

WOMEN'S BASKETBALL: AN HISTORICAL REVIEW OF SELECTED  
ATHLETIC ORGANIZATIONS WHICH INFLUENCED ITS  
ASCENSION TOWARD ADVANCED COMPETITION IN  
THE UNITED STATES

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A DISSERTATION  
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Dedicated to

Millie V. Downing, who demonstrated  
confidence, patience, and support in numerous  
ways throughout the development and completion of  
the dissertation

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Basketball for women began in a state of controversy and its status has remained unchanged throughout its history.<sup>1</sup> Recently, however, there has been a merging of some objectives by several of the more influential sports groups in an effort to reach a common ground of communication. This has been accomplished primarily through a standardization of rules in an effort to provide an opportunity for a more varied range of competitive experiences for the girl who excels in sports.<sup>2</sup>

American women have gained greater latitudes in social freedoms within the last few decades and with this new freedom, their involvement in competitive sports in general, and basketball in particular, has increased far beyond the expectations of early leaders in women's sports.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Charlotte Lambert, "Pros and Cons of Intercollegiate Athletic Competition for Women: A Middle of the Road Position Paper," Journal of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, XL (May, 1969), 75-78.

<sup>2</sup>Katherine Ley, "Athletic Scholarships," Journal of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, XL (September, 1969), 77.

<sup>3</sup>Ronald A. Smith, "The Rise of Basketball for Women in College," unpublished paper, The Pennsylvania State University, 1970, p. 1.

Throughout the early years of its development, basketball for women caused volcanic reactions among physical educators who were concerned with the problems of: participation for the few or for the masses; men's rules versus women's rules; physical and emotional overexertions; and acceptable costuming for the activity. Many of these difficulties have remained to plague the conscience of their contemporary counterparts, along with auxiliary problems which were not apparent during the early days of the activity.<sup>1</sup>

Today's leaders in women's sports have sought to recognize the difficulties involved in woman's changing role in athletic endeavors. As the play day concept reached its saturation point and stabilized, women physical educators recognized the neglect of the gifted female athlete. Neal indicated this trend when, in reference to women in athletics, she stated: "The highly skilled athlete has been short-changed too long, and it's time to meet responsibilities in this area . . . ." <sup>2</sup> Cassidy voiced the same concern six years earlier when she asserted:

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 18.

<sup>2</sup>Patsy Neal, "Psychological Aspects of Coaching Women in Sports," Journal of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, XLI (October, 1970), 75.

The belief that girls and women, no matter how highly skilled, should be shielded from the stresses and evils of competitive sports, has deprived the gifted girl not only of the evils but of all the values of achieving her highest potential in sport.<sup>1</sup>

Contemporary leaders have acknowledged the sparsity of opportunities for women in the United States to participate in advanced competition and have attempted to cultivate acceptable programs beyond the realm of the play day-sports day concept. In reference to women physical educators maintaining a proper perspective and balance of leadership for all participants in all sports, including the highly skilled girl, Ley concluded: "If our leadership is strong enough, our programs will be balanced . . . . Our needs for better programs and expanded programs are critical. The time is now! Never has the challenge been so great."<sup>2</sup>

Many women who are actively serving on strategic policy-making committees for women's sports have stressed the need for leaders of women's competitive activities to proceed cautiously and profit from the mistakes made by the

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<sup>1</sup>Rosalind Cassidy, "Critical Issues in Physical Education and Athletics," Journal of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, XLI (June, 1964), 17.

<sup>2</sup>Katherine Ley, "A Philosophical Interpretation of the National Institute on Girls Sports," Proceedings: First National Institute on Girls' Sports (Washington, D. C.: American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, 1965), p. 15.

men.<sup>1,2,3,4,5,6</sup> By exercising caution, it would appear that women could avoid the pitfalls and the possibility of a sequel to man's tempestuous struggle to control his athletic programs.

Wilson has warned against plunging impetuously into the frantic acceptance of any and all procedures of men's sports.<sup>7</sup> The implied evils of an excessive competitive program for women, "the coaching bug and being caught up in the 'win' syndrome," should be avoided.

Throughout most of its existence, women's basketball in this country has been under the control and

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<sup>1</sup>Katherine Ley, "Are You Ready," Journal of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, XXXIV (April, 1963), 20-22.

<sup>2</sup>Ley, "Athletic Scholarships," pp. 76-77.

