evidence from research findings, caused the first notable revision of the standards monograph.

The parallel development of basketball rules and competition and the standards for such competition presented a picture of contrasts and similarities. Throughout the years the college level program of competition demonstrated the closest compliance to the recommendations in the standards monograph. Changes in rules were practically synonymous with changes in attitudes toward competition. It might also be argued that changes in rules, especially in recent years, helped to form changes in attitudes.

A constancy of conflict and cooperation among the various organizations interested in girls and women's sports was discerned. From its inception the Women's Athletic Committee and its successors determined to cooperate with any group when the good of sport programs was to be the result. Occasionally they stood opposed to an organization. More often, though, cooperation was the keynote. In fact, until recently the Division for Girls and Women's Sports and its antecedents fulfilled what might be interpreted a service or advisory
role rather than true leadership function. Even standards were only recommendations. Until the advent of the national collegiate athletic championships for women, guidelines for competition could not be enforced by the national organization.

As a service organization, DGWS made notable contributions to girls and women's sports programs. Certainly that group and its antecedents achieved much in spite of the handicaps associated with a voluntary agency. There is no sign that ideals have diminished in efforts "to foster the development of sports programs for the enrichment of the life of the participant."¹⁴⁶ New words rally its membership, but the purpose of the organization remains the same.

CHAPTER VII

INFLUENCE AND COUNTERINFLUENCE: BASKETBALL AND STANDARDS IN NEW YORK, 1891-1930

INTRODUCTION

Intercollegiate basketball competition among women in New York and the standards which guided the programs closely reflected national trends with few notable exceptions. The diversities in demography and geography were evident in intercollegiate programs. Coeducational and women's colleges, both public and private institutions, represented in this study ranged from the State University Colleges at Buffalo and Brockport and Alfred University in the west to St. Lawrence University in the north and Queens College of the City University of New York and Vassar College in the east. Basketball competition among the junior and community colleges throughout the State was also considered. Women physical educators in the various colleges claimed their share of state and national leadership in the guidance of athletic programs. In fact, some practices initiated in New York eventually influenced programs nationwide.

The women of Seneca Falls stood in the Methodist chapel of that village on July 19, 1848, to proclaim the legal and
social discrimination suffered by women. Though it took another seventy years for women to gain the right to vote in national elections, the growing social consciousness which followed the Seneca Falls manifesto influenced many aspects of life. Women broke the barriers of tradition and entered various professions.

In her Female Seminary in Troy, Emma Willard had proved that the rigors of education did not injure a woman's brain any more than it harmed the brain of the male student. The dichotomous belief with regard to the human mind and body caused programs of physical training to develop quite apart from academic studies. The women, too, realized the need to break the strain of constant study. Gymnastic and manual labor programs were the first formal physical activities. Sports appeared as adjuncts or extracurricular opportunities for women who might choose to play.

Horseback riding was available to Elmira students as early as 1859. The Hall of Calisthenics, the first structure built for a gymnastics program on a women's college campus, opened at Vassar about 1860. From its beginning

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Vassar required one hour of outdoor exercise daily. Among the facilities available were a riding school, boating house, and bowling alley. Around 1876 several baseball teams sprang forth among Vassar students seemingly due "to a few quiet suggestions from a resident physician, wise beyond her generation." Despite public criticism the game continued within the shelter of the campus.

The Vassar staff offered instruction in the first activity other than gymnastics when riding was given in 1865. Riding thus became the first sport taught rather than encouraged in eastern colleges for women. The costume for gymnastics at Vassar was gray flannel "with the blouse high-necked and long-sleeved and the skirt ankle length with bloomers underneath." One must wonder if games such as basketball could have been played had the gymnasium costume not been modified by the time of the game's invention. Such costumes obviously restricted movement. Perhaps some of the faintness and exhaustion experienced by early women gymnasts and athletes was due to the bulk and material of the costume, not just weak feminine natures. Clothing might have been as great a burden as the activities.

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5Ainsworth, op. cit., p. 28.

6Rice, op. cit., p. 246.
The Vassar physical education program incorporated Dio Lewis' gymnastics at first and then the Sargent system in 1889. Archery and baseball were popular in 1876, though the latter did not grow significantly.

I think there was too much pressure against it from disapproving mothers. However, those of us who had learned the value of vigorous play succeeded in keeping alive enough interest in the game to support two clubs until our senior year. This year saw the advent of tennis at college.

Though comparisons between life in colleges for men and women were inevitable, some notable differences were apparently necessary. For example, social life had to be created on the campus of women's colleges. A woman was not free to utilize the resources of the community as was her male counterpart. As a consequence, campus events were frequent and varied.

Lectures and concerts, club life, — philanthropic, literary, debating, musical, sewing, cooking, — with numberless teas, spreads, and calls, fill whatever leisure moments are left from study; and these are the amusements that our college women are substituting for the more muscular sports of college men. 

The women were, obviously, determined not to allow sport to

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8Richardson, op. cit., p. 518.

become a dominant campus distraction. Yet, it was believed "that college women need even more than men the relaxation of mind and physical development found in athletic sports."\(^{10}\) Vassar students retired at ten, had daily outdoor exercise, and spent three hours each week in the *gymnasium*.

With this in mind, then, we cease to deplore the absence of some substitute, equally active and absorbing, for base-ball, and can easily understand the Vassar girl's fine physique when we see her in the tennis-courts preparing for the annual tournament or playing golf, practicing basket-ball, rowing on the lake, taking a five-mile tramp over the fields and wooded hills . . . . Cycling, another sport which has rapidly grown in favor since the pioneer wheel appeared in the fall of '91; driving over the fine country roads of Dutchess County; coasting and skating in season; swimming in the large gymnasium tank; and dancing in the particular parlor arranged for that purpose . . . .

Women students tended to devote the same intensity to exercise as to studies. Hence, there was some doubt that physical activity served the relaxation purpose assigned it. Call thought the women students "would have so little real abandon, that the result would be in most cases a nervous strain and excitement, from which they must in turn recover before going on with study."\(^{12}\) Training in relaxation was needed.

At Wells, situated on Cayuga Lake, the activity program

\(^{10}\)Ibid., p. 437.
\(^{11}\)Ibid.
was similar to that at Vassar. The proximity of the lake afforded boating opportunities. Students walked, drove, bicycled, and played tennis. Proper proportions of play, work, and campus social functions demanded more than casual attention.

But are we not hearing from every part of society the cry for more play? And if a college aims at something more than the imparting of a certain, or uncertain, amount of knowledge, or a definite number of facts, is it not right that it should attempt to give its students some conception of the proper relative proportions of work and recreation? We believe in the old saw, "Work while you work, play while you play," and that rest from work should be play, not doing nothing; and we think that it is worth while to make even considerable effort, if necessary, to deliver ourselves from the evil of idly "sitting around" in our hours of recreation, doing nothing, or talking gossip, rather worse than nothing. The true end of a college, as of any other mode of education, will be attained only when we shall have learned the due proportions in which to mingle work and play, in order that healthy minds in sound bodies may carry on with all the energies of which they are capable the work of making the world, or that little corner in which each of us may be placed, the better for her having lived in it.

At Barnard, the women's college of Columbia University founded in 1889, there was no department of physical education until 1918. Until that date instruction in physical activities was available at Teachers College, Columbia University. "The early records of the college reveal little interest in a program of physical education, which was defined

13 "Festivals," op. cit., p. 444.
in 1894 as 'the business of strolling in the corridor'!"  
There was a bicycle club in 1896 and dancing classes in 1898.

EARLY BASKETBALL AND POLICIES FOR CONTROL

Basketball was introduced at Vassar in 1894 by Harriet I. Ballintine, the Director of the Gymnasium from 1891 to 1929. She had attended one of the first private gymnasiums for women, Marie Pond's gymnasium in Rochester, in 1888. Next, she enrolled in the Sargent School of Physical Training. Ballintine also introduced tennis, ice hockey, and golf at Vassar. In 1901 Constance M. K. Applebee was welcomed to Vassar where she taught field hockey. Vassar sponsored the first track and field meet for women. Harriet I. Ballintine was truly a pioneer in her encouragement of sports among her own students and in the leadership she offered others.

... her vision and leadership made possible the introduction of the sports and physical activities which are now so universally accepted but which in the early days were innovations, even daring experiments which were allowed under very definite restrictions.

Basketball was received with great enthusiasm at Vassar. Interclass competition was popular.


16 Ibid.
Challenges from one class team to another call forth lively contests, and the gymnasium is often well filled with interested spectators at the games, who give vent to their enthusiasm in shouts of "Rickety-dix! Ninety-six!" "First-rate! Ninety-eight!" 17

In 1895 the first field day ever held in a women's college in this country was staged at Vassar. 18 "To see a game of basket ball played by college girls on a meadow court is to see it in its perfection and to appreciate to the full what a promoter of health and spirits the sport may be." 19

Though reporters were not permitted to witness the field day because they had earlier abused their privileges, an account of the second field day at Vassar did appear in The New York Times.

Two girls were standing with their good right hands upraised, waiting for the dropping ball. All over the field at intervals were pairs of girls, opponents, each guarding the other. Many wore "gym" trousers without skirts; many of them but only to the knee. Many had their hair down their backs. All wore tennis shoes. Their attitudes were of eager expectation and an alertness equaled only by a mercury.

Sometimes the ball was sent over into the line of spectators and the players followed without regard to any one's feelings or toes. They fell constantly on the field, but sprang up again regardless. 20

20 Ibid.
The game was played in halves of ten minutes each. The halftime score was 2-1. At the halftime intermission "the girls' friends crowded over to the mattresses where the girls lay, to the disgust of the coaches and trainers."21 The game must have been quite a spectator's delight.

Sometimes a girl, wishing to get the ball to a certain point and to throw it from there, would run along bounding it to the ground, so that she did not actually hold it, and thus break the rule. She was in constant danger of having it struck away, of course, but on the two or three occasions when I saw it tried, this did not happen.

The passing was remarkably quick and graceful too. That was a great point of the game. It was not only interesting to the point of excitement, but a pleasure to the eye with its gracefully unconscious poses and motions.

Loyally each winning team cheered the defeated one, and the latter returned the compliment. Then the gay colors moved off the field, and the players in their long cloaks filed off discussing the game in learned terms. They were a fine-looking lot, physically. Not heavy and English looking, but light-footed, lithe, alert, and graceful. And one sympathized and said in one's heart: "I am glad," as the ringing cheer echoed once more:

Hippity bus!
Hippity bus!
What in the world is the matter with us?
Nothing at all!
Nothing at all!
We are the girls who play basketball!22

As early as 1891 Bryn Mawr, a veritable hotbed of competitive spirit, proposed an intercollegiate league. The suggestion fell on deaf ears at Vassar. "Student interest in

21Ibid.
22Ibid.
competition was present, but the leadership evidently did not support this type of competition in the early years.\textsuperscript{23}

Basketball became a club activity at Barnard in 1899, replacing bicycling.\textsuperscript{24} In all likelihood, one of the first extramural play days ever, occurred in 1897 in New York.

In the summer of 1897, the Young Women's Christian Association held their annual conference meeting at Northfield, New York, with college women in attendance. A game of basketball concluded the activities of the afternoon. Smith and Vassar combined to make one team, while members from Goucher and other colleges served as their opponents.\textsuperscript{25}

The teams had to agree on a set of rules before play could commence. Smith-Vassar won the contest, 2-0.

The lack of uniformity in rules and the excessive roughness of the men's version of basketball threatened the very existence of the game for women in New York as it did elsewhere.

The element of roughness forced constant alterations in the rules that applied to men's play, and lack of organization permitted each college director to make her own changes, until there were almost as many codes of rules as there were centres of play. At Vassar, Radcliffe, Smith, Newcomb, Pratt Institute, the Boston Normal School, and the Western Colleges for women, the game flourished under varying conditions, but the different codes of rules made intermates impracticable.\textsuperscript{26}

\textsuperscript{23} Evans, op. cit., p. 88.

\textsuperscript{24} Ross, op. cit.

\textsuperscript{25} Evans, op. cit., pp. 56-7.

\textsuperscript{26} J. Parmly Paret, "Basket-Ball for Young Women," Harper's Bazaar, XXXIII (October 20, 1900), p. 1564.
Despite the difficulties the great majority of institutions kept the program of competition under the watchful attention of their physical education departments. Certainly, the separation of athletics from physical education, as was the case in men's athletics, was not to be repeated among the women. The women's concern that their programs be carefully guided and controlled was in evidence when an early gathering of the Physical Education Society of New York and Vicinity discussed "Athletics in Preparatory Schools and Women's Colleges." \(^{27}\)

Out of the concern that women's athletic competition be allowed to progress only with proper precautions, the women furnished policies and viewpoints which were closely echoed in resolutions, platforms, and formal standards composed a quarter century later. Vassar, in particular, was anxious for its program to develop according to carefully considered plans.

First, of course, it was necessary to identify the values of competition. Special advantages were noted for basketball by Ballintine.

> Competitive sports are of much aid in stimulating interest and effort, and where women are so fortunately situated as to be able to play basket ball out of doors, there is no form of exercise more desirable for them. Besides the thorough relaxation and physical development, this game has other advantages. Of great value

is the training that enables the player to think quickly and respond instantly with decided action. It gives an opportunity for the exercise of self-control necessitated by the strict rules of the game prohibiting all rough play. Personal feeling must be disregarded in the "team," rather than individual play, which is an important feature of the game. It gives the most vigorous exercise in a short space of time, and as the average college woman is somewhat limited in the hours she can give to exercise, this one feature in itself is of value. But above all, the discipline of participating in games which are governed by strict and definite rules is an excellent thing for girls.

Richardson attributed her excellent health record to regular participation in vigorous play while she was at Vassar. "One cannot watch a game of basket-ball without observing the will-power, nerve-control, and general self-government . . . cultivated."^{29}

The athletic program was under constant evaluation. Athletics stimulated interest among students in their own physical development. Still, a doubt in their ultimate value seemed to linger. "Athletics were introduced with some reluctance, it is admitted, because of the demand. It was an experiment and so far has been most satisfactory."^{30} Students


^{29}Sophia Foster Richardson, "Tendencies in Athletics for Women in Colleges and Universities," *Popular Science Monthly*, L (February, 1897), p. 520.

were interested in excellence and tended to lose interest when unable to make a class team. Physical educators, even then, were more interested in the masses of students than in the "training of athletes." Vassar was no exception. "It will be necessary to restrain the enthusiastic few from excess while endeavoring to stimulate the indifferent many to active interest." The competitive element which basketball introduced into physical education programs caused no little distress among its early advocates.

As basketball competition took the fancies of college students those "excelling in this game become desirous of competing in other directions." The possibility of intercollegiate competition was attractive to the players.

. . . the question has arisen whether we shall endeavor to stimulate general interest in athletic games by intercollegiate contests. The Western colleges seem inclined to answer this question in the affirmative. . . . On the other hand, the Eastern colleges unite in disapproving of intercollegiate contests. Among other reasons it is thought that the strain on the players would be too great; that the tendency would be to narrow rather than to increase the number of players by raising the standard of excellence of the play and discouraging the less expert players; also that the intraclass contests afford all the advantages of intercollegiate games without the objectionable features of the latter.

31 Richardson, op. cit., p. 521.
33 Richardson, op. cit.
Thus did Vassar join her eastern sister colleges in opposition to intercollegiate play. Interestingly, in 1896 a Vassar student identified several factors which were to plague the development of intercollegiate athletics throughout its history. In an article in a student publication she noted that dissenting parents would keep some good players from competing. Publicity would tend to drive some potential players from the game. Finances and facilities would cause problems. The nervous excitability of women was a limiting factor. Transportation, too, must have been a factor with which to reckon.

Though there was considerable competition among colleges in and around New York City, students in women's colleges consumed the winter months practicing for outdoor games during spring field days. Even though newspapermen were not permitted to witness the spectacle of interclass games, the matches were considered "diverting" and "healthful" for the student body, "free from all the unwholesome influences which more or less attend dramatics." Two hundred fifty "yelling spectators" cheered interclass games in the fall of 1900.

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35 Richardson, op. cit., p. 520.

36 Evans, op. cit., p. 79.
Team members gained the respect of their classmates but it was not considered "good form to court notoriety, and thus it is that we hear much less of the girl athlete." In her analysis Evans found a difference between administrative and student attitudes toward publicizing athletic events.

The lack of information on basketball in official college material may have indicated that the administration had reservations about the sport and did not wish its inclusion in the material available to the parents and the general public. Student publications showed no misgivings about discussing the sport; they had many references to interclass games, feelings about competition, and levels of participation.

Vassar had specific rules and regulations for participants in field days. It was common practice to insist upon medical clearance before a student was allowed to enroll in a physical education class. Similarly, a physical examination was required of track and field participants for field days. Parental permission was also necessary. Standards in classroom work had to be maintained. Women leaders were especially cautious, protecting their students and themselves. Standards for athletic competition, throughout the years, perpetuated those early precautions and concerns.

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38Evans, op. cit., p. 64.

Basketball received essentially the same mixed welcome in New York it had in other areas of the country. Students were enthusiastic about the competitive possibilities they associated with the game. Women physical educators, who at first encouraged the competition, realized almost immediately that the competition had to be controlled. From the beginning the sportive element was emphasized.

The athletic reputation and supremacy of the college are not at stake. . . . The girl's athletic contests are more fun and real sport, and while there is a healthful rivalry between class. . . . a defeat is not of serious importance.40 Yet, interclass play was extremely serious despite its festive air. A rather definite pattern for the future of collegiate athletics in New York had been established between 1890 and 1900.

COMPETITION, CONTROL, AND CONTAINMENT: 1900-1930

Interclass competition continued to dominate women's collegiate athletic programs as the new century dawned. There were occasional intercollegiate contests. "The Normal Training School, New York, is one of the leading institutions in this respect, and has been generally successful in its matches with the other schools."41 There was evidence of a subtle shift in athletic practices away from some of the thinking of the early pioneers.

40"College Girls and Basket-Ball," op. cit.
41Ibid.
Too, sports were centered largely around the privileged class of girls and women since members of the working class did not attend these institutions of higher learning. These pioneer efforts were also significant because, as a result, leadership in women's sports and games was established in the Eastern area of the United States.  

The eastern women directors of physical education continued to be most vocal in opposition to intercollegiate play even though some members of their staffs favored such competition.