<sup>3</sup>Theresa M. Malumphy, "The College Woman Athlete-- Questions and Tentative Answers," Quest, XIV (June, 1970), 18-27.

<sup>4</sup>Eleavor Metheny, "The 'Women's Look' in Sport," Connotations of Movement in Sport and Dance (Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Company, Publishers, 1965), pp. 167-73.

<sup>5</sup>Patsy Neal, "Intercollegiate Competition," Journal of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, XL (September, 1969), 75-76.

<sup>6</sup>Phebe M. Scott, "Women's Sports in 1980," Proceedings: Second National Institute on Girls' Sports (Washington, D. C.: American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, 1966), p. 147.

<sup>7</sup>Margaret E. Wilson, "The Ethics of Competition: Three Viewpoints," Journal of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, XLVII (March, 1971), 87.

influence of such organizations as the Amateur Athletic Union, the Division for Girls' and Women's Sports, the United States Olympic Committee, and their individual and joint subsidiary groups. The interworking among these various authoritative groups had vitally shaped the present status of the current game for women in the United States.

Although the history of this sport has been recorded numerous times,<sup>1,2,3,4,5,6</sup> few investigations have dealt with the underlying reasons for, and the mechanics behind, the upsurge of competition in women's basketball since World War II. The sparsity of information related to previous historical reviews substantiated the need for the present study.

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<sup>1</sup>Alice W. Frymir, Basket Ball for Women (New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1928), pp. 1-21.

<sup>2</sup>Wilhelmine E. Meissner and Elizabeth Yeend Meyers, Basketball for Girls (New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1940), pp. 1-3.

<sup>3</sup>Kenneth D. Miller and Rita Jean Horky, Modern Basketball for Women (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1970), pp. 1-20.

<sup>4</sup>Patsy Neal, Basketball Techniques for Women (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1966), pp. 7-13.

<sup>5</sup>Sandy Padwe, Basketball's Hall of Fame (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Incorporated, 1970), pp. 3-12.

<sup>6</sup>Alexander M. Weyand, The Cavalcade of Basketball (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1960), pp. 1-40.

### Statement of the Problem

The investigation entailed a review of the advent and development of advanced competition of women's basketball in the United States, with primary emphasis upon selected athletic organizations which evolved as influences to contribute to the ascension. The following organizations were considered in this study: The National Girls' Basketball League of the Amateur Athletic Union; the National Basketball Committee for Women of the Amateur Athletic Union; the Olympic Development Camp, a joint venture of the United States Olympic Committee and the Amateur Athletic Union; the Commission on Inter-collegiate Athletics for Women, sponsored by the Division for Girls' and Women's Sports; the National Sports Institute, sponsored jointly by the United States Olympic Development Committee and the Division for Girls' and Women's Sports; the United States Olympic Games Committee for Women's Basketball; and the Joint AAU-DGWS Rules Committee.

### Purposes of the Study

The general purpose of the study was to examine and prepare an account of the origin, purpose, membership, meetings, finance, and powers and obligations of selected major athletic organizations in the United States which influenced the rise of women's basketball toward advanced competition. Specifically, the purposes of the study were

to: (1) review and record a brief history of women's basketball in the United States; (2) search out, review, and record chronologically the data pertinent to the ascension of women's basketball in the United States toward advanced competition; (3) interview and/or correspond with prominent leaders of each organization concerning pertinent information which could not be obtained through written records or reports; and (4) critically analyze the growth, development, and current status of women's basketball in the United States.

Definitions and/or Explanations of Terms

For the purpose of clarification, the following explanations and/or definitions or terms were established for use in the study:

- A. AAU.--Amateur Athletic Union
- B. CIAW.--Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics for Women.
- C. DGWS.--Division for Girls' and Women's Sports.
- D. FIBA.--Federation of International Basketball Associations.
- E. Advanced competition.--refers to participation at the college level, independent groups beyond high school competition, and/or international involvement, whereby a regular season schedule is played, or a series of exchange

games, culminated by participation in a regional, national, or international tournament or playoff.