As was the pattern in men's athletics, in New York intercollegiate programs lacked uniformity in organization and administration. At Wells College the athletic association managed athletic competition, which was not sponsored by the physical education department. The association went outside the institution to hire a field hockey coach, but members coached the remainder of the teams. The faculty was not represented on the governing board.  

Athletic associations, under student leadership, played important roles in the development of women's athletics. If nothing else, they supplied assistants who assumed the responsibilities held by the staff of an athletic director after that position eventually evolved in men's athletic programs.


In 1901 the Barnard College athletic association was composed of four officers and two executive committees in basketball and tennis. The association, independent because there was no physical education department, facilitated gatherings of students for specific activities. Competition "was keen from the beginning." Intercollegiate competition, chiefly with Teachers College, began early. In 1902 basketball games were played with Syracuse, Bryn Mawr, Smith alumnae, and the Methodist Episcopal Church. Barnard played six games in 1910, including three with Teachers College. A man was hired to coach the team in 1917. A turning point in competitive policy occurred when a department of physical education was established in 1918. Intercollegiate competition faded and was superseded by interclass competition in 1926. The athletic association membership changed from team members to an all-college basis supported by student activities fees. A point system based on attendance, participation in a variety of activities, and service to the organization was developed. Agnes R. Wayman, chairman of physical education at Barnard and an advocate of participation by the masses of students, became a leader in the Women's Division of the National

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45 Ainsworth, op. cit., p. 85.

46 Ross, op. cit., p. 10.
Amateur Athletic Federation. The department's 1931 "Syllabus for Physical Education" described the growth of interclass competition at Barnard and reflected the influence of the Women's Division.47

Lee's 1924 study of intercollegiate practices included four New York colleges: Barnard, Syracuse, Vassar, and Wells. Barnard was the only one reporting intercollegiate play.48 At that time Elmira was playing three games a year with Cornell at the end of the field hockey, basketball, and baseball seasons.49 Alfred University, too, was engaging in intercollegiate play early in the period.

... my mother played on quite an organized basketball team while attending Alfred University from which she graduated in 1913. They traveled by train. ... All I have are pictures of them with bloomers and big ribbons in their hair. Collegiate basketball must have been alive then, but with only local interpretations.50

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47 Barnard College, Columbia University, "Syllabus for Physical Education" (unpublished report, September, 1931), pp. 21-2. (Mimeographed.)


49 Ainsworth, op. cit.

In 1911 eastern women's colleges such as Vassar and Smith were not playing "a public basket ball game" or "exhibiting where gate money is charged and the public admitted."\(^5\)

It proved a vain hope to expect the situation would not change, at least so far as the alumnae of the two institutions were concerned. In 1922 teams composed of alumnae from Vassar and Smith played a basketball game for the benefit of their endowment funds amid banners, balloons, and flags in New York City's Seventh Regiment Armory. The scene was further enhanced by cheerleaders, organized singing, and stunts before the game and at halftime.

Between 3,000 and 4,000 persons were there to do honor to the fair warriors and most of them were more or less violently partisan. At any rate, they put forth a brand of yelling pro and con that would have done no great discredit to a baseball gathering.\(^2\)

Vassar won, 27-18, and carried away sixty per cent of the proceeds. With every good intention, the institutions were, nonetheless, condoning an event which violated the dictates of their beliefs about intercollegiate play. As might be expected, there were those who saw the contest as an inevit-


able first step toward such competition among undergraduates, competition which was to one observer both needed and appropriate. 53

The rivalry was renewed in 1923 when Vassar won, 39-23. "The game was aggressive throughout and every point that Vassar scored was a point well earned, for Smith, although wanting in team work, was stronger individually." 54 A tall Vassar center dominated the center jumps, making the most of the ruling which required a jump after each goal. The Barnard alumnae challenged the winners to a contest. The game, consisting of quarters alternately eight and seven minutes in length, was played two weeks later in the Columbia University gymnasium before 1,000 spectators whose admission fees went to the endowment funds of the participants. 55

Elsewhere in the state Cornell began intercollegiate competition in the mid-1920's. "Although it was not called that in the early days -- the term 'intercollegiates' was taboo in some circles." 56 Annual field hockey, tennis, and baseball games were played with Wells and Elmira. Similarly,


56 Letter from Dorothy Bateman, retired Chairman, Department of Physical Education, Cornell University, to the writer, December 11, 1971.
"Syracuse University with some other colleges in Central New York (private) has engaged in intercollegiate basketball (not varsity, as it is defined today) since 1926."^57

However, it was in the New York City area where basketball competition was developing in unprecedented fashion in the 1920's. The presence of several colleges in close proximity created a situation which would readily accommodate intercollegiate relationships. The following excerpts illustrate the breadth and nature of intercollegiate basketball competition in the City.

The New York University girls' basketball team easily defeated the Connecticut Aggies girls' team, 38 to 15, on the court of the Church of All Nations yesterday afternoon. Miss Metz was the star of the Violet aggregation, alone accounting for more points than were scored by the entire Connecticut Aggies team. Miss Metz caged seven field goals and three foul goals for a total of seventeen points. 58

With a larger and more experienced squad than last season, the New York University girls' basketball team looks forward to a successful season. Although one of the youngest sports at New York University the game already has taken such a hold on the student body at Washington Square that Miss Carlston, coach of the team, was faced with one of her most difficult problems early in the season in having to select a varsity team.

Much good material remained from last season and many girls, attracted by the popularity of the game, came out for the team. The re-

57 Letter from Lucille H. Verhulst, Chairman, Department of Physical Education for Women, Syracuse University, to the writer, December 7, 1971.

sult was a keen contest for the six regular positions. In the first game of the season the Violet overwhelmed the girls' team from the New York Agricultural College. The score in this game was 60 to 9 and rapidly developed into little more than a hard work-out for the local players.

Savage School of New York lost its first game in three years when the Posse Nissen girls team of Boston won here this afternoon by 22 to 15.

The Savage attack in the third quarter found the Hunter defense weak and the Savage advantage was widened to 18 to 8. In the last quarter the Hunter defense braced and held Savage to three points while scoring two against the victors. Miss Mary O'Dea, who played a strong game at right forward, scoring twelve points for chief honors, was elected captain of the Savage team for next season at a meeting of the players following the game.

The New York University girls' basketball team took advantage of a slow start by the Hunter College sextet yesterday at the Judson Memorial Church gymnasium to win its opening game of the season by 32 to 19. The victory was the first the Violet girls have been able to register over their metropolitan rivals in the past six years.

Women officiated those New York City area games. A few rules varied slightly from game to game. Five or six players composed the teams, quarters varied from seven to ten


minutes in length, and some games were played in halves. Publicity stressed key players, noted game sites, listed scores by quarters, and listed individual scores and positions. On occasion team pictures or a view of the opening center jump accompanied the account of the game. The accounts were brief and adhered to the essentials of the contest. Other than the fact that the articles appeared in print at all, physical educators might have questioned the continual designation of "star" players by the reporters. On the whole, however, the newspaper reports appeared inoffensive.

Teams involved in basketball competition with colleges in the New York City area included William and Mary, St. Joseph's College for Women, Adelphi, Manhattanville, St. Lawrence, Swarthmore, Georgian Court, Panzer, and Upsala. In October, 1929, a student-faculty athletic board was named to centralize the women's athletic program at New York University. Frances V. Froatz, director of women's athletics, was chairman of the board of which the dean of women was also a member. Between December 20, 1929, and March 15, 1930 the University scheduled ten games. Facilities must have proved a problem for home games were played at the Judson Memorial Church.

As was the case across the country, high school basket-


ball competition in New York far exceeded college programs in quantity and intensity. Alice Backus, retired chairman at the State University College at Plattsburgh, played only intramural basketball at Cortland Normal School but while teaching in Batavia coached the Elba high school girls' basketball team.65

Croton high school of New York challenged the Westfield, New Jersey, team for the eastern girls' interscholastic title in 1924 after Westfield had lost the national title to Guthrie, Oklahoma.66 Croton won the New York title by winning a series of games with Hempstead.67 Hempstead, in turn, won the national girls' interscholastic championship in 1925. "Wild cheering by the thousand spectators," men officials, encouragement from the governor, a large trophy, and an uproarious celebration highlighted the contest.68 Of course, all of these elements violated the recently formulated resolutions and platform of the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation.

65Letter from Alice Backus, retired Chairman, Department of Physical Education for Women, State University College at Plattsburgh, to the writer, November 4, 1971.


68"Hempstead Girls Win National Title," The New York Times, April 7, 1925, p. 25, col. 5.
The following year one thousand citizens petitioned the Hempstead principal to allow the girls to journey to Struthers, Ohio, to defend their title. The principal, who refused to allow the petition to be left in his office, would not give the school's sanction to the trip. The citizens' group finally relented and agreed with the school authorities that the team should not go.\(^69\) There was no evidence to indicate that a physical educator or a physical education organization was consulted in the decision.

With the arrival of Frederick Rand Rogers as Chief of the Bureau of Physical Education in 1926 came a de-emphasis on competitive athletics and a rise in importance of concerns for the individual needs of students.\(^70\) There was work to be done because ninety per cent of the larger schools and sixty per cent of the small village schools had interscholastic basketball teams for girls.\(^71\) As had been the case with Alice Backus, the Pawling high school coach, Natalie Shepard, was relieved to leave the interscholastic scene in 1930 for the calmer and less competitive atmosphere at Alfred University in Alfred, New York.


At Pawling we had, in those days, very keen interest in women's basketball and great community support for the program. I was considered fortunate in those days to have fallen into a situation where I coached a women's High School Basketball team that held the county championship for two years. The local drug store, jewelry store (?) I've forgotten the exact sponsor, presented all of us with gold medals for our achievement and the girls were given banquets and community recognition. The Principal at the time was a man who himself felt such a keen interest in competition that he took the team over from me and decided to coach it himself the next year. Under these circumstances I was happy to find other employment and went to Alfred, for one reason at least, to avoid the situation of what I considered to be over-emphasis on winning which was developing at Pawling.

This digression into the area of interscholastic competition illustrated several points. A teacher with a moderate viewpoint seemed to have little influence in changing this situation. There was apparently little immediate impact of the resolutions of the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation. Women who favored moderate inter-institution competition found a more comfortable setting in the colleges. Female leadership in either interscholastic or intercollegiate athletic concerns was not established on a statewide basis by 1930. Those girls who had played high school basketball and had gone to college evidently accepted the more conservative approach to competition generally favored by higher education institutions in the state. The contrast

72 Letter from Natalie Shepard, Chairman, Department of Physical Education for Women, Denison University, to the writer, November 23, 1971.
between competition in the high schools and colleges demonstrated the complexity of the situation with which the women seeking to control and guide its growth at the national and state levels were confronted.

ORGANIZATIONS TO GUIDE AND CONTROL ATHLETICS IN NEW YORK

Increasingly, individuals and groups were finding it necessary to institute controls over athletic competition, particularly as the contests grew more formal and regular in occurrence. Several organizations came to determine and make recommendations for athletic competition among girls and women in the State of New York between 1900 and 1930. For example, the state Physical Education Bureau issued suggestions for the guidance and control of girls' high school athletics. The Bureau recommended physical examinations, coaching by qualified women, provision for all girls to play, use of girls' rules, eligibility rules similar to those for boys, and limited attendance at contests.73

The Intersettlement Senior Girls' Association in New York City patterned its athletic program after the rules of the Amateur Athletic Union.

A Girls' Basketball League was organized among fifteen different settlements, and a series of matches is now being played off. The series will be finished about April 1,

and a banner awarded the winning team. Already a much friendlier spirit among the various settlement teams is noticeable, and the girls are learning to enjoy the game even if they are beaten.

The League rules carried the authority of sanctions. Players violating rules could not compete. The choice between boys and girls' rules proved difficult after the girls expressed preference for the boys' version. However, Edna Blue, Chairman of the Athletic Committee, favored girls' rules. The League, by seeking to avoid professionalism and interest in many players in its program preceded the Women's Division in identifying those concerns.

As early as 1912, the board of education of New York City conducted basketball programs in evening recreation centers for women and girls over fourteen years of age.

We have discouraged contests of teams from other centers, as it is thought best to have the games limited to attendants at the home center. The problem of traveling to different centers, located in various parts of the city, is one that entails expense and time, so the plan of limiting the basket ball competitors to home clubs is in every respect advisable.

Interest in girls' interscholastic basketball competition had been growing in the vicinity of New York City in 1906.


Students tended to favor the competition while the faculty expressed only passing interest. "Of course, the press, like the poor, are always with us; and our girls receive a certain kind of notoriety from notices and pictures, which cannot be recommended." Again, the policies recommended to control play foretold of many of the standards formulated later by national organizations. A physician's approval was necessary before competition, practices were controlled in terms of numbers and duration, and personal hygiene was considered. The need for professionally trained coaches was real and women were recommended for that task or at least in supervisory capacities. Problems arose with regard to matching opponents, the audience, number of games, chaperonage, admission, appropriate facilities, and officials. Forty years later specific basketball standards dealt with exactly those concerns.

Luther H. Gulick, who provided the stimulus for the invention of basketball, also gave the impetus for the development of one final, significant organization in New York City. The Girls' Branch, Public Schools Athletic League, organized on November 28, 1905. After surveying existing athletics and finding growing problems in basketball, the

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77 Ibid., pp. 183-85.
Girls' Branch determined to provide after-school supervision and instruction and to establish a "standard form of athletics for girls." A strong position of control of athletics for girls was established by the Girls' Branch.

1. To adopt a suitably modified game as the standard one for girls.

2. To adopt official rules.

3. To bring girls' athletics under the control of the Principal and Physical Training Department of the school.

4. To secure women coaches and officials who are competent and experienced in the women's game.

5. To abolish interscholastic games.

6. To establish interclass games by securing the interest and co-operation of principals and instructors of physical training, and by offering to each individual school a perpetual trophy for its interclass basket ball championships.

The failure of teacher training institutions to prepare competent teachers for such a program was clear. "The coaches, being interested and experienced only in the game as they played it themselves, were attempting to train the girls to play in the same way . . . ." Yet, the Girls' Branch


79Elizabeth Burchenal, "Basket Ball in the Public Schools of the City of New York," ibid., p. 47.

succeeded in its effort to eliminate interschool play.

Again, the policies of the Girls' Branch reflected the statements of national organizations which they preceded. The work of the Girls' Branch influenced many programs across the country. Though the play day concept has been identified with the third and fourth decades of the century, the Girls' Branch used the phrase in 1911 to describe massive field days.

The Girls' Branch is doing everything in its power to further the use of folk dancing as a form of play for the benefit and pleasure of the children themselves, and is opposed to its use for exhibition purposes. These fetes are arranged as great play days, with the children in great numbers from many schools, dotted in groups over the great meadows of fifteen acres or more, which are roped off and kept clear for the children only. In this way the individual children are lost to view in the great throng, and the exhibition element is eliminated, while at the same time the sight of acres of happy girls, all dancing at the same time is a more stirring and beautiful one than can be easily described.

Among the first organizations for women to guide its own programs, the Girls' Branch owed much of its success to Elizabeth Burchenal, first executive secretary of the organization. Her philosophy dominated the organization.

I wish we might break away entirely from the idea that in order to have athletics for girls we must approach the subject from a man's point of view, and that we might face the issue squarely and evolve our own individual natural sports regardless of whether or not they coincide with those of men.

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Probably the greatest significance, for this study, of the Girls' Branch and Burchenal's leadership was the fact that Elizabeth Burchenal became the first chairman of the Women's Athletic Committee of the American Physical Education Association in 1916. The positions taken by the Girls' Branch were evident in the later work of the Women's Athletic Committee. Hence, New York contributed its established tradition to national thinking in the person of Elizabeth Burchenal.

Similarly, New York was well represented in the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation. Helen McKinstry of the Central School of Hygiene and Physical Education in New York City was on the committee which planned the organization. McKinstry's point of view was represented in her belief in activity for the masses, interclass rather than interscholastic competition, and standards of physical as well as scholarship excellence. Her position came to be reflected in the sport program at Russell Sage College in Troy, New York.

Signe Hagelthorne, associate professor of physical education of New York University where intercollegiate competition was in the athletic department, spoke to the Women's Division in 1929 in favor of the substitution of intramurals for intercollegiate play. Lillian Schoedler, Executive Secretary

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of the Women's Division in its New York headquarters, stood in opposition to inter-institution play despite the fact that she had been a member of the basketball, baseball, hockey, track and other teams at Barnard in 1911 and competed on an intercollegiate basis.

"I am one of the selfish few who kept the many out of athletics," said Miss Schoedler. "We want to get away from that sort of thing and develop sports for all. The aim is sport for sport's sake and for the participants' sake, not primarily [sic] for the amusement of the spectators or for the gratification of a few stars." 85

Agnes Wayman of Barnard, active in the Women's Division, described the formation of a New York Workshop Group. 86 Forty to fifty organizations were represented at the meetings. Members ranged from colleges and private schools to banks, department stores, girl scouts, and health organizations. They met in round-table discussions to consider common problems. 87 The Workshop Group resolved that "participation in competition be a part of the training and experience of every girl, provided


that such competition is properly conducted and protected."  

Intramural competition was designed to promote educational outcomes, emphasize participation for all individuals, and be adapted to the participants' physical characteristics. "Intermural" competition was approved for end of season play or for small schools where numbers of students were not sufficient for an intramural program. To avoid any taint of commercialism even officials were to be unpaid. In other respects, too, the action of the Group reflected the platform of the Women's Division.

Meanwhile, there was also action regarding athletic competition at the college level. The undergraduate student members of the Athletic Conference of Eastern College Women took a liberal stand on intercollegiate athletics in 1919 in contrast to the position of their mentors.

With regard to intercollegiate games, the delegates favored them strongly. It seemed especially advisable for colleges in neighboring vicinities. For those not near enough to play each year, a triangular system similar to that used in debating was suggested. In order to meet expenses for these intercollegiate games, admission would have to be charged.

The delegates also favored the attendance of men at their con-

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89 Ibid., p. 212.
tests. In 1922 the Eastern Sectional Conference passed a resolution urging that the "National Conference declare itself in favor of intercollegiate athletics which do not involve long trips or large expenditure of money." In 1926 the Conference adopted the slogan "Fun for all, all for fun" in order to stimulate interest in athletics. In a twenty-three to three vote in 1929 the Conference decided not to take a stand against intercollegiate competition. Reflecting the concerns of the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation the 1929 Conference went on record against commercialization in the Olympics and, at the same time, encouraged the continuation of play days. While supporting portions of the Women's Division platform, the Eastern Sectional Conference of the Athletic Conference of American College Women did not support its stand against Olympic participation by women.

In 1910 Amy Morris Homans was hostess for a meeting of a group of women physical education directors she had invited to Wellesley College. Five years later the Association of Directors of Physical Education was organized. The Association of Directors of Physical Education was organized. The Association of Directors of Physical Education was organized.

94 Ibid.
tion provided an opportunity for the directors to exchange ideas and consider common problems. The membership was exclusive; normal school directors were not included for many years. Therefore, the decisions of the members affected only a select group. To maintain its exclusivity the group chose not to become a part of the American Physical Education Association and acted to prevent a national directors' association in 1918.

In 1920 the Association stated the reasons for its disapproval of intercollegiate athletics.

1. It leads to professionalism.

2. Training of a few to the sacrifice of many.

3. It is unsocial.


5. Physical educators, both men and women, of our leading colleges find the results undesirable.


7. Unnecessary nerve fatigue.

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96 Ibid., p. 17.

Even telegraphic meets were rejected by the newly named Eastern Society of Directors of Physical Education in Colleges for Women because of the potential flood of competition which might follow.  

In 1923 the Eastern Society endorsed the resolutions of the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation. Yet, Constance Applebee could receive the approval of the Society for the continuing growth of field hockey which she had nurtured since 1901. At any rate, the Society found it safe by 1925 to become a full member rather than simply an endorser of the Women's Division. The Eastern Society joined the Women's Division in condemnation of women in the Olympics by sending a resolution to that effect to the Olympic committee.

CONCLUSION

Education for girls and women in New York both reflected and set trends. Sports crept into physical education programs after the mid-nineteenth century as adjuncts to required gymnastics programs. Vassar College was particularly sport-

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99 Meadows, op. cit., p. 34.
101 Meadows, op. cit., p. 31.
oriented from its origin. Basketball was accepted enthusiastically on the campus in 1895 and replaced baseball as the team sport played on college campuses. Interclass basketball spectacles became important aspects of the social life created on the campus.

Vassar accepted basketball as an intramural activity and the game followed the pattern already established at neighboring Smith College. Barnard College, where the athletic association was not a part of a physical education department, engaged in intercollegiate basketball play shortly after the turn of the century.

As had been the case in colleges outside New York, women in the state were anxious that competition progress only with proper precautions. Early efforts to guide and control programs were local and individual in nature. Eventually, many of the policies established at Vassar, for example, were reflected in the standards of national organizations. Student members of the eastern section of the Athletic Conference of American College Women differed from their teachers who belonged to the Eastern Society of Directors of Physical Education in Colleges for Women. Students tended to favor intercollegiate competition; their elders thought participation by the masses was more important.

At any rate, women physical educators utilized student assistance to a great extent. Student rather than professional help assumed much of the responsibility for the organi-
zation and administration of campus athletic programs. Needless to say, the physical education staff reserved the final decisions about competition among themselves except in instances where the athletic association was not under the supervision of a physical education department. At Barnard emphasis shifted from intercollegiate play to intramurals after a physical education program was instituted on the campus.

Competition between alumnae teams indicated that students must have had some interest in intercollegiate basketball. Intercollegiate play flourished in and around New York City. There were no formal leagues or scheduling meetings, but several teams in the area played regular seven- to ten-game schedules. Interscholastic competition caused the State Bureau to recommend safeguards. In New York City Elizabeth Burchenal, Executive Secretary of the Girls' Branch, Public Schools Athletic League, led the girls into intramural play and massive park festivals. Her later leadership of the Women's Athletic Committee of the American Physical Education Association reflected much of her earlier work in the Girls' Branch.

The resolutions and platform of the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation appeared in 1923 and 1924. It is important to note that many institutions in New York had developed their own policies for competition before either the Women's Athletic Committee or the Women's Division was formed. Because intercollegiate play was rela-
tively informal and haphazard, specific guidelines, carrying sanctions, would have been anomalous. On the other hand, several women in New York recognized the need for a national organization to which others might turn for guidance and support. Accordingly, Helen McKinstry, Agnes Wayman, Elizabeth Burchenal, and others contributed their energies and theories to the development and perpetuation of national organizations. Women leaders in New York, to their credit, did not content themselves with lofty proclamations. They acted to establish control and guide the development of competition from a very early date.
CHAPTER VIII

PLAY DAYS AND SPORTS DAYS IN NEW YORK STATE: 1930-1955

INTRODUCTION

As the decade of the 1930's began, women's intercollegiate basketball competition in New York State continued its moderate course. Had a college desired to engage in an exuberant intercollegiate program, there would simply have been no one to play. Though competition among teams was occurring in many parts of the state, it was neither intense nor extensive.

The literature of physical education and records of the various organizations directly and indirectly influencing thinking in New York contained almost no information about intercollegiate basketball. In fact, there was no organization dealing directly with women's college physical education until late in the period between 1930 and 1955. As a consequence, no statewide standards were formulated for colleges and universities engaged in athletic competition until the mid-1960's. Specific information compiled for the period between 1930 and 1955 was derived, chiefly, from the personal recollections of those who were involved directly with intercollegiate programs in New York. That technique proved part-
icularly valuable because even many of the policies designed to guide the various programs which did exist proved to be personal and unwritten.

THE SITUATION BETWEEN 1930 AND 1940

While literally dozens of intercollegiate basketball games were played by women's teams in New York City between 1930 and 1940, competition in other parts of the state was not extensive. In many institutions intercollegiate play was in an experimental stage. Other colleges maintained an allegiance to intramural play.

Clearly, the background and competitive experiences of faculty members significantly influenced the programs they developed. Equally apparent was the dominance of the physical education department, particularly its chairman, in determining policies and judging practices. Student athletic associations provided invaluable services for campus sport programs, but there was little evidence to indicate their viewpoints had real impact in the determination of program content or direction.

When Margaret Holland joined the physical education department at Barnard in 1926 intercollegiate athletics had been abolished there.

This did not distress me since I have always believed in an extensive intramural program with the leadership directed toward "many participants rather than the highly selected few!" Consequently my participation in and acquaintance
with the standards of DGWS, NSGWS etc. were nil. My concentration and efforts were directed toward the total program within the institution with occasional "play days" and informal competition with a few outside institutions as invited participants.

Holland's position clearly reflected that of the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation, whether or not it was a conscious realization. She proceeded to explain more of her thinking and to indicate the influence of her childhood on her attitude.

I thoroughly believe in competition, we live in a competitive [sic] society, but I repeat, let us see that "the many" rather than "the few" derive the pleasures of competition. Furthermore I have never subscribed to a policy of developing a high degree of skill. The important goal was a satisfactory performance for understanding and pleasure - the social encounter as important as the game itself. Perhaps this reflects my own lack of a "high" degree of skill - I never played Intercollegiate Basketball - in fact my personal skill in sports activities was mediocre - I enjoyed the activities for their health and recreational benefits. As a child we skated, played baseball, climbed trees, created plays, took walks through the woods, cooked out-of-doors, rode our bicycles etc. During high school there was no program in Physical Education. It was not until my Senior year that a teacher of Physical Education arrived to introduce us to the basic requirements of a program. There was no gymnasium: classes were conducted in the regular classroom or, occasionally we would assemble in a hall for the introduction of active games. 

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1Letter from Margaret Holland, Professor Emeritus, Barnard College, to the writer, December 5, 1971.

2Ibid.
In contrast Marcia H. Winn, chairman of physical education at William Smith College in Geneva, New York, at that same time, encouraged intercollegiate play and was responsible for organizing central New York colleges for that purpose. She also attributed her point of view to background influences.

I was educated in the era of Miss Constance ("The Apple") Applebee and of English hockey coaches and sportsmanship. My students and my staff knew that I felt strongly about two things:

a) that one should always play to win — by playing one's best as an individual and as a cooperating team member, and never quitting

b) that sportsmanship and a well played game were more important than a winning score.

Alfred University in Alfred, New York, under the leadership of Natalie Shepard between 1930 and 1936, participated in a schedule of play days with neighboring colleges.

These were the days, 1930-36, when Playdays were much more important than Intercollegiate competition as we know it today. Keen competition was discouraged and felt to be harmful. The emphasis was all on sociability on mixing teams and on good sportsmanship. The degree of skill on the part of each individual tended to be down graded and the emphasis was placed on social attitudes and on the fact that any girl who wanted to play could and should have a place on the team. The slogan for the day was "every girl on a team" and the emphasis was a place for everyone.

The typical season would include two or three Playdays in each sport. We attempted to have two or three schools invited at the same time so that the interchange could be extravagant.

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3Letter from Marcia H. Winn, retired Chairman, Physical Education Department, William Smith College, to the writer, February 6, 1972.
There was little time spent on practicing and the games were scheduled in a very informal way.

Play days won little favor in New York. The typical reaction appeared to agree with Dorothy Ainsworth's assessment of such competition as "silly."\(^5\)

I was personally a team competitor and I rather disagreed with the over emphasis on the Playday. It seemed to me that we should have team identification and that we could also have good social relationships. I felt that team identification would give us a more highly skilled group and that greater satisfactions were to be had in direct relation to the degree of skill which one could achieve.

Dorothy Bateman at Cornell echoed the same general feeling.

Play Days (teams composed of players from each of the participating colleges) had a short life in the late 30's . . . . They were promoted by those not favoring intercollegiates. Many were not enthusiastic about this form of competition, but cooperated in the experiment. I think Syracuse staged one of the first.

College opportunities for Iris Carnell, who later taught at several central New York colleges, did not accommodate her interests in competition. The occasional games were not ade-

\(^4\) Letter from Natalie Shepard, Chairman, Department of Physical Education for Women, Denison University (formerly of Alfred University), to the writer, November 23, 1971.


\(^6\) Correspondence with Shepard.

\(^7\) Letter from Dorothy Bateman, retired Chairman, Department of Physical Education, Cornell University, to the writer, December 11, 1971.
quate. To compensate "most of us who 'loved' basketball, sought out town teams; I played on one of these teams for the 4 years of college."\(^8\)

Lucille H. Verhulst was associated with the national women's basketball tournament of the Amateur Athletic Union held in Wichita, Kansas, between 1930 and 1934. She attempted to involve women in that basketball program and was herself "one of two women officials who refereed the consolation finals" in 1934.\(^9\) However, her subsequent activities at Syracuse University did not reflect an inordinate emphasis, immediately, in the development of intense competition for women students. There was little place for such an emphasis among New York colleges. Syracuse remained typical of colleges during that period.

As mentioned, intercollegiate basketball competition in New York City continued unabated. Elizabeth Yeend Meyers officiated approximately fifteen of those contests each year among such colleges as New York University, Hunter, Adelphi, Hofstra, and Manhattanville. "Surprised to find anyone searching into my past about basketball," she outlined her recollections of these experiences. She indicated that no leagues existed in the City and that most of the games were "friendly

\(^8\)Letter from Iris Carnell, Division of Physical Education, Ithaca College, to the writer, n.d.

\(^9\)Letter from Lucille H. Verhulst, Chairman, Department of Physical Education for Women, Syracuse University, to the writer, December 7, 1971.
meetings." American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation standards, she said, guided competition. Players had to have medical examinations. Teams traveled by cars and public transportation. Crowds behaved well, no admission was charged, and officials were paid in accordance with the fee scale in the women's rule guide. Meyers indicated she had been "treated well" as an official.  

The games were played according to the rules edited by the Women's Athletic Committee and the National Section on Women's Athletics. A small group of women officials, rated by the officiating board in the metropolitan area, called the games.

The Savage School girls' basketball team vanquished the Hunter College girls, 26 to 15, in the Savage gymnasium yesterday. The winners got off to a big lead in the initial period, which proved too much for the Hunter team to overcome.

In the first quarter the Savage girls rolled up a 12-to-2 advantage and maintained this margin in the second quarter. Each tallied three points in that period, the score at half time being 15 to 5. At the close of the third period the Savage girls had increased their advantage to 15 points, the score being 23 to 8. Hunter closed with a rally in the final session and outscored Savage, 7 to 3.

Miss Inez Williams was the leader of the Savage offense. She tossed in five field goals for a total of 10 points. Miss Mary O'Dea, captain of the Savage team, registered four field baskets for 8 points. High scoring honors for Hunter were captured by Miss Shea, who tallied

10 Letter from Elizabeth Meyers, Director of College Activities, Barnard College, Columbia University, to the writer, February 4, 1972.
three field goals and three fouls.\textsuperscript{11}

Though hardly an example of creative writing, the foregoing account was typical of newspaper reports of basketball games in the New York City area. The reports as well as the scores were similar to those of the men's games. Invariably, however, the players were referred to as "Miss."

The excerpt below noted the complexity of scoring under the official women's rules in 1930.

Trailing at half time, the New York University girls' basketball team came from behind to defeat the Adelphi College sextet, 27-25, in the Adelphi gymnasium today. Miss Helen Koteen of the victors took scoring honors, making five underhand, three overhand and two foul goals for a total of fifteen points.\textsuperscript{12}

Because the rules did not permit guarding of an overhead shot, those field goals counted one point.

Six hundred spectators watched Savage defeat Hunter in 1931.\textsuperscript{13} Savage won its nineteenth consecutive game in January, 1932.\textsuperscript{14}

Meanwhile the metropolitan competitors welcomed or visited American International College of Springfield, Massachusetts, East Stroudsburg in Pennsylvania, Rhode Island Col-


ege, St. Lawrence University, Connecticut Agricultural College, Harrisonburg from Virginia, and William and Mary. Manhattanville College concluded its third successive undefeated season in March, 1935.  

Playing two-court basketball for the first time in 1936, New York University found the game quite different.

With three girls eligible to shoot for the basket and the court divided into halves instead of thirds the game was considerably faster. The Violet forward combination, working with creditable finesse, proved a much speedier aggregation than the opposition.

The team also played three-court contests during the same season. In 1938 the team completed its fifteenth season of intercollegiate basketball.

Savage violated a basic tenet of women's athletics in 1936 when the basketball team played Rider College in a preliminary or curtain-raiser contest before the men's team played Montclair State Teachers College. However, New College clung to the rules when its game with Rhode Island State ended in a 26-26 tie. "Under girls' rules no overtime periods are allowed, so no attempt was made to break the

deadlock." Still experiencing difficulties determining whether to play two-court or three-court rules, St. Joseph's and Hunter solved the problem by playing one half according to each set of rules in 1938. At New York University students had to carry at least twelve credits to be eligible to compete on athletic teams. A "C" average was also necessary. An awards dinner was held annually in May for the University's athletic teams for women. "The Department of Physical Education did not participate in our University Women's Athletic programs." Occasionally, senior physical education majors were allowed to compete. During the 1930's William and Mary and East Stroudsburg ended their trips to New York University for basketball competition because of the expense and length of the trip, possibly demonstrating the effects of the Depression.

With a telephone call in 1933 Marcia H. Winn at William Smith initiated a movement toward an organization which was to grow in purpose and membership for nearly thirty years.

Around 1933 I telephoned to a friend in the Physical Education Department at Wells College

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21Letter from M. Schlichting, Basketball Coach, Division of Athletics, New York University, to the writer, November 11, 1971.

22Letter from M. Schlichting, Basketball Coach, Division of Athletics, New York University, to the writer, December 27, 1971.
to ask if she had a hockey team that would like to come to Geneva to play the William Smith honorary varsity which had just been selected at the end of our intramural season. Wells was interested, and so — when asked — was Keuka. We had to be careful not to call these games "intercollegiate athletics" because that was locally frowned on for women; but I had come from the Boston area and my instructor had come from Bryn Mawr, and so we naturally considered competition healthy.

Cornell joined the group in the 1930's also. "Much of the competition was in the form of a 'Sports Day' (for awhile they were incorrectly called 'Play Days' in this area)." These women were allying themselves with the position of the National Section on Women's Athletics whose acceptance of the sports day in 1937 had been considered too liberal by the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation, advocates of the play day and very occasional invitational matches.

Cornell played three field hockey games in 1931-32. By 1936-37 teams participated in a basketball sports days with five colleges, a field hockey sports day, a badminton match, and an archery match also occurred in 1936-37. Similarly, in 1935-39 there were three sports days, one postal match in riflery, and a postal match in archery.

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23 Letter from Marcia H. Winn, retired Chairman, Department of Physical Education, William Smith College, to the writer, February 6, 1972.

24 Letter from Dorothy Bateman, Chairman, Department of Physical Education, Cornell University, to the writer, December 11, 1971.

25 Ibid.
While Elmira College, Elmira, New York, participated in intercollegiate basketball in the 1930's, Alice Backus remembered that her alma mater, Cortland, confined its competition to interclass play through her graduation in 1930. Agnes I. Michaels recalled a game between Cortland and New York University in 1931. Vassar was operating at a similarly moderate pace corresponding with the platform of the Women's Division. Syracuse also engaged in a conservative program of competition in the Central New York area. Bar-
nard, reflecting the attitudes of its leaders, complied with the Women's Division platform.

... under the leadership of Agnes Wayman and since then, the philosophy of competi-
tion has always centered around -- "Intra-
murals for all -- with no specialization of the few." There have been no actual vars-
ties, but we have participated in many sports

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26Letter from Margaret C. Locke, Director of Physical Education, Elmira College, to the writer, November 19, 1971.

27Statement by Alice Backus, personal interview, November 18, 1971.

28Letter from Agnes I. Michaels, Department of Physical Education, State University College at Fredonia, to the writer, November 10, 1971.

29Letter from Betty Richey, Chairman, Department of Physical Education, Vassar College, to the writer, December 17, 1971.

30Letter from Lucille H. Verhulst, Chairman, Department of Physical Education for Women, Syracuse University, to the writer, December 7, 1971.
days, play days and in games played for rating officials.  

Competition under the auspices of the Amateur Athletic Union was carried on locally in New York until 1934.

Members of the Women's Eastern Amateur Basketball League met at the Catholic Young Women's Club . . . and arranged a tentative schedule of interclub games for the Winter season.

The league is trying to organize club basketball in this section so that it will be possible to send an Eastern team for the first time to the national championship. With this goal in view the league will run a tournament during the Winter. The four highest point winners at the end of the season will playoff for the championship in a special tourney to be held under the auspices of the Metropolitan A.A.U.  

Local athletic clubs and religious groups entered teams in the League. Other independent teams also carried on regular schedules in the New York City area. There was no evidence to indicate that college teams engaged in these games; however, it was possible that college students and faculty members participated on the teams, as they did in later years.