F. History.--". . . a systematically arranged written account of events . . . ; the science or field of study concerned with the recording and critical interpretation of past events."<sup>1</sup>

G. IAAF.--International Amateur Athletic Federation.

H. IOC.--International Olympic Committee.

I. NGBL.--National Girls' Basketball League.

J. NSGWA.--National Section for Girls' and Women's Athletics.

K. NSWA.--National Section for Women's Athletics.

L. USOC.--United States Olympic Committee.

M. USOCWB.--United States Olympic Committee for Women's Basketball.

N. WNBC.--Women's National Basketball Committee.

#### Delimitations of the Study

The following were accepted as delimitations in respect to the development of the study: (1) availability and accuracy of human and/or documentary sources from which data may be collected and (2) historical data pertinent to athletic organizations within women's basketball as related to high level competition.

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<sup>1</sup>Carter V. Good, ed., Dictionary of Education (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Incorporated, 1945), p. 269.

### Summary

Throughout most of its existence, women's basketball in this country has been under the control and influence of such organizations as the Amateur Athletic Union, the Division for Girls' and Women's Sports, the United States Olympic Committee, and their individual and joint subsidiary groups. Although the history of this sport has been recorded numerous times, few investigations have dealt with the underlying reasons for, and the mechanics behind, the upsurge of competition in women's basketball since World War II. This sparsity of information related to previous historical reviews substantiated the need for the present study.

The investigation entailed a review of the advent and development of advanced competition of women's basketball in the United States, with primary emphasis upon selected athletic organizations which evolved as influences to contribute to the ascension. The following organizations were considered in this study: the National Girls' Basketball League of the Amateur Athletic Union; the National Basketball Committee for Women of the Amateur Athletic Union; the Olympic Development Camp, a joint venture of the United States Olympic Committee and Amateur Athletic Union; the Commission of Inter-collegiate Athletics for Women, a function of the Division for Girls' and Women's Sports; the National Sports Institute,

sponsored jointly by the United States Olympic Development Committee and the Division for Girls' and Women's Sports; the United States Olympic Games Committee for Women's Basketball; and the Joint AAU-DGWS Rules Committee.

For the purpose of clarification, the following explanations and/or definitions of terms were established for use in the study: AAU, CIAW, DGWS, FIBA, advanced competition, history, IAAF, IOC, NGBL, NSGWA, NSWA, USOC, USOCWB, and WNBC.

The investigator accepted the following delimitations in respect to the development of the study:

(1) availability and accuracy of human and/or documentary sources from which data may be collected and (2) historical data pertinent to athletic organizations within women's basketball as related to advanced competition.

In Chapter II of this dissertation a review of related literature acquired for utilization in the development of the study will be presented. The studies will be arranged so that those investigations most closely related to the topics of basketball and athletic organizations will be at the beginning of the review, and those cited as historical techniques of research will be placed at the end.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

An extensive review of all available literature revealed that the present study does not duplicate any previous investigation. Several studies, however, are similar to the present investigation in that they are historical reviews of sports and/or athletic organizations. To the extent that could be determined, no completed research focused upon the aspect of advanced competition in women's basketball. The following are reviews of previous studies which were considered helpful in this investigation. The studies presented herein are arranged so that the investigations most closely related to the topic of basketball and athletic organizations are at the beginning, and those cited as examples of historical techniques of research are placed at the end of the review.

In 1965, Dewar<sup>1</sup> completed a biographical study depicting the life of James Naismith and his contributions to sports as well as his dedication and service to mankind.

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<sup>1</sup>John Dewar, "The Life and Professional Contributions of James Naismith" (unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, Florida State University, 1965).

The beginning of basketball was, by necessity and design, given special consideration in that review.

The research procedures employed by Dewar for the collection of the data included personal papers and letters; articles, newspapers and public records; and the recollections of family and friends. During the process of gathering data, Dewar made trips to Naismith's birthplace, places where he spent his childhood, received his education, and pursued his chosen career.

The investigator reviewed the account of Naismith's invention of basketball and pointed out Naismith's relations with some of the pioneers in the field of physical education --Gulick, Stagg, and McKenzie. The game of basketball results from an assignment given to Naismith in 1891 by Gulick, the director of the Springfield Young Men's Christian Association Training School. The reason for the assignment was two-fold: first, there was a demand for an off-season indoor activity to serve as a substitute conditioner for football; and second, there was a group of prospective Young Men's Christian Association secretaries enrolled at the school who found their hour in the gymnasium each day very distasteful.

Dewar related that Naismith, after much deliberation and experimentation, decided that the new activity for these disgruntled young men must possess the following elements: it should be an indoor game; it should eliminate

running with the ball, to prevent contact; it should require a large ball so that it would have to be passed rather than thrown; it should require that the ball be bounced or passed to a teammate; it should require that the goal be horizontal with the floor rather than vertical as in football. To establish the first thirteen rules governing basketball, Naismith combined the foregoing elements with the scoring tactics of a childhood game of "Duck on the Rock," which necessitated a high arched shot for success.