Meanwhile, girls' interscholastic programs were reduced from the intensity of the 1920's. In 1933 the New York State

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31 Letter from Marion R. Philips, Chairman, Department of Physical Education, Barnard College, Columbia University, to the writer, November 12, 1971.


Education Department endorsed, in substance, resolutions formulated by the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation. The resolutions urged sport opportunities for all students, medical examinations and follow-up procedures, development of sportsmanship, and publicity aimed at the values of the activities. The Women's Division platform was not endorsed until 1938, but it was not until that date that the Board of Regents acted to bring athletics under the umbrella of physical education and to "limit the girls' athletic programs to club activities, intramural games, playdays, and approved invitation activities" under girls' rules and the leadership of women. As college programs indicated a temperate shift toward increases in intercollegiate competition, high school competition was reduced and placed under control of physical education personnel and state education organizations. The New York State Basketball Committee of the National Section on Women's Athletics reported no requests for aid from institutions in the state in 1938-39. Five officials' rating boards were supplying officials for the girls


and women's contests.  

One piece of research reported in a rule guide represented New York's contribution to the study of changing rules. Comparing the strenuousness imposed by rule changes, Josephine Persicano, an active official in New York City, reported a study of New York University physical education majors engaged in double round robin intramural basketball tournaments in 1937 and 1938. She compared the strenuousness of the two-court and three-court games and found that the two-court game did "not tend to impose greater strain on any one individual" in terms of weight loss, distance traversed, and average pulse rate increases.

While most colleges appeared to abide by the rules rather strictly, standards for competition were met in various ways. A round table discussion at the 1931 Eastern Sectional Conference of the Athletic Conference of American College Women indicated that point systems of campus athletic associations rewarded members for adhering to rules similar to the platform statements of the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation or what might be considered local

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interpretations of those principles. The Conference went on record in favor of play days and in opposition to participation of women in the Olympics.

Barnard and Cornell took a stand in favor of play days in 1934. New York University, as might be expected, looked more favorably toward sports days. The Conference that year went on record against "trained" school teams.

a. The purpose is to shift emphasis from competition to enjoyment and the promotion of friendship. It is suggested as a means of shifting this emphasis a sports day in which more than two schools should participate with the opponents drawn by lot; and with activities other than purely sports activities.

b. It is also suggested that the sports day include discussions and a meal or tea to encourage sociability.

c. It urged that gate receipts, spectators, and publicity be avoided as well as those games which promote a spirit of rivalry. The convention approved the sports day as fostering a proper spirit between schools. The convention went on record as favoring color teams as opposed to trained college teams.

Eastern College Directors demonstrated only a casual concern for standards and the intercollegiate program. The 1936 conferees discussed eligibility for intercollegiate competitors.


The third topic dealt with eligibility standards for participation in competitive sports. Some had no such standard, and in those colleges where such a standard was enforced, it was an academic one, the general standard being equivalent to demanding a C average in academic work. No college had training rules except those set up as suggestions for the players' use.

The representatives of Women's Athletic Associations from the thirty colleges in attendance at the 1937 Northeastern Conference of the Athletic Federation of College Women voted to oppose "varsity competition" and to discourage "extensive awards." In the same year that organization's Committee on Inter-School Relations recommended that play days be adopted instead of intercollegiate competition and the convention accepted the proposal. Since New York colleges and universities were members of the eastern section of the Athletic Conference of American College Women, the resolutions of the northeastern group were applicable to competition in the state. There was no evidence to indicate that the resolutions directly influenced intercollegiate athletic programs and practices in New York. The Conference did pro-


vide the members a forum to discuss their various views.

The Eastern Association of Directors of Physical Education for College Women, as it became known in 1939, provided college directors the same type forum for discussion as the students and their advisers found in their Conference. The Directors took a realistic perspective on athletic competition in 1936. Rather than remain aloof and theorize, the women realized, and apparently accepted, that intercollegiate competition existed and that it was being controlled at the local level.

Roughly by show of hand it was estimated that approximately one third of those colleges represented indulged in straight varsity competition; an additional third had outside competition of some form, while the remainder had no outside competition. Many seemed to feel that the question was settled largely by the condition and location of each individual college.

The result of the show of hands was typical of the situation in New York, even though many institutions in the state remained ineligible according to the membership qualifications in the Eastern Society. From the accounts given by several individuals contacted in this study it seemed that some departments offering competition did so with half their attention alert for the critical comments of colleagues. Strangely, the evidence indicated that the majority of directors and their staffs knew little about circumstances at institutions other

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than their own.

In summary, then, intercollegiate competition in New York grew cautiously in some areas of the state. Nonetheless, more games were played during the 1930-1940 period than had been played previously. Particularly in the central area of the state, there was experimentation with the play day as had been recommended by the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation in the previous decade. Though the women did not condone the play day with enthusiasm, they dutifully engaged in such "days." There was no uniformity in type of competition across the state, but there was similarity in the moderation which typified all the programs.

The backgrounds of the women in leadership roles affected both their attitudes and the programs developed under their guidance. There were no organizations in the state to rally women physical educators to a common cause. The Eastern Association of Directors of Physical Education for College Women had members from New York but its membership qualifications excluded many colleges and universities. The Directors did conclude the decade recognizing that competitive athletics did exist and that the programs were subject almost entirely to local control. The eastern section of the Athletic Conference of American College Women tended to favor play days and there was little indication that the group afforded more than a forum for discussion among its members.

Sports days were the dominant form of competition before
the decade concluded. There was no doubt that most games, especially in New York City, were taken quite seriously by the participants. While interscholastic competition was brought under state control in the 1930's, intercollegiate competition began to grow, even though with great caution, primarily under the leadership of the various institutional physical education departments. Competition sponsored in the community and by the Amateur Athletic Union existed and might have attracted college students but not college teams.

Specifically, evidence accumulated to indicate that intercollegiate basketball followed the guidelines generally agreed upon in the literature of physical education and by national organizations. Women coached and officiated. Physical examinations were usually required before participation in physical education activities of any kind. Admission fees were not charged. Women's rules were used. Eligibility rules usually referred to academic standing.

A CONTINUATION OF RESTRAINED GROWTH: 1940-1955

Intercollegiate basketball competition, chiefly in the form of sports days, continued its moderate growth between 1940 and 1955. The descriptions in the personal recollections which follow illustrated the unevenness of the intensity of competition which persisted into that period. No attempt was made to reconstruct events in a specific way. Efforts were
concentrated on the identification of trends in competition and the standards which guided the programs. The scarcity of records and haziness of the memories of the individuals contacted for information indicated to the writer that the informality of the competition left few lasting impressions among the players, coaches, officials, and administrators.

During this period women's colleges appeared to take the most conservative course. Intramurals continued to be the dominant competitive form at Barnard College, for example. "Frequently intramural teams have entertained teams from other colleges or schools in a very informal, friendly kind of competition." Typically, the students sought more opportunities to compete.

Through the years, students have requested that varsity teams be organized, but when the pressures of academic responsibilities build up, they realize they cannot give the necessary time for a personal commitment to the hours needed for development of a varsity team or for a lengthy schedule.

Assessing the situation at Barnard in 1947 when two-thirds of the students were commuters, Ross found the situation somewhat paradoxical.

Certain limitations in the physical education program would be natural in lieu of the obvious handicaps of a city college:

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45 Letter from Marion R. Philips, Chairman, Department of Physical Education, Barnard College, Columbia University, to the writer, November 12, 1971.

46 Ibid.
little space either for utilization or expansions; competition with all the attractions and entertainments of New York City; a serious lack of student time because of the large number of commuters. At the same time there are undeniable advantages for student organization in a compact college: centralization of extra-curricular activities in one building; all facilities for physical education activities readily accessible; comparative availability of students during the daytime.

At Elmira students participated in intercollegiate basketball until the end of the Second World War at which time the competition ended. Vassar, on the other hand, played "a game here and there" but there was no intercollegiate program. There was no set squad. As was the case at Smith College, students were unwilling to pay expenses or forfeit their weekends for an intercollegiate program. Alfreda Mosscrop, retired chairman at Vassar and former chairman of the National Section on Women's Athletics, sought the best possible program for every student, not just the highly skilled. Clearly, the standards had not been written for the highly skilled performer as some readers tended to assume.

Iris Carnell could "remember taking a ski team to an intercollegiate meet at St. Lawrence; I was then teaching at


48Letter from Margaret C. Locke, Director of Physical Education, Elmira College, to the writer, November 19, 1971.

Wells College. This was about 1948-49. We also had a hockey team and a basketball team." The women's colleges, then, though similar in some respects could not be placed in a single category.

Helen M. Allen, whose vast experience in intercollegiate basketball enabled her to account for thirty years of competition, described the situation in New York City. Scheduling games through the mail, teams averaged eight games per season between 1941 and 1949 and finally moved from the three-court to two-court game exclusively. Into the 1950's teams averaged ten games. "Play days and sports days were held in other sports but not in basketball since this seemed to be the most highly organized form of competition." Allen was also associated with the Amateur Athletic Union in New York City. Clearly, the AAU was not promoting extensive competition or tournaments in basketball in the City.

There have been over the past thirty years leagues involving college and ex-college players. They were informal but well organized. During the past four years the AAU has had an organized league of which I was chairman for two years. We were not able to include any more than four teams in any of these leagues in the metropolitan area. The policies for AAU play are established by the parent organization.

50 Letter from Iris Carnell, Division of Physical Education, Ithaca College, to the writer, n.d.
51 Letter from Helen M. Allen to the writer, January 3, 1972.
52 Ibid.
Allen indicated that women leaders were aware of the standards for competition of the Division for Girls and Women's Sports and its antecedents. State organizations, however, were not influential in the guidance of intercollegiate programs.

Intercollegiate basketball practices were influenced by the DGWS standards in the New York area. Professor Marjorie Hillas (deceased) from Teachers College, Columbia U. was the first chairman of the N. Y. Board of Women Officials. Most of the Board members were N. Y. coaches and players and were strongly influenced by D.G.W.S. Guidelines. The National Amateur Athletic Federation had very little impact.

State organizations did not seem to influence N. Y. city college competition. The N. Y. city colleges did establish a maximum game schedule of 8 to 10 games during the early 40's and 50's which is not currently operative. DGWS officials are only acceptable. All of these standards were loosely established and not binding on anyone but generally accepted by all. Guidelines were not published except where the city colleges had a scholastic index for participation eligibility.

Helen M. Allen played "intercollegiate varsity basketball" at Hunter College for four years in the early 1940's. "We had an excellent coach, played an 8 game annual schedule, and were undefeated for three years." 54

Cal Papatsos played intercollegiate basketball at New York University from 1940 to 1944 while she was a student.

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53Ibid.
54Ibid.
The University continued an eight to ten game schedule throughout the period as it had in previous years. "We had similar standards to DGWS long before they had them." The colleges in the New York City area continued their convenient intercollegiate program. Still no league structure emerged, though one was led to believe that certain unwritten, mutually understood, considerations existed.

Cal Papatsos moved on to Queens College in 1947 where she proceeded to coach varsity basketball for fourteen years. Basketball at Queens had begun in the 1943-44 season. The rules of the National Section on Women's Athletics and its successors were "always used." "Weaned" on standards for competition at New York University, Papatsos followed them "religiously" at Queens. The intercollegiate program had not been expensive.

The only records available for the 1943-1947 years are expense vouchers signed by Coach Natalie Gardner: $2.64 for two cases of Coke; $27.24 for the team to play away games against Adelphi, Panzer (?), and Hofstra; and 45¢ for oranges at halftime.

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55 Letter from Cal Papatsos, Queens College, to the writer, December 12, 1971.
56 Letter from M. Schlichting, Basketball Coach, Division of Athletics, New York University, to the writer, November 11, 1971.
57 Correspondence with Papatsos, op. cit.
The team moved from high school gymnasiums to a campus facility in 1949. The first overnight trip occurred in the 1953-54 season when the team journeyed to Brandeis University in Massachusetts. A College publication accused rivals, Brooklyn and Hunter Colleges, of recruiting players through mother-daughter luncheons, fathers' nights, and "favorite professor nights." Queens took its basketball program quite seriously.

Brooklyn College rejoined New York City area intercollegiate basketball competition about 1950. Most of the games were termed intensive or varsity level, "about 5% has been on a Sportsday or Playday level."

Meanwhile, work was underway to promote women's basketball rules and women officials among non-college teams in the metropolitan area.

Ann Travers, recently elected basketball judge by the N.Y. Board of Women Officials, has been conducting clinics and interpretive sessions throughout New York City. She has waged a campaign to have all girls who participate in the Department of Parks Program for Youth play basketball using the NSGWS basketball rules, and to use women officials who have received their ratings from local boards. Each year the managers and coaches of the teams are called together in clinics.

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59 Ibid.

60 Letter from Vivian Acosta, Director, Women's Recreation Association, Brooklyn College, to the writer, December 23, 1971.
Though there appeared to be no exceptions to the use of women's rules among college teams, in 1954 it was still necessary to encourage the use of the rules by other groups. This situation was similar to conditions across the nation.

Plattsburgh, in extreme northern New York, joined colleges in northeastern New York and across Lake Champlain in Vermont by participating in a fall scheduling conference. At the conference "sports days were arranged in a variety of activities for the entire year. It is true that the schedule was not binding and many forfeits occurred for various reasons." Certainly, one of those reasons was the weather. At any rate, "during the years that sports days were sponsored at Plattsburgh, our extramural program was rooted in D.G.W.S. standards, philosophy and guidelines." Games were played according to official women's rules. The road to intercollegiate competition had not been entirely without obstacles at Plattsburgh. In April, 1949, Alice Backus, chairman of women's physical education, received a memorandum from the Executive Council of the institution.


62Letter from Alice Backus, retired Chairman, Department of Physical Education for Women, State University College at Plattsburgh, to the writer, November 4, 1971.

63Ibid.
It has not been the policy of the college to sponsor intercollegiate athletic contests for women. Is it desirable to continue this policy or are there arguments for changing it? This year there has been publicity contrary to the policy of the college which has appeared twice. This should not happen again unless there is a change in policy authorized by the administration.

Despite the admonition Backus adhered to her belief in the pursuit of excellence in performance. It was interesting to note her concern for the highly-skilled performer since Backus' own competitive experience was gained at Cortland where athletic competition was limited to interclass tournaments. Equally significant was the fact that the athletic policies were authorized by the administration of the institution at Plattsburgh.

In the somewhat more populous area of central New York, the informal scheduling arrangement initiated by Marcia H. Winn with a telephone call in the previous decade added members and functions between 1940 and 1955. It was appropriate that the creator of the group should describe its growth.

For the next few years we continued in this way, on the basis of individual telephone calls, and just during the hockey season. But then in the early forties [sic] when William Smith acquired a small gym and we wanted to expand both the number of extramural activities and the list of competing institutions, I talked

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64 Memorandum to Alice Backus from Executive Council, April 12, 1949.

65 Statement by Alice Backus, personal interview, November 18, 1971.
with Miss Catherine [sic] Sibley of Syracuse, an old-timer and real leader in the field, as well as with my colleagues at Keuka and Wells, about having a fall meeting to set up a schedule for the year.

Everyone was enthusiastic and this was the start of a very informal group that later (probably in the early fifties) called itself the Finger Lakes Planning Committee. But before that (in the forties) Cornell, Elmira, Alfred, Syracuse and the University of Rochester had joined our group; and basketball, badminton, bowling, tennis and swimming were being included in our activities. Larger institutions that had the facilities usually were hosts for Sports Days for several colleges and several activities, (Play Days were not popular in this area.) Smaller places with less adequate facilities continued to invite one or two other colleges, and usually just for one sport at a time.

In short, and as nearly as I can remember:

a) From 1933 to 1942ish hockey games were very informally arranged by individual institutions, first by departmental telephone calls, later through letters between student managers.

b) Beginning in the early or mid-forties, an informal group met annually in the early fall to set up a schedule for that year. This planning board consisted of a member of the Athletic Association and a representative from the Physical Education Department of each institution.

c) After a few years, perhaps in the early fifties, the above group formally organized itself under the name of Finger Lakes Planning Committee, and at some point the meetings were changed to late spring.

Winn also explained that basketball, though included in sports days from the early 1940's, had never been as popular as field hockey or volleyball. At William Smith basketball competition on an extramural basis began in the 1940's, but the game was

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66 Letter from Marcia H. Winn, retired Chairman, Department of Physical Education, William Smith College, to the writer, February 6, 1972.
never promoted with enthusiasm.

Located at the foot of the Finger Lakes, Cornell University limited its intercollegiate program to six or fewer contests each year. "Limited budgets and conflict with campus functions did not permit many trips." Dorothy Bateman, chairman of women's physical education, described the Finger Lakes Planning Committee, the nature of the competition which had grown in the area, and Cornell's participation.

Although this group was not formally organized as a league it really corresponded to one. At first, each college sent out its invitations, those with adequate facilities sponsoring the larger Sports Days. As the program expanded there was need of better planning and organization to avoid conflict and overlapping of scheduled events. So, starting in the late 40s, staff and W.A.A. representatives from each college met early in the fall to plan the year's events. I think Marcia Winn and I started this practice.

D.G.W.S. rules and standards were strictly followed. Except in unusual cases, time-consuming travel, overnight stays, and missing academic classes were not approved. Fencing was one exception because the National Intercollegiates were held in the N.Y. or Philadelphia area. At Cornell, students on probation were barred from intercollegiates. Teams were always accompanied by a physical education staff member and frequently by other faculty who donated their cars and services.

The social values of these occasions were always stressed. For all participants, a luncheon before, or refreshments and social hour after activities, was a "must."

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67 Letter from Dorothy Bateman, Chairman, Department of Physical Education, Cornell University, to the writer, December 11, 1971.

68 Ibid.
For the most part, Cornell was loyal to National Section on Women's Athletics standards, participating in sports days, telegraphic meets, and a limited schedule of invitational matches.