In 1963, Lowry<sup>1</sup> conducted a comparative study to determine the effects three sets of dissimilar rules would have on general motor ability, basketball motor ability, and selected basketball skills. In addition, she utilized basketball achievement tests to study peer rankings as related to demonstrated basketball skills.

Lowry relied upon the following as documentary sources for the study: books, pamphlets, periodicals, theses, dissertations, letters, and basketball rule books. In addition, she consulted with authorities in the field of basketball concerning appropriate testing procedures.

Eighty-five students enrolled in two basketball classes at the Texas Woman's University during the 1962-1963

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<sup>1</sup>Carla Lowry, "A Comparative Study of Effect of Two Sets of Dissimilar Basketball Rules on General Motor Ability, Basketball Motor Ability, and Selected Basketball Skills of Women Students Enrolled in Two Basketball Classes" (unpublished Master's thesis, Texas Woman's University, 1963).

academic year were administered the Wisconsin Basketball Battery Tests for the purpose of classifying them into four teams, two teams per class. Other tests administered were a knowledge test, the Humiston Motor Ability Test, and the Basketball Motor Ability Tests.

A portion of Lowry's study was devoted to a chronology of four sets of basketball rules currently in use by girls and women. The four sets of rules applied were those used by the Amateur Athletic Union, the Division for Girls' and Women's Sports, the International Basketball Federation, and the Texas High School Rules. The Amateur Athletic Union and the Division for Girls' and Women's Sports rules involved the roving player; the International rules required all players to play the full court; and the Texas High School rules restricted the three forwards and three guards to separate halves of the court.

The investigation was considered related to the present study in that playing rules sometimes place restrictions upon skill levels attained by a group, and this in turn may limit the degree of success a team may attain in terms of competitive endeavors when the rules may be different than those usually played. The Joint AAU-DGWS Rules were included as a part of the Lowry study; therefore, that investigation was pertinent to the present study only in respect to the work accomplished by the Joint Rules Committee.

Lowry concluded that all students made significant improvements in their general motor ability although neither class was significantly better than the other; thus, the dissimilar rules apparently had no effect upon the aspect of general motor ability. The two-court division rules did not significantly affect improvement in basketball motor ability. Students playing the roving player rules during the semester improved significantly in their basketball motor ability.

In 1952, Korsgaard<sup>1</sup> conducted an historical study of the Amateur Athletic Union of the United States in an attempt to assist interested persons in drawing logical and valid conclusions concerning the process of athletic controls in the United States. Specifically, Korsgaard proposed to: (1) discover the athletic conditions which dictated the necessity for such an organization as the Amateur Athletic Union; (2) compile in one source information concerning the origin of the Amateur Athletic Union; (3) present the role of the Amateur Athletic Union both in the United States and the world; (4) indicate the role of the Amateur Athletic Union in relation to the athletes, educational institutions, sports clubs, and other groups; and (5) contribute to the rapidly growing field of knowledge in physical education.

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<sup>1</sup>Robert Korsgaard, "A History of the Amateur Athletic Union of the United States" (unpublished Ed. D. dissertation, Teachers College Columbia University, 1952).

The study that Korsgaard undertook encompassed material that spanned one hundred years; thereby requiring exhaustive efforts to obtain some of the information from the following sources: (1) minutes of the annual meeting of the Amateur Athletic Union; (2) periodicals, handbooks, brochures, and newspapers; (3) educational books and doctoral dissertations; (4) personal interviews with persons who were instrumental in the early stages of development of the organization, and those who were leaders in more recent times; and (5) unpublished materials. Korsgaard concluded that although the Amateur Athletic Union was born as a result of controversy and survived in spite of constant conflicts, it has been a powerful force in the athletic destiny of this country for over six decades.

Montgomery<sup>1</sup> conducted a study to trace the development of interscholastic athletics in the high schools of the United States from 1890 to 1940. The investigator gave minor emphasis to the development of the high school and the physical education programs within the framework of the high schools in the United States.