At neighboring Ithaca College a similar sports day program was underway. Iris Carnell of Ithaca remembered the Finger Lakes Planning Committee as a scheduling session at which problems were discussed. "One of the major discussions was the caliber of the players; was this a sportsday type team or a varsity. Of course, we hardly dared breathe the word 'varsity'."^69

Nancy Langham recalled playing basketball in invitational games against state university and private college teams when she was a student at Cortland. 70 Official women's rules were used in the games. College teams played only college teams. Records at Cortland indicated that for two decades after 1940 the institution engaged in sports days and intramurals exclusively. At Brockport a similar program of occasional sports days and invitational matches was scheduled. No "organized basketball" was remembered by a former student. 71

69 Letter from Iris Carnell, Division of Physical Education, Ithaca College, to the writer, n.d.

70 Letter from Nancy Langham, Women's Basketball Coach, State University College at Cortland, to the writer, December 8, 1971.

An interesting sidelight occurred during the 1940 to 1955 period. After the Ohio State University had announced its sponsorship of the first national intercollegiate golf tournament in 1941, staff members were dispatched to the meeting of the National Association of Directors of Physical Education for College Women in Atlantic City. While there the staff members polled the attitudes of several individuals. Among those interviewed were Dorothy Bateman of Cornell, Helen McKinstry of Russell Sage, Alfreda Mosscrop of Vassar, Katherine Sibley of Syracuse, and Agnes Wayman of Barnard.\(^2\) Based upon the evidence gathered for this study, the likelihood of their strong negative feeling toward national intercollegiate competition was predictable. Clearly, those programs reflected the viewpoint of the person in charge. Correspondingly those same women were responsible for the positions on competition held by national organizations.

There was no evidence to indicate that intercollegiate basketball competition in New York was influenced significantly by any state, regional, or national organization other than the National Section on Women's Athletics and the National Section for Girls and Women's Sports between 1940 and 1955. The New York State Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation concentrated its efforts on elementary and

\(^2\)Handwritten notes in the files of Mary Yost, The Ohio State University, n.d.
secondary school programs. College women in New York had not organized themselves in any statewide manner.

The only statewide organization grew out of a meeting of a Committee on Girls' and Women's Activities at Russell Sage College in January, 1942. An operating code for the Association of Women in Physical Education in New York State (AWPENYS) was formulated and the organization was formally founded in January, 1943.

Impetus was given to formation of this group because women felt that time, space, facilities and programs provided for girls were not comparable to that provided for boys. They felt that emphasis on fitness for girls was just as important as the emphasis on fitness for boys. 73

A standing committee on interscholastic physical education for girls was established by 1949, two years after the organization published a set of standards for girls' athletics. 74 AWPENYS, too, concentrated its attention on elementary and secondary schools. Hence, it did little more than include college women in its membership.

AWPENYS did cause a stir with regard to the standards of the National Section for Girls and Women's Sports in 1955. Rachel Bryant, consultant for the latter organization, visited a New York State Association meeting in that year.


74 Ibid., p. 29.
During January I went to Syracuse for the meeting of the New York State Association. While there I discovered that one of their women's committees was working on standards. They have discovered several discrepancies in the specific standards as they appear in various guides and asked me whether anyone has ever made a comparative study of the specific standards statements. I had to answer that I didn't know about this except that I knew the same overall committee cleared all standards statements. Eventually, the national organization did review its standards statements.

The New York Athletic Federation of College Women emphasized the importance of high standards for athletic programs in 1951. Though the organization provided many opportunities to discuss intercollegiate competition for women, there was no indication that the results of the discussions had a noteworthy impact on practice.

The Eastern Association of Directors of Physical Education for College Women welcomed members from teachers' colleges in 1944 and staff members from departments of physical education in 1948. In 1946 the Association reaffirmed its approval

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75 Letter from Rachel Bryant, Consultant, National Section for Girls and Women's Sports, to Katherine Ley, Chairman, Standards Committee, March 1, 1955 (in the archives of the Division for Girls and Women's Sports). Hereafter this collection is cited as DGWS archives.


al of national standards.

The question of extra-mural activities was brought up and after a great deal of discussion, Jane Marchant moved: That we re-affirm our approval of Standards in Athletics for Girls and Women, as published by the National Section on Women's Athletics. This motion was seconded and passed.

In 1950 the National Section on Women's Athletics was the subject of the annual conference. In 1951 the group decided that the many problems in basketball were caused by a lack of capable women coaches and officials. Members were encouraged to use the statement on competition of the parent organization, the National Association of Physical Education for College Women, in 1954. Teacher training institutions were urged to prepare all women students to "provide wise and intelligent leadership in school and/or community sport programs for girls and women." The Eastern Association of Directors of Physical Education for College Women, unlike its mid-western counterpart, chose to support the standards of the National Section on Women's Athletics and its successor rather than formulate a set of policies for its membership. New York


79 Meadows, op. cit., p. 112.


81 EAPECW Newsletter, December, 1953, p. 3.
members were, accordingly, left to make local interpretations of the national guidelines. That, as has been noted, became the established practice in the state.

CONCLUSION

In summary, basketball competition between women's college teams in New York from 1940 to 1955 continued to be extramural sports day or occasional invitational events except in the New York City area where teams played annual eight to ten game schedules. Women's colleges were the most reticent to join in intercollegiate play.

Standards for competition in the intercollegiate programs were local in their influence and often developed and enforced by the coach. Deliberately or unknowingly, the local policies reflected general and specific elements of the standards of the National Section on Women's Athletics and its successor, the National Section for Girls and Women's Sports. The informality of the competition did not require strict regulations.

No State, regional, or national organizations other than the National Section on Women's Athletics directly influenced intercollegiate basketball competition in New York. Existing organizations did endorse the standards monograph of the National Section on Women's Athletics and, as a consequence, caused policies to be local interpretations of the national guidelines.
CHAPTER IX

STATE CHAMPIONSHIPS ARISE OUT OF CONTRASTS IN COMPETITION: 1956-1971

INTRODUCTION

Contrasts in the intensity of intercollegiate basketball competition became more sharply defined between 1956 and 1971 in New York. The formulation of formal standards to guide competition by the various colleges and universities in the state reflected each institution's attitude toward competition. Clearly, the first serious efforts to formulate specific institutional policies transpired during this period. National, regional, and state organizations influenced events in New York. Consequently, the account of these fifteen years had to be framed by the events determining the diverse programs in various institutions. During the 1960's a new generation of leaders came to the fore. Sharing the goals and idealism of their predecessors, the incoming leaders viewed intercollegiate play with unconcealed enthusiasm.

Similar to their peers across the nation, New York women who had devoted their energies to the development of programs for all students greeted these new trends warily. Alfreda Mosscrop, retired chairman of physical education from Vassar, spoke for her colleagues when she observed, "I feel as if
the controls are off and before we know it the men will have control of women’s competition. This I do not like at all."1

SPORTS DAYS INCREASE IN FREQUENCY

Competition in the early years between 1956 and 1971 continued in much the same manner that the previous period had ended. There was little to indicate that drastic changes would occur by the mid-1960’s. In this respect, the sequence of events in New York closely resembled the trends in competition aided and abetted by the Division for Girls and Women’s Sports (DGWS). Parallel also to the national reaction to DGWS activity, was the manner in which colleges in New York responded to trends in their state.

Shirley Bowen, an active basketball official, recalled that basketball competition at Cortland between 1961 and 1964 was limited to three to five games with colleges in close proximity to the campus in south, central New York2. Ellen W. Gerber, a former staff member at Cortland and official in central New York, also remembered competition to be “singularly undeveloped” in the early 1960’s.3 At Ithaca the situation was typical.

1Letter from Alfreda Mosscrop, retired Chairman, Department of Physical Education, Vassar College, to the writer, November 12, 1971.

2Letter from Shirley Bowen, national basketball official, to the writer, November 24, 1971.

3Letter from Ellen W. Gerber, Department of Physical Education for Women, University of Massachusetts, to the writer, December 27, 1971.
I played on a sport day team -- never an "intercollegiate varsity team" a pick up team from intramurals who practiced approximately twice before an event and which was coached by a student.⁴

There were two basketball sports days a year with nearby colleges.

Gradually, the Finger Lakes Planning Committee of the previous period evolved into CNYWARA, the Central New York Women's Athletic and Recreation Association. "The purpose, from the very beginning was to stimulate and arrange a higher level of competition in well controlled situations."⁵ CNYWARA operated according to guidelines and policies consistent with those of DGWS.⁶

Cortland separated its regular basketball schedule, two games per season, from its involvement in sports days planned at CNYWARA meetings. M. Louise Moseley, director of the intercollegiate program, described Cortland's sports day participation.

The colleges would meet at a central location each spring and would schedule Sports Days with each other. These Sports Day teams were chosen from the intramural teams on each campus. Usually, the practice was for the intramural participants to sign up in case they were interested in attending a Sports Day. You should take particular note that these Sports Day teams were not

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⁴Letter from Nancy Hicks, Division of Physical Education, Ithaca College, to the writer, November 17, 1971.

⁵Letter from Marcia H. Winn, retired Chairman, Department of Physical Education, William Smith College, to the writer, February 6, 1972.

⁶Correspondence with Hicks, op. cit.
held together longer than perhaps just one Sports Day. The typical season, if you wanted to call it a season, would be two Sports Days, for example, in basketball. The Sports Day teams were composed of different girls each Sports Day. No awards were given. The intensive competition was good; however, there was no way to determine sometimes who the real winner was, particularly if four or five schools were involved.

The program seemed to reflect emphases in the platform of the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation, which had ceased to exist in 1940. It was not surprising that institutions such as Cortland eventually developed intercollegiate programs of greater intensity and administrative complexity. Edith Cobane suggested that the interpretation of DGWS standards by CNYWARA schools "slowed the development of intercollegiate competition beyond the semi-social level." 8

However, some institutions maintained very moderate programs despite the changes taking place around them. Skidmore let student interest and a limited budget determine its intercollegiate endeavors. "No specific policies or standards were formulated by our department or school for intercollegiate

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7 Letter from M. Louise Moseley, Coordinator, Women's Athletic Association, State University College at Cortland, to the writer, December 16, 1971.

8 Letter from Edith Cobane, Chairman, Department of Physical Education for Women, State University of New York at Albany, to the writer, February 15, 1972.
events but standards were the particular coach's responsibility. The standards of DGWS had a "positive influence" on coaches' choices. DGWS rules were used, travel occurred under responsible chaperonage, and rated officials were employed.

Basketball competition at St. Bonaventure, though "keen," was regarded as "recreational" rather than "varsity." The team played eight to ten games per season. No specific policies or standards guided the program. No medical examinations were required. Officials were usually men. In other respects DGWS guidelines obviously influenced the program. DGWS rules were used, no admission was charged, and amateur status was required.

Roberts Wesleyan College in North Chili journeyed outside New York for an annual tournament in Michigan. To participate on Roberts Wesleyan's three-year-old intercollegiate basketball team in 1971 a player had only to maintain her grade point average above an established level. Otherwise, no specific standards existed for the program. Neighboring University of Rochester, similarly, had no specific institutional policies, but tended to follow DGWS guidelines nonethe-

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9 Letter from Pamela Schroeder, Basketball Coach, Skidmore College, to the writer, November 23, 1971.

10 Letter from St. Bonaventure University to the writer, n.d.

11 Ibid.

12 Letter from Jennifer Milnes, Roberts Wesleyan College, to the writer, n.d.
Rochester's basketball program grew from three sports days in 1961-1962 to a regular twelve game schedule in 1970-1971.\textsuperscript{13}

Elmira, playing three basketball games each year with colleges within one hundred miles of the campus, lacked the personnel to carry on an intercollegiate program.\textsuperscript{14} At sister institution William Smith, basketball competition declined in the 1950's and into the 1960's largely "because the sports instructors over those years were not enthusiastic about basketball, preferring to teach volleyball."\textsuperscript{15} Despite the fact she initiated the Finger Lakes Planning Committee and CNYWARA, Marcia H. Winn from William Smith admitted, "the first written guidelines to come to my attention were those provided by DGWS but I was by then no longer directly involved in extramurals."\textsuperscript{16} Hence, one might speculate about the impact of DGWS standards on competition, but often any influence was definitely less than direct, or even nonexistent, despite apparent similarities. At any rate, basketball was revived on a moderate scale at William Smith in 1968.

\textsuperscript{13}Letter from Sylvia Fabricant, Chairman, Department of Physical Education for Women, University of Rochester, to the writer, November 17, 1971.

\textsuperscript{14}Letter from Margaret C. Locke, Director of Physical Education, Elmira College, to the writer, November 19, 1971.

\textsuperscript{15}Correspondence with Winn, op. cit.

\textsuperscript{16}Ibid.
Currently, there is a conscious local interpretation and application of DGWS guidelines at the College.¹⁷

Two other predominantly women's colleges, Vassar and Russell Sage, have tended to follow conservative trends in competition. Vassar "participated in sports days and play days until intercollegiate competition was no longer frowned upon."¹⁸ DGWS standards guided Vassar's program. Interestingly, Vassar abdicated its early leadership in basketball to join more conservative elements in its attitude toward competition. Russell Sage perpetuated the tradition advocated by Helen McKinstry, emphasizing participation by the many and engaging in occasional sports days only. "We are just now beginning to double in the field of intercollegiate competition."¹⁹

Alfred University continued to participate in sports days with CNYWARA members, using DGWS standards for all sports in its intramural and extramural programs. Intercollegiate

¹⁷Letter from Mary Hosking, Department of Physical Education, William Smith College, to the writer, November 17, 1971.

¹⁸Letter from Betty Richey, Chairman, Department for Physical Education, Vassar College, to the writer, December 17, 1971.

¹⁹Letter from Marion E. Stallwood, Chairman, Department of Physical Education, Russell Sage College, to the writer, November 4, 1971.
meets were held in tennis and, telegraphically, in archery. St. Lawrence, also generally following DGWS recommendations, engaged in a "mildly competitive" basketball program which increased to an eight to ten game schedule by the late 1960's. No specific policies were formulated for the program.

Most of the institutions competing in intercollegiate basketball in the New York City area could not be categorized among the moderate competitors described so far. On the whole, they were more organized in terms of policies and scheduling. Barnard was an exception. As an outgrowth of interest generated in a basketball class in 1969, Barnard began, once again, to play informal extramural contests. "We do follow the standards of the Division of Girls' and Women's [sic] Sports in the conduct of these games in so far as they are applicable." New York University, on the other hand, continued its forty year tradition, playing ten games each year with local schools and maintaining academic eligibility standards for the players.

Helen M. Allen observed that basketball competition in the metropolitan New York City area had maintained "a high

20 Letter from Doris E. Harrington, Department of Physical Education, and Athletics, Alfred University, to the writer, January 19, 1972.

21 Letter from St. Lawrence University to the writer, n.d.

22 Letter from Marion R. Philips, Chairman, Department of Physical Education, Barnard College, Columbia University, to the writer, November 12, 1971.

23 Letter from M. Schlichting, Basketball Coach, Division of Athletics, New York University, to the writer, December 27, 1971.
professional level." She noted an increase in the number of practice sessions and a greater emphasis on winning in recent years. More intensive competition in the Catholic Youth Organization and in high schools had geared the girl of the 1960's for more intensive play at the college level than the player of the 40's and early 50's had experienced. It must be noted that colleges were willing to accommodate the heightened spirit of competition in the 1960's in contrast to their reluctance to do so in the 1920's when high school competition had attained an unparalleled height of intensity.

Brooklyn College competed against other institutions in the metropolitan area and formulated stricter policies for competition than several of its opponents. DGWS guidelines were used "as closely as our circumstances permitted." Hofstra University, like Brooklyn, engaged in competition in the New York City area starting with a five game schedule in 1959 and building to 14 games in 1971. Prefacing the policy statement for the women's intercollegiate program at Hofstra was the comment that "the Women's Intercollegiate Program of Hofstra University accepts the Standards in Sports

25 Ibid.
26 Letter from Vivian Acesta, Director, Women's Recreation Association, Brooklyn College, to the writer, December 23, 1971.
27 Letter from Sylvia J. Giallombardo, Chairman, Department of Physical Education, to the writer, November 19, 1971.
for Girls and Women as recommended by the Division for Girl's and Women's Sports. The policies contained eligibility regulations, procedures in case of injury, and travel regulations. Permission to compete on noncollege teams during the varsity season was left to the discretion of the coach.

Herbert H. Lehman College, another member of the metropolitan group, became a separate institution from Hunter College in 1966. By 1968 a varsity basketball program was in operation. A ten game schedule was maintained. An "Intercollegiate Activities Handbook" contained the policies for the Lehman program. The Handbook indicated Lehman's acceptance and compliance with DGWS standards. Lehman required academic, medical, and discipline clearances for eligibility. Publicity had to be cleared by the Director of Intercollegiates. Other policies reflected equally close compliance with the recommendations of DGWS, including the desired rewards of competition.

Generally, the teams we play are friendly rivalries rather than intense competition. The girls get very little reward for playing, other than the enjoyment of playing, generally winning and meeting new people. Our school standards are those of DGWS.

Meanwhile, at Hunter a ten-to-twelve game season developed after the institution was separated from Lehman. Hunter, Hofstra University, "Policies Governing the Intercollegiate Program for Women," n.d. (Mimeographed.)


too, adhered closely to DGWS standards. Athletic policies required a medical examination, amateur status, and awards of limited value. Hunter did experiment by playing games in the evening before men's games but found the situation unsatisfactory. "They were scheduled this way to encourage interest in the women's team, but the distraction of the men preparing for their game is too great."  

Budget considerations limited the Brooklyn Center of Long Island University from competing in basketball outside the New York City area. The basketball coach, Roslyn R. Beck had complete control of the program, determining policies on the basis of her experience and the practices common among schools in the vicinity. She met in April with representatives from other New York City colleges to plan a basketball schedule for the next season. No written policies guided the competitive program. The Center's Athletic Director approved the award schedule which ranged from a school pin for a first year player to a watch for the fourth year participant. Stony Brook, which also competed in the metropolitan area required only that its players be fulltime students. Otherwise, like Long Island University, there were no written pol-

31 Letter from Sylvia Fishman, Hunter College, to the writer, January 2, 1972.

32 Letter from Roslyn R. Beck, Brooklyn Center of Long Island University, to the writer, n.d.

33 Ibid.

34 Letter from Elizabeth M. Desch, Department of Physical Education, State University of New York at Stony Brook, to the writer, November 30, 1971.
icies to regulate Intercollegiate basketball.

Moving westward again into central New York, a change in policy at Ithaca College which evolved between 1963 and 1965 caused the institution to alter its approach to intercollegiate competition. "One of the first changes we emphasized was the need for girls representing the college on a Sports Day team to practice together before the games."35 Contrary to the common practice of taking those students to participate in sports days who simply signed a sheet and met at the appointed time of departure, Ithaca chose to organize its competitive teams. By 1971 the teams competed in six games per season, plus appropriate tournaments. The College continued to plan its program in accordance with DGWS recommendations. Iris Carnell of Ithaca served on the DGWS team sports committee and helped to formulate specific standards for those sports.36

At the State University of New York at Albany changes also began to occur in the women's intercollegiate athletic program by the mid-1960's. Edith Cobane encountered an unusual situation when she accepted a position at Albany in 1965.

By the time I left Syracuse to go to Albany (1965), the trend of change was obvious. At Albany, a hockey team and a basketball team has been playing the previous year under rather unusual conditions. The Athletic Director believed that if women were interested in playing intercollegiate ball, they should be

35 Letter from Iris Carnell, Division of Physical Education, Ithaca College, to the writer, n. d.

36 Ibid.
supported financially in exactly the same way and to the same extent as were the men's teams, and that they should share the (then) limited facilities in an equitable manner. Women's athletics came under the jurisdiction of the Athletic Advisory Board, a committee of faculty and students which developed policy and authorized budgets. When this happened, the Board also became co-ed, both at the faculty and students levels. This situation continues and is eminently satisfactory. We have no financial problems, other than those which involve belt-tightening for all sports. Both the men's and women's departments have a Chairman for Intercollegiate Athletics who sit with the AA Board. All day-to-day decisions not in conflict with policy are authorized by the Women's Intercollegiate Chairman before being implemented by the Athletic Director. Policy problems go to the Board for resolution.

The basketball program for women at Albany was supported by a budget of nearly three thousand dollars in 1971. Because the women's program was allied with the institution's Student Association, policies and procedures were much more explicit than was common among programs still associated with physical education departments and women's athletic or recreation associations. The women's program, by becoming associated with men's athletics in a common organization, became subject also to the same regulations. Such an arrangement, obviously, had to be considered a possibility for many institutions in the future.

37 Letter from Edith Cobane, Chairman, Department of Physical Education for Women, State University of New York at Albany, to the writer, February 15, 1972.
Specific policies and procedures for Albany's women's program closely paralleled DGWS guidelines. Except for the details of the procedures involved, Albany's policies did not differ in significant ways from those of other institutions in the state. The policies dealt with eligibility, number of practices and games, travel, social events, and officials. Only one exception from DGWS recommendations was noted in Albany's 1967 policies. In certain cases "travel conditions or the length of the season may warrant two games in one week." DGWS subsequently rescinded specific recommendations with regard to the number of games a team might play per week.

While considering programs with atypical aspects, the program at Sarah Lawrence must be included. After the institution became coeducational the Department of Physical Education disavowed competition and favored giving "the many a more personalized approach to a wider variety of interest." The only activity not scheduled on a coeducational basis at Sarah Lawrence was basketball. Even that arrangement was destined to be short lived.

... I can foresee the time, as with Touch Football and Softball that, if women wish to be a part of "the team," whichever sex is predominant, they must be able to play

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38 Women's Physical Education Department, "Intercollegiate Athletics - Women - Recommended Policies," February, 1967. p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

39 Patty Smyth and Marguerite Shaw, "To the Sarah Lawrence Community," September 15, 1971, p. 2. (Mimeographed.)
"up to their position." We have teams of separate sexes and mixed, whichever seem to reflect the interest at the time. I see no reason to divide the sexes for preconceived convictions. All "combinations" have had a good time doing it.40

Though superficially reactionary because of its concern for all students, the Sarah Lawrence concept of competition might prove revolutionary instead.

Few institutions were ready to stretch the limits of the possibilities of competition. Most schools were struggling to achieve conformity with extant patterns. New Paltz, like several of its companion state university colleges, operated an informal intercollegiate basketball program until 1962 when regular practices and a series of games were scheduled. "DGWS guidelines and standards certainly did influence the program but there were no specific written policies."41

Similarly, between 1956 and 1965 Brockport in western New York was striving to organize its intercollegiate program. In 1956 "intercollegiate athletics for women was practically a dirty word" and sports days were in their "hay day." Because a large number of students wished to participate, an

40 Letter from Patty Smyth, Chairman, Department of Physical Education, Sarah Lawrence College, to the writer, November 13, 1971.

41 Letter from Carol Eckman, Women's Basketball Coach, West Chester State College, to the writer, n. d.
"elaborate selection process" was developed to accommodate as many players as possible without regard to skill level.\footnote{Letter from Ann Uhlir, Chairman, Department of Physical Education for Women, Eastern Kentucky University, who was formerly at Brockport, to the writer, November 22, 1971.}

Several advisers to women's athletic associations in western New York sought to arrange more formal competition. The advisers met in a rather clandestine manner because they felt several of their department chairmen would not be sympathetic to their efforts.\footnote{Ibid.} The group was referred to as WINWICK, Western New York Women's Intercollegiate Conference. There can be no doubt that DGWS guidelines influenced their thinking.

I honestly believe that their thinking then differed only slightly from current thinking relating to girls and women's sports. We favored competition for the highly skilled, opposed financial assistance to athletics, favored the use of DGWS standards and rules, and, in fact, tried to adhere to the 1958 publication of DGWS standards in sports for girls and women.\footnote{Ibid.}

Apparently WINWICK never became the active group that CNYWARA, the central New York organization, was. However, it is interesting to note that the state was arranged, informally, into regional groups composed of schools with common interests in intercollegiate athletics for women. Each group facilitated scheduling among its members. There was also
common, if unwritten, agreement regarding certain standards for competition.

In 1963 Patricia M. Ford, President of Brockport's Women's Recreation Association, went directly to the source for assistance in the development of policies and procedures for the intercollegiate athletic program. A request for standards for volleyball, basketball, and swimming was sent to the National Joint Committee on Extramural Sports for College Women. The response indicated the Joint Committee was not actually prepared with standards for all sports in which competition obviously existed.

The National Joint Committee on Extramural Sports for College Women has set up policies and procedures for some of the extramural sports commonly found as competitive events for college women. Since most of the competition at this age level has been concerned with individual and dual sports except for field hockey, the committee has concentrated in this area. Therefore, we do not have policies for the team sports you suggest.

Brockport was, thus, left to make local interpretations of the standards for specific sports published by DGWS.

45 Letter from Patricia M. Ford, President, Women's Recreation Association, State University College at Brockport, to the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, October 15, 1963 (DGWS archives).

46 Letter from Thelma Bishop, Chairman, National Joint Committee on Extramural Sports for College Women, to Patricia Ford, Women's Recreation Association, State University College at Brockport, October 20, 1963 (DGWS archives).
By 1966 women's intercollegiate competition in New York had reached the point at which there was speculation about the need to establish a statewide organization to guide and control its growth. The rising tide of competition had caused the Eastern Association of Physical Education for College Women to devote its 1966 conference at New Paltz, New York, to intercollegiate athletics. Similarly, in the Fall of 1966 the Association of Women in Physical Education in New York State (AWPENYS) sponsored a "crackerbarrel" discussion of intercollegiate programs. It was the only occasion when AWPENYS became directly involved in intercollegiate considerations. The ad hoc committee chosen at the AWPENYS meeting was independent of affiliation and reviewed possible working relationships with several organizations during its first meeting. Yet, AWPENYS brief excursion into the realm of intercollegiate athletics had been a significant one.

Results of a questionnaire formulated and tabulated by the ad hoc committee indicated fifty-six New York colleges and universities had an interest in a statewide organization to guide intercollegiate competition. Twenty-six individuals from sixteen colleges met in November, 1967, at the Fancher Campus of the State University College at Brockport to "discuss the possible formation of a statewide organization con-

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cerned with the guidance and promotion of varsity intercollegiate programs. Actually, the conferees convened to plan the organization rather than to discuss the need for it. Two factors influenced the determination of the topics for the study conference: the publication of guidelines for intercollegiate athletics for women after the national study conference sponsored by the DGWS in 1955 and the formation of the Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics for Women, also organized by the Division for Girls and Women's Sports. A state organization could consolidate the efforts of those conducting varsity programs, providing a central purpose and a set of common standards for all members.

Conference members discussed possible affiliations with existing organizations. The Association for Women in Physical Education in New York State, though offering an established communications network, was rejected because the group was primarily concerned with secondary school athletics. AWPENYS was busily engaged in the development of policies for the growing program of interscholastic athletics. The New York Athletic and Recreation Federation of College Women was also considered inappropriate because of its emphasis on sports day competition and strong emphasis on student leadership. The state committee of the Division for Girls and Women's Sports was synonymous with AWPENYS and could not meet the criteria of

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48 Ibid.
49 Ibid.
the conference members. The New York State Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, never concerned with women's intercollegiate programs, relied upon AWPENYS for leadership in girls' sports. The alternative which the conference chose was to establish a separate organization for women's varsity intercollegiate athletic programs based on faculty control with student leadership playing a minor, local role. The purpose of the new organization, the Women's Varsity Sports Organization of New York State Colleges, was to provide "a structure through which the exceptional performer would have the opportunity to compete at a level commensurate with her own abilities."\textsuperscript{50}

As in the case of DGWS, an emphasis was placed on leadership by women. General standards for all varsity programs were to be formulated and specific standards for problems peculiar to each sport were also to be identified. DGWS guidelines were accepted as minimal standards and were supplemented by more specific stipulations. The conference outlined an organization composed of member colleges, an executive council, sports chairmen, and sports committees. An Interim Council was designated to carry out the will of the conference. Participants donated fifty dollars from their personal funds to underwrite some of the expenses that would be incurred.\textsuperscript{51}

\textsuperscript{50}Ibid., pp. 4-5.

\textsuperscript{51}Ibid., pp. 9,12-13.
Interestingly, only four private colleges, one representative from the City University of New York, and one community college attended the conference. The majority of the conferees represented the colleges and university centers of the State University of New York. 52

In May 1969, seventeen colleges approved a preliminary operating code and created the Women's Varsity Sports Organization of New York State Colleges (WVSONYSC). 53 Active members in January, 1970, were Ithaca, Brockport, Queens, State University of New York at Buffalo, New Paltz, University of Rochester, Fredonia, Long Island University, and Dutchess Community College. By 1970 a formal operating code had been written and a purpose for the organization identified. The goal of WVSONYSC was "to encourage, advance and contribute to the growth of varsity competition for women in colleges and universities in the State of New York." 54 To clarify its central interest WVSONYSC defined "varsity" competition as that in which selection was based on interest and skill, coaching was done by a qualified adult, practice occurred regularly, conditioning was stressed, and a series of contests was scheduled. 55 Any violations of provisions of the

52 Ibid., p. 14


55 Ibid.
operating code were to be handled in accordance with an elaborate system of warnings, exclusions, and expulsions. The standards for "Conduct of Varsity Competition" were identical with DGWS guidelines. Programs were to be the responsibility of the women's physical education staff and be funded from institutional budgets, not gate receipts. Medical examinations and supervision were necessary as were adequate insurance, bonded transportation and qualified officials. Women coaches were recommended wherever possible. Eligibility required fulltime undergraduate status and amateur clearance, and ruled against athletic scholarships. Players could participate in only one varsity sport per season, but they could play on a team in the same sport outside the college during the varsity season. Subsequent revisions of the operating code did not change the organization in any significant way. Eligibility and scholarship standards were made more explicit.

By the spring of 1971 WVSONYSC had twenty-six member colleges. In March, 1971, the first New York State Women's Basketball Tournament was held at Oneonta State and Hartwick Colleges in Oneonta. Fifteen teams participated in the tournament which was delayed one day by a snowstorm. There were

56 Women's Varsity Sports Organization of New York State Colleges, "Operating Code," n.d., pp. 3-4, (Mimeographed.)
57 Ibid., pp. 11-12
59 "AWPENYS News," op. cit.
first and second place trophies, first place individual trophies, and trophies for the eight tournament all-star players. There was "a great display of enthusiasm and sportsmanship by all officials, players, coaches and spectators."  

Thirty institutions were represented on the WVSONYSC basketball committee in February, 1972. Two-year and four-year schools, private and public, were members. Specific policies and procedures for basketball competition were not formulated though an Ethics Committee for Conduct of Women Basketball Coaches and Players was at work on the regulations. The basketball committee functioned according to the general standards of the operating code. The Committee held two meetings annually and was contemplating several activities, but, until 1972, had focused its attention on the state tournament. First and second place teams in the state tournament went to the eastern regional basketball tournament.

Before describing the eastern tournament, it seemed appropriate to identify the impact of WVSONYSC on colleges in the state. Queens College won the first state championship in 1971, decisively defeating Brockport in the final game. As previously described, Queens had first participated in inter-

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61 Letter from Women's Basketball Coach, State University College at Cortland, to the writer, December 8, 1971.

62 Letter from Jan Reetz, Chairman, Basketball Committee, Women's Varsity Sports Organization of New York State Colleges, to the writer, February 6, 1971.
collegiate basketball in 1943. Except for one trip annually outside a fifty radius of the campus, the team had confined its play to the metropolitan area of New York City. Awards were minimal and, as at Albany, the men's and women's intercollegiate programs were administered by one individual, the Director of Athletics. Cal Papatsos felt that the women, under this unified arrangement "always came out ahead." Queens also allowed more than one game per week, curtailing practices to keep time demands upon the players within reasonable limits.

Of the schools represented in this study, Queens College was probably the most actively competitive in intercollegiate basketball in New York. The coach in recent years, Lucille Kyvallos, was an active competitor and member of many basketball committees, including the United States Olympic Women's Basketball Committee. Queens' reputation in basketball attracted outstanding high school talent from the metropolitan area. In 1970-71 the team compiled twenty-three wins and lost four games. The team won both the state title and the Northeastern Regional Tournament before accepting an invitation to participate in the Women's National Invitational Tournament in North Carolina.\(^{64}\) Lopsided scores in competition with

\(^{63}\)Letter from Cal Papatsos, Queens College, to the writer, December 12, 1971.

\(^{64}\)Queens College, The City University of New York, Basketball, Men's-Women's, 1971-72, 1971, pp. 20-22.
metropolitan schools might indicate that Queens will need to journey further for equal competition in the future. In order to compete in WVSONYSC and DGWS sanctioned events Queens must comply with the policies for competition of those organizations. From evidence available, there was no doubt that Queens not only followed the guidelines but also had staff members who assisted in their formulation.

The State University College at Brockport, the second place team in the first state intercollegiate basketball tournament, was also a charter member of the Women's Varsity Sports Organization of New York State Colleges. Having expanded its intercollegiate program from the sports day level of the early 1960's, by the latter half of the decade the emphasis on varsity competition was apparent. Great care was taken to comply with the guidelines of the Division for Girls and Women's Sports. In fact, at one point the diligence to comply with national standards led to a controversy which eventually involved faculty and student-faculty campus athletic committees, the local club of the United States Field Hockey Association, the Commissioner for Regional Development of the Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics for Women, and the Executive Secretary of the United States Field Hockey Association.

The controversy erupted from a strict interpretation of a DGWS eligibility statement which prohibited a player from participating in sanctioned intercollegiate contests if she participated in the same sport on a team outside the institu-
tion during the sport season. Several college students were playing on the intercollegiate field hockey team and the Finger Lakes Field Hockey Association Club in the area. Eventually, the argument became a matter of principle for the college faculty despite a DGWS ruling which finally accepted such competition. The decision also affected basketball players who were being encouraged to play on teams competing under the auspices of the Amateur Athletic Union. However, the basketball situation was handled with little difficulty. Players chose either to compete on Amateur Athletic Union teams exclusively during the season or to gain written clearance from the coach at the end of the season, when they were free to compete with outside teams.  

Hence, as in Brockport's case, it was not always simple to apply DGWS guidelines to a local situation or to establish policies when the national organization was constantly revising its own position. By assuming membership in the Women's Varsity Sports Organization of New York State Colleges, Brockport agreed to the policies of that organization.

Other members of WVSONYSC also formulated local policies to comply with the policies of the state organization. The State University College at Plattsburgh reoriented its intercollegiate athletic program, initiated at a staff meeting
for that purpose in February, 1966. At the meeting it was decided to provide a varsity program for the highly skilled player. The decision to initiate a varsity program caused the staff of the women's physical education department to decide to end participation in sports days. As a result the Women's Athletic Association had to redirect its energies.66

One definite affect of the introduction of varsity competition was the shift from an emphasis on student involvement to more obvious faculty control. Significantly, this move occurred when students were demanding a greater voice in campus governance and other college functions. Institutions, such as Brockport, which depended upon student activity fees to support athletic programs were forced to demonstrate graphically that students were involved in policy-making. Despite the existence of a student-faculty committee, faculty members remained clearly in control by influencing student opinion and determining facility utilization. On the other hand, at some institutions the varsity program was treated less as an extracurricular activity. Coaching was considered in the teaching load. Credit was given for participation. The shift to a varsity emphasis had far reaching, if sometimes subtle, influences on student organizations and physical education departments.

Several institutions were compelled to compile their

department policies in written form for the first time in order to comply with the operating code of the Women's Varsity Sports Organization of New York State Colleges. The "Women's Athletic Policies" at the State University College at Oneonta reflected the WVSONYSC operating code in deliberately specific ways. "Varsity" was defined in the terminology of the code. Eligibility requirements echoed the state code. Competition was limited to two contests per week and only against institutions with similar standards for competition. Contrary to the WVSONYSC operating code, Oneonta did permit students to participate on more than one varsity team in a sport season. In 1968 Oneonta coaches voted to discontinue sports day participation and end membership in the Central New York Women's Athletic and Recreation Association. The program had changed markedly from the early 1960's.

During the early 60's Oneonta was little affected by D.G.W.S. Standards. Policies and procedures similar to D.G.W.S. standards were devised by the mutual agreement of the women P.E. faculty. D.G.W.S. standards may have influenced faculty opinion on some of these factors but not consciously. Department policies for the men regarding travel to contests, awards, etc. had to be followed by both men and women alike.

67 State University College at Oneonta, "Women's Athletic Policies," 1971. (Mimeographed.)
68 Letter from Joan Kingsley, State University College at Oneonta, to the writer, January 4, 1972.
69 Ibid.
Switching to a varsity program in 1964, the basketball schedule grew from six games in that year to twelve games and the state tournament in 1970-1971. Oneonta sponsored an annual "Workshop in Coaching and Playing Five Player Women's Basketball" with guest instructor Lucille Kyvallos of Queens College after the DGWS announced experimentation with those rules. The workshops aimed to improve both teaching and playing skills and offered undergraduate and graduate college credit.

The State University College at Cortland's "Intercollegiate Operating Code" approved in 1968 contained remarks which reflected the intention of the Department of Physical Education for Women to abide by DGWS standards. The Department had charge of the program. Women's Athletic Association representatives on the Departmental Committee for Intercollegiate Sports served as liaisons with the Association's executives. Katherine Ley, former vice-president of the Division for Girls and Women's Sports and member of the Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics for Women, brought her reputation as a leader in women's athletics, to New York when she accepted the chairmanship of the Department of Physical Education for Women at Cortland in the mid-1960's.

70 "Workshop in Coaching and Playing Five Player Women's Basketball," June 14–June 20. (Mimeographed.)

71 Department of Physical Education for Women, State University College at Cortland, "Intercollegiate Operating Code," September 13, 1968. (Mimeographed.)
Women in the state were quick to take advantage of her experience by seeking her advice and counsel. Ley led the 1966 conference on intercollegiate athletics of the Eastern Association of Physical Education for College Women. If anything, it was felt Cortland had stayed "a little bit ahead" of positions taken by national organizations, even influencing intercollegiate policies for women's athletics.\(^2\)

The State University College at Oswego competed in sports days until 1968-1969 when a regular intercollegiate schedule was initiated. The basketball team played six games that first season and twelve games by 1971-1972. Oswego did the most thorough assimilation of the operating code of WVSONYSC in its own policy statement. Substituting only the name of the institution in appropriate places, the Oswego constitution was identical to the state code.\(^3\) In addition, responsibilities of coaches and administrators of the Women's Varsity Sports Organization were listed. Apparently, Oswego was willing to violate DGWS standards by sending "a recruitment flyer to high schools hoping to attract more highly skilled women."\(^4\) Evidently, the skill level at the College was not high since

\(^2\)Letter from M. Louise Moseley, Coordinator, Women's Athletic Association, State University College at Cortland, to the writer, December 16, 1971.

\(^3\)State University College at Oswego, "Women's Varsity Sports Organization Constitution," n.d. (Mimeographed.)

\(^4\)Letter from Judith Clark, Director, Women's Varsity sports, State University College at Oswego, to the writer, December 31, 1971.
the "team has not competed in any tournaments and will not do so until the caliber of play improves." The institution has prepared policies which will enable it to compete in tournaments once the decision is made to do so, unless difficulties arise with regard to recruitment.

The State University of New York at Binghamton patterned its "Guidelines for Women's Intercollegiate Athletics" in accordance with the policies of its Faculty Athletic Committee, the Women's Varsity Sports Organization of New York State Colleges, and standards of the Division for Girls and Women's Sports. The State University College at Potsdam adhered to DGWS recommendations for its intercollegiate program also.

Since instituting basketball competition, the season had grown from five to thirteen games and an effort had been made to schedule competition with teams of comparable skill. Similar changes occurred at the State University College at Buffalo.

Membership in the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women forced the institution to establish policies in

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75Ibid.

76State University of New York at Binghamton, Department of Physical Education, "Guidelines for Women's Intercollegiate Athletics," May, 1971, p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

77Letter from Jan Reetz, Chairman, Basketball Committee, Women's Varsity Sports Organization of New York State Colleges, to the writer, February 7, 1972.
compliance with those of the Association.78 Hence, many of the colleges of the State University of New York whose intercollegiate programs grew rapidly after 1965 joined the Women's Varsity Sports Organization of New York State Colleges and both influenced and were influenced by the operating code of the Organization.

Among the private institutions in the state, Syracuse University actively engaged in intercollegiate programs.

Just this fall in joining AIAW, we have established our membership as related to women's physical education with one of our faculty the institutional representative, no relationship to the Director of Athletics for Men or the Athletic Board of Control. We are fielding varsity teams in five activities this year.

The strong desire to keep women in charge of the program reflected the interest of the Division for Girls and Women's Sports. Doris Soladay of Syracuse had been active in the DGWS for many years and was the Commissioner for Regional Development of the Commission for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women.

EASTERN ASSOCIATION FOR INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS FOR WOMEN

New York University, Brooklyn College, and Ithaca Col-

78 Letter from Carolyn Lehr, Basketball Coach, State University College at Buffalo, to the writer, November 22, 1971.

79 Letter from Lucille H. Verhulst, Chairman, Department of Physical Education for Women, Syracuse University, to the writer, n.d.
lege chose not to join the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women or its eastern district association. Ithaca identified the high cost of memberships, seventy-five dollars in each organization, and the requirement of high performance levels as reasons for nonmembership. Brooklyn also noted a lack of funds, but had additional reservations.

Another reason is the feeling of a lack of beneficiality to the individual institution. Perhaps, I can clarify this last point by stating that we do not clearly see what benefits we would derive from such affiliation particularly when the dues are so high. The only benefit as we see it, is the possible opportunity to compete on state and national tournaments.

New York University noted a need for administrative support of the athletic program before affiliation with a regional organization was feasible.


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80 Letter from Nancy Hicks, Division of Physical Education, Ithaca College, to the writer, November 17, 1971.

81 Letter from Vivian Acosta, Director, Women's Recreation Association, Brooklyn College, to the writer, December 23, 1971.

82 Letter from M. Schlichting, Basketball Coach, Division of Athletics, New York University, to the writer, December 27, 1971.

Education for College Women (EAPECW) Committee on Competition had surveyed institutions in its region to determine intercollegiate practices and to provide the Commission for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women with regional communication. The Committee also sought to determine the nature of policies guiding intercollegiate programs. 84

Results of a 1969 survey by the Committee on Competition indicated that fifty-eight per cent of the respondents had established policies for their intercollegiate programs. Yet, "no one college submitted a copy of their policies as requested." 85 The Committee concluded that "the fact that no college submitted their policy statements may indicate that policies are not well defined." 86 That conclusion was generally supported by the findings in this study of New York practices, except among institutions affiliated with the Women's Varsity Sports Organization of New York State Colleges.

Similarly, the trends in New York appeared to reflect general trends in the east. Until the mid-1960's colleges had been content to accept DGWS standards as the specific policies for their intercollegiate programs. Martha A. Adams,  


85President's Committee on Competition, EAPECW, "Status of Varsity Competition Among Colleges Represented in the Membership of EAPECW," March, 1970, p. 7. (Mimeographed.)

86Ibid.
chairman of the Eastern Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (ECIAW), noted the causes for the significant changes which occurred thereafter.

It is interesting to note the increase in recognized programs of competition in the east from pre CIAW formation when the DGWS statement on competition was amplified to the present. Although intercollegiate competition has been in existence for many years in the east it seemed to be confined to certain areas and particular colleges. Perhaps one could say it wasn't frowned upon as greatly in this area as some but programs were limited and supplemented by sports days and/or play days. Further, intercollegiate competition did not seem to be a general topic of discussion in professional circles. How well I remember the reactions of some EAPECW members to the general theme of the 1966 Fall Conference, "Competition."

The effect of DGWS actions — the National Institute program, the revision of the competition statement, the formation of CIAW and the proposed AIAW — is, in my judgment, exemplified by current trends in program development. For example, in 1965 the term, extramural competition was in common usage — not varsity competition. Today we speak specifically of varsity programs. In the early sixties many competitive programs were under the auspices of the WRA; a coordinator of varsity programs or a women's athletic director was the exception. The recent growth of competitive programs can not be overlooked.

ECIAW, organized in 1970 at the recommendation of the Committee on Competition, set out to coordinate the intercollegiate efforts of various groups, institutions, and individuals before the diversity of policies and practices became too great to reconcile. The Women's Varsity Sports Organization of New York

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87Letter from Martha A. Adams, Chairman, Eastern Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics for Women, to the writer, December 14, 1971.
State Colleges, fitting under ECIAW's umbrella, was accepted as the New York representative and sent its state tournament champions to the regional basketball tournament sponsored by ECIAW. As was noted earlier, Queens College of New York was the first New England Regional Tournament. EAPECW ended its support of the intercollegiate commission when ECIAW was replaced by the Eastern Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (EAIAW) in 1972. Certain elements of the structure and terminology of the Preliminary Operating Code of EAIAW were similar to New York's varsity sports organization. The code contained an executive board, sports coordinator and sports committees. Procedures in case of code violations were proposed. Active and associate memberships were available. 88

JUNIOR AND COMMUNITY COLLEGE ATHLETIC PROGRAMS

Though the New York varsity sports organization and the eastern regional and national Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women included two-year institutions in their memberships, several of the junior and community colleges in New York organized separately. Nassau Community College, for example, belonged to the New York State Athletic Association for Junior College Women. Dolores Faber, Director of

Women's Athletics at Nassau, was president of the state association. According to Faber, Nassau adhered "rigidly" to DGWS standards. Member schools in the junior college association could proceed to regional and national championships by winning the state basketball championship.

Regionally, "the Women's Junior College Sports Organization of Central New York State was started as an organization serving the junior, community, and agricultural and technical colleges" of the State University of New York after the mid-1960's. Fourteen institutions were members in 1971. Members of the league voted to follow procedures recommended by the Division for Girls and Women's Sports. The organization established guidelines for intercollegiate basketball competition including regulations for contracts, cancellations, warm ups, rules, officials, and the league tournament. According to the operating code the membership did most of the decision-making within a less elaborate organizational structure than the Women's Varsity Sports Organization of New York State Colleges.

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89 Letter from Dolores Faber, Director of Women's Athletics, Nassau Community College, to the writer, November 18, 1971.

90 Letter from Sue Hicks, Department of Physical Education, Adirondack Community College, to the writer, November 12, 1971.

Adirondack Community College joined the junior college association but did not associate with WVSONYSC. Some of the twelve to fifteen games played annually were scheduled to coincide with the men's program in order to save travel expenses and boost interest in the women's competition. Mohawk Valley Community College, which moved from informal honor team competition to the varsity level in 1968, was also a member of the junior college organization in central New York. "We have a ten game schedule and a team is required to play a set number of League games to be eligible for the League Tournament."^93

Dutchess Community College initiated its own invitation-al Basketball tournament for women in 1967-68. Previously, before an adequate budget was allocated, interested students were encouraged to participate in a community league in Poughkeepsie. Dutchess adhered to DGWS standards, except that three games were sometimes scheduled in a week. Awards for outstanding and most improved players were presented at annual awards banquets. ^94

The State University Agricultural and Technical College at Delhi began an intercollegiate basketball program in 1965-66.

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^92 Correspondence with Sue Hicks, op. cit.

^93 Letter from Penny Trojan, Mohawk Valley Community College, to the writer, January 7, 1972.

^94 Letter from Pat Zerbe, Dutchess Community College, to the writer, n.d.
Delhi at first participated in the National Small College Athletic Association Region III Junior College Athletic Conference. Later the institution joined the women's Junior College Sports Organization of Central New York State. Rated men officials were used for games because the quality of the officiating by women was poor. Though many intercollegiate policies at Delhi resembled DGWS guidelines, "specific policies or standards vary with sport and coach."\(^{95}\)

At the opposite extreme representing "minimal" intensity of competition, Suffolk County Community College's intercollegiate basketball season in 1970-71 was composed of three invitational games. Affiliation with a league during the 1971-72 season caused an increase in the number of games played to nine but did not stimulate the development of institutional athletic policies. The only policy required players to be full-time students. The informal policies to which the basketball program adhered resembled DGWS recommendations.\(^{96}\)

THE AMATEUR ATHLETIC UNION

The influence of the various women's state, regional and national collegiate and standard-making organizations on

\(^{95}\)Letter from Mary King, Basketball Coach, State University Agricultural and Technical College at Delhi, to the writer, November 10, 1971.

\(^{96}\)Letter from Cheryl Bernhoft, Basketball Coach, Suffolk County Community College, and the writer, n.d.
intercollegiate basketball programs among two-year and four-year colleges and universities in New York have been described throughout the chapter. Other organizations for women's basketball competition existed, but they did not seem to affect intercollegiate play. Amateur Athletic Union basketball competition attracted college students and faculty as players in New York City and in Buffalo. Ruth Wasserman, Women's Basketball Chairman of the Metropolitan Association of the AAU, reported that "no college teams played in AAU Leagues but there were some scrimmages among AAU and college teams (they were really a cooperative effort toward technique preparation.)" 97 Apparently some students played on their college team and with AAU teams. The intercollegiate policies of most institutions reported in this study permitted such play. The number of players definitely was not excessive since only eighty-five women were registered players in the New York Metropolitan Association and some teams consisted mainly of high school players. 98

Western New York was similarly hard pressed for AAU basketball competition for women. Only two or three teams played between 1960 and 1970. Financial problems plagued the Buffalo area. Larry O'Connor, AAU women's basketball

97 Letter from Ruth Wasserman, Women's Basketball Chairman, Metropolitan Association of the Amateur Athletic Union, to the writer, November 19, 1971.

98 Ibid.
chairman for Western New York, also blamed poor experiences in high school and church leagues for the lack of interest among local girls. At any rate the Amateur Athletic Union in New York appeared to have no significant influence on intercollegiate play or policies in the state. It did not even provide adequate opportunities for college students in the years after graduation.

NEW CHALLENGES FOR THE FUTURE

Women who officiated intercollegiate basketball games in New York generally recalled those experiences in favorable terms. Edith Cobane remembered her officiating experiences in central New York as "consistently good." She also noted that "the caliber of play has improved with the establishment of varsity teams and the consequent effect of coaching." As an official, Yolanda Klaskin felt she had been treated "Royally!" Similarly, Shirley Bowen found her treatment "generally very good" by teams in western New York. Increased intensity of the game and greater skill of the players and

99 Letter from Larry O'Connor, Women's Basketball Chairman, Western New York Association of the Amateur Athletic Union, to the writer, n.d.

100 Letter from Edith Cobane, Chairman, Department of Physical Education for Women, State University of New York at Albany, to the writer, February 15, 1972.

101 Letter from Yolanda Klaskin, national basketball official, to the writer, December 9, 1971.
coaches had caused some tense moments in recent years. Finally, Betty Lacey, who began officiating boys' high school basketball games during the Second World War, indicated she had received "Red Carpet," "Pedestal" treatment. Having officiated one hundred games a year for nearly thirty years, she could remember only two negative incidents which she attributed to a lack of knowledge of the game and the rules on the part of the players and coaches. The remarks of these officials indicated high standards were maintained even as the intensity of competition increased.

However, the intensity of the competition was brought into question in the results of a study involving six members of the Queens College basketball team in the 1969-70 season. The relative strenuousness of women's competitive basketball was evaluated through telemetered heart rates of the players. Changes in aerobic capacity over the season were measured. Compared to the results obtained from six physical education majors not engaged in varsity competition, the basketball subjects showed no significant improvement in aerobic capacity during the season. The result was attributed to the relatively moderate output demanded by practices and condi-

102 Letter from Shirley Bowen, national basketball official, to the writer, November 24, 1971.

103 Letter from Betty Lacey, national basketball official, to the writer, n.d.
tioning techniques. The competitive situation was found to cause subjects to operate at a high level of work intensity.  

Finally, two recent events demanded the attention of this study because their potential influence on intercollegiate programs was undeniable. First, an interscholastic ruling which had prohibited girls from participating on boy's teams was set aside in favor of a period of experimentation in non-contact sports which began in 1969. Subsequently, high school girls participated with boys in tennis, skiing, swimming, and cross country. No negative results seemed to emerge from the experiment despite the doomsday forecasts of many observers. The New York experiment provoked Clifford Fagan, Executive Director of the National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations, to state that the Federation would not condone such competition. The Division for Girls and Women's Sports also chose to encourage women's teams which would accommodate the highly skilled woman rather than approve women on men's teams. Though New York intercol-


legiate programs had not been tested by women desiring to play on men's teams, at another Eastern College Athletic Conference institution, Windham College, Putney, Vermont, Karen Wise played on the men's basketball varsity, the first woman in Conference history to do so. In New York women's teams have practiced against men's teams. However, coeducational teams, except at Sarah Lawrence College, seemed a remote possibility in 1971.

The second event which deserved attention was the contrast in directions of men's and women's intercollegiate programs in 1971. While the men were experiencing cutbacks in programs because of budget difficulties, women's programs were undergoing unprecedented growth across the state. A particular case in point was Syracuse University where baseball and track were dropped from the men's program. The women, meanwhile, functioning apart from the men's athletic department, increased their intercollegiate activities joining state, regional, and national organizations promoting intercollegiate competition. Budget and other administrative factors would eventually curtail women's programs as well. However, for a time, they exceeded the men's programs in growth rate, but were never comparable in budget.


Certainly, intercollegiate competition in New York had attained unparalleled heights by 1971 and much of the growth had occurred within ten years. Basketball competition changed from casually organized, informal sports day matches to varsity competition throughout the state except in the New York City area where competition had been consistently more intense and extensive. Since no organization in the state came to the fore to guide intercollegiate programs, the Women's Varsity Sports Organization of New York State Colleges developed independently and became the focus of those institutions desirous of varsity competition at the state championship level. State basketball champions went on to the eastern regional tournament sponsored by the Eastern Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics for Women. Simultaneously, junior and community colleges in the state organized their own league and tournament structures. The intensity of competition and influences affecting the junior college programs were different from the four-year institutions. The practical orientation of the institutions and the student body selected on the basis of high school graduation only, created major differences and resulted in quite different emphases.

A new generation of leaders redirected the form competition assumed but continued to give programs an educational emphasis. The guidelines and procedures published by the Division for Girls and Women's Sports continued to provide the basis for policy-making.
CONCLUSION

Between 1930 and 1955 extramural sports days and occasional invitational games were the most frequent forms of basketball competition except in New York City where several schools engaged in a regular schedule of intercollegiate games. Standards for competition were local in nature and generally reflected the recommendations of the National Section on Women's Athletics and its successor, the National Section for Girls and Women's Sports. The informality of the competition did not require strict measures of control. No state, regional, or national organizations other than the National Section on Women's Athletics significantly affected intercollegiate basketball competition in the state. Typically, those organizations endorsed and recommended the standards of the National Section on Women's Athletics. As a consequence local policies were interpretations of those standards.

Contrasts in competition sharpened between 1956 and 1971. Many institutions, including women's colleges, continued their sports day tradition guided by informal standards which generally reflected the influence of the Division for Girls and Women's Sports. At the other extreme colleges trained varsity teams for state championship competition according to the dictates of the operating code of the Women's Varsity Sports Organization of New York State Colleges. The varsity group was also committed to adherence to the guidelines of
the Division for Girls and Women's Sports and the policies of the Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics for Women and Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women.

As had been the situation across the nation, intercollegiate basketball competition continued on the sports day level until the 1960's when concern for the more highly skilled player gradually developed across the state. Many women who assumed leadership roles encouraged development of varsity competition. By the latter half of the decade many colleges engaged in regular intercollegiate schedules and found an increasing need for the formulation of specific policies to guide their programs. New York women were quick to pick up the implications of the intercollegiate guidelines resulting from the study conference on girls and women's athletics sponsored by the Division for Girls and Women's Sports in 1965. The Women's Varsity Sports Organization of New York State Colleges which grew from an exploratory meeting in 1966, was the culmination of the efforts of women who believed in varsity competition. The colleges of the State University of New York were the prime movers of the state varsity organization.

While varsity interests developed rather stringent policies for member institutions, many institutions in the state continued to function according to more informal, often unwritten, intercollegiate policies designed by individual
colleges for their own competitive interests. Accordingly, enforcement of the standards was often left to the individual coach. In addition, each coach often established her own policies. Yet, despite the potential for diversity, standards complied with the recommendations of the Division for Girls and Women's Sports. Circumstances caused many institutions to violate the recommendation that only one game be played per week. Eventually, the Division for Girls and Women's Sports removed any specific recommendations in its standards monograph, including the number of games a team might play in one week.

For the most part, junior colleges in New York chose to develop their own quite formal league and tournament structure. Basketball was the focus of junior college programs.

Intercollegiate competition for women in New York developed without the guidance or direct influence of state or regional organizations. State organizations tended to limit their interests in athletic competition to the high school programs. The New York Athletic and Recreation Federation for College Women concentrated on extramural, sports day competition. Conferences of the Federation provided opportunities for student delegates and faculty members to air their views and describe their own programs. There was no evidence that the organization had been a potent influence on intercollegiate programs. Similarly, the Eastern Asso-
ciation of Physical Education for College Women did not assume an active role in the intercollegiate area until its 1966 conference. Subsequently, the group served as the regional district for the development of the Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics for Women. The Amateur Athletic Union, offering limited opportunities for competition, did not affect intercollegiate basketball programs in New York.

In summary, the intercollegiate basketball program in New York grew from informal sports days in 1940 to a state championship tournament in 1971. A new, more vocal, leadership stimulated rapid changes in the 1960's. High school students who had interests in expanding their interscholastic experiences, found the colleges accommodated their interests in competition quite in contrast to the situation in 1920. The possibilities in college, in turn, encouraged interscholastic competition.

The shortage of qualified women coaches placed pressure on preparatory institutions to develop programs to rectify the problem. Another paradox was the fact that basketball competition retained its popularity despite a shift in physical education curriculum emphasis toward lifetime sports. As varsity programs developed, there was a shift from student leadership to faculty control. Women's intercollegiate programs grew during a period when budget considerations and public and campus criticism caused a re-evaluation of men's
athletic programs. Of course, women continued their tradition of operating on minimal budgets with limited staff, equipment, and facilities in many cases. Despite notable growth in women's programs there was apparently no attempt or desire to attain equity with the men's programs.

In the future it is likely that women's intercollegiate programs in New York as elsewhere will find growth limited by practical matters such as budget and facilities. In the near future more serious problems with regard to the enforcement of standards may necessitate the appointment of personnel to deal exclusively with the business of the organization. It is also possible that athletics will undergo changes which will make present collegiate forms obsolete. For example, events occurring in 1971 might be indicative of trends. Where facilities existed on campus, competition was supported. If competition was available elsewhere, students either chose or were encouraged to become involved where the opportunities existed. There was not a total dependence on the institution for competitive opportunities. Of course, the trend was not new but it did seem more pronounced on many campuses. Yet, another trend was the tendency to unify men's and women's athletic programs under a common set of policies in a single administrative unit. In perspective, then, the development of state championships was but another aspect of the continuous growth of women's intercollegiate basketball in New York.
The future undoubtedly will hold even more possibilities than the past.
CHAPTER X

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This chapter is devoted to a presentation of a summary of the text and enumeration of the conclusions derived from the investigation. The material has been arranged chronologically to facilitate tracing the influence on practices in New York of the development of intercollegiate basketball competition and the standards which guided the player, coach, and administrator of competitive programs.

SUMMARY

This study was an investigation of the historical development of standards for women's athletics and their influence on basketball competition in the State of New York. The invention of basketball in 1891 had come at a time when women were beginning to realize their athletic potential. The game was welcomed enthusiastically by players and teachers alike. As girls and women engaged in basketball competition, problems arose. Contributing to the difficulties was the fact that no tradition existed to guide the development of programs of athletic competition for girls and women. Soon women physical educators
found it necessary to urge control of the very aspects of the game which had won their favor in the first place. The subsequent growth of basketball represented a complex and significant element in the development and control of athletic competition for girls and women in the United States.

Basketball introduced an intensity of competitive zeal unparalleled in the history of women's sports. Leaders in eastern women's colleges, where basketball found a warm reception, acted quickly to control the growth of the game. They chose intramural competition, usually interclass, over other forms. From their understanding of biological, psychological, and emotional characteristics of women, physical educators questioned the need for or appropriateness of extensive extramural basketball competition for girls and women. Those early efforts to control the growth of basketball resulted in local standards or guides to action rather than in national consensus. However, the bases for the eventual national standards for women's athletic competition had been firmly laid between 1890 and 1900 in the local practices which had evolved in that first decade of the existence of basketball.

Events in New York closely resembled those in other eastern colleges. Sports entered physical education programs after 1850 as adjuncts to required gymnastics programs. Vassar College was particularly sports-oriented from its origin. Basketball was accepted enthusiastically there in
1895. Interclass basketball spectacles were important aspects of the social life created on the women's college campus. Women in the state were anxious that competition progress only with proper precautions. Early efforts to guide and control programs were local and individual in nature. Many of those local policies were eventually reflected in the standards of national organizations.

During the first two decades of the twentieth century the need for standards increased as more teams played more games each season. Despite a determination to avoid the problems of men's athletics, the problems did arise in part because there was no rallying agency to concentrate efforts against them. There continued to be more criticism than action on the part of women leaders. The women believed that all facets of an athletic program should be contained within the structure of physical education. All students were to be accommodated in the programs. Once interested, the student found little encouragement to gain a high level of skill.

Two organizations were developed in 1916 and 1917 to cope with growing problems created by participation in sport. The Women's Athletic Committee of the American Physical Education Association assumed the responsibility for guiding all athletic programs for girls and women. The Athletic Conference of American College Women provided a national forum for student members and faculty advisers of...
women's athletic associations to exchange views. Also at that time the Amateur Athletic Union entered women's athletics as an unwelcome relative determined to provide the leadership others were reluctant to give.

The Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation was the first national organization to digest the thinking of the many women who had commented about the control of athletics. In the early 1920's the resolutions and platform of the Women's Division served as guidelines for athletic programs for girls and women throughout the country. None of the women's organizations ever rejected competition per se, but each group identified preferred forms. The Women's Division favored play days in which institutional identification was set aside in favor of color designations for teams.

In New York intercollegiate basketball was popular among the institutions in the New York City area and was flourishing by the 1920's. Elizabeth Burchenal, who had led City high school students into intramural play as Executive Secretary of the Girls' Branch of the Public Schools Athletic League, became the first chairman of the Women's Athletic Committee of the American Physical Education Association. Her leadership of the Committee reflected much of her earlier work in the Girls' Branch. Several New York women participated in the development and execution
of the resolutions of the Women's Division.

Intercollegiate play in New York remained informal and haphazard. Specific guidelines of a national organization did not appear to replace local policies, perhaps, in part, because local regulations were very similar to the Women's Division platform. Women leaders in New York had promoted programs which reflected their points of view. Though the Girls' Branch had sponsored play days early, colleges experimented with them unenthusiastically in the 1930's.

The first standards monograph was published by the National Section on Women's Athletics in 1937. Members of the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation were concerned that the view expressed in the monograph favoring sports days was too liberal. However, competition at that time was predominantly of the sports day type. Thus, the standards reflected trends in competition rather than changed their course. The play day experiment ended quickly in New York. Teams which did engage in intercollegiate play tended to favor sports days or infrequent invitational games, often at the end of intramural seasons. New York City area colleges remained the exception. The geographical proximity of those institutions made intercollegiate competition much more convenient
than the time-consuming expensive distances which separated other colleges in the state. Harsh winter weather conditions also interfered with Upstate athletic programs. The relative informality of most competitive programs tended to diminish the need for specific national guidelines. The ideals projected in the standards monograph in 1937 were appropriate for the type of athletic competition occurring in the State of New York at that time.

The Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation merged with the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation in 1940. As a consequence the National Section on Women's Athletics became the standard-making body destined to endure in its efforts throughout the remainder of the study. The basic principles of the 1937 standards document survived several revisions in format, indicating the years spent preparing the monograph were well worth the effort. The standards were condensed and interpreted in a variety of forms and by several organizations. Specific standards for basketball first appeared in the 1947 rule guide. Between 1940 and 1955 a need for a sounder research basis for the standards was recognized.

A national intercollegiate golf tournament for women, initiated in 1941, was to have a significant impact on athletics for women despite the controversy surrounding its
Basketball competition, though, continued its moderate growth in all but a few colleges. Interrupted somewhat by the restrictions imposed during the Second World War, competition increased steadily thereafter. The game itself underwent changes which stimulated more skill development and added more possibilities to the strategy of the game. In all, the period between 1940 and 1955 was one of controlled growth throughout the United States.

Similarly, in New York intercollegiate basketball competition experienced moderate, quite controlled growth between 1940 and 1955. Extramural sports days continued to be the dominant form of play. Standards were chiefly of local design, often developed by the coach. The informality of play did not require strict regulation. Institutions could quite literally choose their opposition, making it possible to compete against schools with common concepts of competition. No doubt a certain amount of pressure for conformity, subtle or overt, was built into such a system of scheduling. Whether by design or accident, then, local standards reflected a commonality and generally agreed with the recommendations of the National Section on Women's Athletics and its successor, the National Section for Girls and Women's Sports. The informality of competition, even in New York City where teams continued regular intercollegiate schedules, did not require strict written regulations.
Between 1956 and 1971 the game of basketball for women changed markedly. In 1972 a national intercollegiate champion emerged from a series of local, state, regional, and national tournaments. The Division for Girls and Women’s Sports (DGWS) increased its role in the development of athletic programs for the highly skilled performer. Closer liaison relationships with national sport and athletic organizations replaced earlier antagonisms. A study conference sponsored by DGWS in 1965 marked a turning point in athletics for girls and women. DGWS committed itself to the control and development of national intercollegiate athletics for women. Its Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics for Women established sanctioning procedures for major college competitive events. The Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women replaced the Commission in 1972.

For the first time women’s intercollegiate competition was governed by a national association. Also for the first time regulations for competition could be enforced and penalties imposed. In the meantime, the standards committee of DGWS had many of its functions usurped by the various organizations which sequentially guided the development of intercollegiate competition and by state high school athletic or activity associations which were accorded the control of
girls' interscholastic programs. Consequently, unless the Philosophy and Standards Area underwent changes in purpose and function, it was possible that the Area might cease to exist.

Standards for competition in New York were still largely unwritten and often the personal creations of the coach in 1956. Except for the regular schedule of games maintained by teams in the New York City area, intercollegiate competition was essentially of the sports day type. Teams seldom practiced together before competitive events. Although the games were taken seriously by the participants, a high level of performance was seldom demonstrated.

The tendency to perpetuate such moderation and to interpret the standards of the Division for Girls and Women's Sports rather conservatively retarded the growth of more intense intercollegiate competition, but was not out of line with national trends. After the DGWS study conference on girls and women's sports in 1965, significant changes occurred in many New York intercollegiate programs. Though a subtle shift toward more intensity and formal competition began about 1960, there was no subtlety about the changes between 1966 and 1971. An organization, the Women's Varsity Sports Organisation of New York State Colleges, evolved to foster competition for the highly skilled player. Member institutions tended to
develop much more specific regulatory standards for their competitive programs. The first state intercollegiate basketball tournament was held in 1971.

Institutions which chose not to join the state varsity organization maintained the tradition of diversity in competitive practices and standards for their programs. Junior colleges, for the most part, organized separately from the four-year institutions, but adhered closely to DGWS guidelines nonetheless. Intercollegiate basketball competition in New York was not affected significantly by any organization other than the Division for Girls and Women's Sports. DGWS rules were followed consistently and the organization's influence through its various standards publications was undeniable.

CONCLUSION

The basis for formal statements of standards for women's intercollegiate athletic competition was laid between 1891 and 1920. In the State of New York women's intercollegiate basketball competition was influenced by the standards of the Division for Girls and Women's Sports and its antecedent organizations. In some cases, however, practices were established before standards were formulated to regulate them. Several women
physical educators from New York contributed their services to the organizations which stated standards.

Emphases in intercollegiate basketball programs in New York followed general trends. There was a change from pride in masses of participants to a satisfaction derived from the enrichment athletic participation afforded in the lives of those who chose to play, including the highly skilled performer. Intercollegiate competition evolved slowly from comparatively informal contests at the turn of the century to championship play in 1971. Interscholastic competition reached its peak of intensity in the 1920's and 1930's. By 1970 the competition was being revived under the guidance of concerned women in the state.

Women leaders nationally chose to assume a conservative point of view with regard to athletic competition and did not seize upon the possibility of contributing to social change through athletic participation until recently. The same choice was made by women in New York. Leadership in women's athletics in the state has passed from the traditions built by Harriet Ballintine, Elizabeth Burchenal, Helen McKinstry, Katherine Sibley and Agnes Wayman to those of a new generation led by Lee Abbott, Shirley Carmichael, Lucille Kyvallos and Doris Soladay.
Finally, the move to state and national championships resulted in sharper contrasts in competitive practices and standards than had previously existed. Developments which culminated between 1965 and 1971 introduced a new era of women's intercollegiate athletic competition, closely resembling the programs for men which had been so thoroughly condemned by early leaders. Scholarships, recruiting, budget, qualified coaches and facilities are the new problems attracting attention. However, progress has not stopped. The future may hold even greater possibilities.
APPENDIX
MAJOR EVENTS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF
STANDARDS FOR WOMEN'S ATHLETICS

1899 - women's basketball committee developed a standardized set of rules at Conference on Physical Training, Springfield, Massachusetts

1901 - publication of first women's basketball rule guide; committee assumed policy-making function in addition to the formulation of rules

1914 - Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) registered women swimmers

1916 - standing committee on women's athletics appointed by American Physical Education Association (APEA)

1917 - Athletic Conference of American College Women (ACACW) organized; opposed to intercollegiate athletics

1917 - Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) registered women swimmers

1916 - standing committee on women's athletics appointed by American Physical Education Association (APEA)

1917 - Athletic Conference of American College Women (ACACW) organized; opposed to intercollegiate athletics

1922 - AAU moved to control all open competition in girls and women's athletics

- Women's Athletic Committee (WAC) of APEA refused to cooperate on AAU committees

1923 - Women's Division, National Amateur Athletic Federation (WDNAAF) founded; first formal, national standards for girls and women's athletics appeared in resolutions

1924 - platform replaced WDNAAF resolutions; organization favored play days

- Directors of Physical Education for Women in Colleges organized; opposed intensive competition

1925 - National Association of Secondary-School Principals opposed girls' interscholastic athletics

1926 - AAU sponsored first national basketball tournament for women
1929 - WDNAAF and WAC resolved against participation in
Olympic Games by women

- AAU vowed women would continue to compete in
Olympics

1931 - WDNAAF readopted platform of 1924

1932 - WAC became National Section of Women's Athletics
(NSWA); published "Monograph on Athletics for
Girls and Women"

1933 - NSWA appointed Standards Committee

1937 - publication of first NSWA standards monograph;
first approval by professional women of moderate
athletics

1939 - Midwest Association of College Teachers of Physical
Education for Women elaborated NSWA standards for
regional application

1940 - WDNAAF merged with American Association for Health,
Physical Education, and Recreation

1941 - NSWA published "Desirable Practices in Athletics for
Girls and Women"

- first national intercollegiate golf tournament for
women

- National Association of Directors of Physical
Education for College Women formulated position
statement on competition

1947 - NSWA standards for basketball appeared in rules guide

1948 - first revision of NSWA standards monograph

- AAU and NSWA exchanged liaison members on basketball
committees

1953 - second revision of standards monograph as NSWA became
National Section for Girls and Women's Sports (NSGWS)

- National Association of Physical Education for College
Women (NAPECW) accepted NSGWS standards

1954 - NAPECW policy statement on competition
1954 - Educational Policies Commission recommended NSGWS standards

1955 - NSGWS cooperated in publication of Standards for Secondary School Girls

1956 - Tripartite Golf Committee organized from NSGWS, NAPECW and Athletic and Recreation Federation of College Women (ARPCW)

1957 - Tripartite Committee of NSGWS, NAPECW and ARPCW organized to study and guide athletic competition

- NSGWS became Division for Girls and Women's Sports (DGWS)
- DGWS published "Statement of Policies and Procedures for Competition in Girls and Women's Sports"

1958 - third revision of standards monograph by DGWS

- National Joint Committee on Extramural Sports for College Women (NJCESCW) replaced Tripartite Committee

1960 - AAU study on effects of athletic participation on women

1963 - first national sports institute sponsored by DGWS and Women's Olympic Development Committee

- DGWS revised policy statement on competition

1964 - fourth revision of standards monograph by DGWS

- "Sport Standards for Girls and Women" replaced specific sport standards in DGWS rule guides

- Society of State Directors of Health, Physical Education and Recreation and American Medical Association endorsed DGWS standards

1965 - DGWS sponsored Study Conference on Competition for Girls and Women; minimum guidelines and new attitude toward competition resulted

- NJCESCW dissolved and duties assumed by DGWS
1966 - "DGWS Statement of Beliefs" replaced "Sports Standards for Girls and Women" in rule guides

1967 - Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (CIAW) of DGWS developed to replace NJCESCW; procedures and sponsorship of national championships resulted

- NAPECW provided regional means for development of CIAW

1968 - DGWS policy statement on competitive athletics for elementary school children

1969 - fifth revision of DGWS standards monograph

1970 - sixth revision of DGWS standards monograph

1972 - Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women replaced CIAW

- seventh revision of DGWS standards monograph underway
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