Consideration was also given to the changing social and economic conditions in the United States prior to 1890

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<sup>1</sup>James Alfred Montgomery, "The Development of the Interscholastic Athletics Movement in the United States, 1890-1940" (unpublished Ed. D. dissertation, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1960).

and their influences upon the high school curriculum. The expanding curriculum was an outgrowth of the rise of new systems of educational philosophy and psychology which made the inclusion of sports and games possible.

Utilizing the typical historical sources of primary, secondary, and human resources, Montgomery revealed that athletic games were first played in communities and colleges, with high school boys imitating the college games on an informal basis. Montgomery concluded that this was a method by which the high school boys could satisfy their physical needs for activity as well as have an outlet for self expression, which the nineteenth and early twentieth century educational philosophy and psychology had disregarded. The educational philosophy which encouraged the education of both mind and body aided in the expansion of the athletic programs.

World War I stimulated the growth of interscholastic athletics because such a program was believed to expedite the development of strong and resourceful soldiers, which this nation direly needed during that critical period in its history. The rapid growth of athletics continued through the 1920's and 1930's, along with a complexity of athletic organizations which activated tendencies toward evil and noneducational practices in athletics. Montgomery cited these evils to be: too many contests in one week,

exploitation of stars, win at all costs, and practices bordering on professionalism. It soon became apparent that interscholastic athletics would need reputable organizations with local, state, and national influence in order to control the less desirable aspects of competition. Montgomery concluded that when foreign dominance of the physical education programs subsided in the United States, a foundation was established whereby physical education and interscholastic athletics could embark upon a course of compatibility and coexistence.

In 1966, Davenport<sup>1</sup> conducted an historical study to investigate the United States Lawn Tennis Association regarding its amateur code. A second purpose of the study was to trace the development of the open tournament controversy and present both pro and con arguments concerning that conflict.

The following techniques of research were used in the study: (1) examination of the printed material related to lawn tennis including books, periodicals, and tennis guides; (2) review of the minutes of the United States Lawn Tennis Association from 1881-1966; (3) personal interviews with tennis players, both amateur and professional, tennis reporters, and officials of the United States Lawn Tennis

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<sup>1</sup>Joanna Davenport, "The History and Interpretation of Amateurism in the United States Lawn Tennis Association" (unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, Ohio State University, 1966).

Association; and (4) review of committee reports in the United States Lawn Tennis Association file.

Davenport concluded that the United States Lawn Tennis Association amateur code is written in nebulous terms, thereby encouraging misinterpretation of the letter and spirit of the rules by those ingenious enough to find the loopholes in the rules; there is an urgent need for more stringent enforcement of the Amateur Code, particularly in terms of exaggerated expense accounts; and, regarding international competition, that there is flagrant disregard for enforcement of the Amateur Code because of the variance in attitude and philosophy toward the code from country to country.

In 1967, Cheatum<sup>1</sup> conducted an historical study based upon selected golf tournaments for women with specific emphasis upon the growth and development of the Ladies' Professional Golf Association. The historical account was focused upon the developments in women's golf between the years 1889-1964.

The specific purposes of the study were to: present a critical analysis of the growth, development, and current status of professional golf for women in the United States; and to review and chronologically record

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<sup>1</sup>Billye Ann Cheatum, "A History of Selected Golf Tournaments for Women with Emphasis upon the Growth and Development of the Ladies Professional Golf Association" (unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, Texas Woman's University, 1967).

data which comprised the history of the Ladies' Professional Golf Association in relation to its contributions to the promotion of golf for girls and women.

Cheatum utilized data collected from the following documented sources: dissertations, pamphlets, books, newspapers, magazines, and letters. Collection of data from human sources was obtained through contact with prominent persons in golf, librarians, members of historical societies, and research historians.

The investigator categorized the conclusions for the study under three headings, each of which encompassed different aspects of golf and different time spans. The three categories presented conclusions with reference to: the origin of golf; the growth and development of the Ladies' Professional Golf Association; and selected golf tournaments.

#### Summary

A review of the available literature revealed that the present study does not duplicate any previous investigation. Previous studies reviewed and considered helpful in the development of the present investigation were dissertations by Dewar, Korsgaard, Montgomery, Cheatum, and a thesis by Lowry.

Chapter III of this dissertation will encompass the procedures followed in the development of the study.

## CHAPTER III

### PROCEDURES FOLLOWED IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE STUDY

The interest in and development of the present study was derived as a result of the paucity of background information pertaining to the recent acceleration in women's basketball toward advanced competition in the United States, and the apparent lack of an accessible reference concerning the major athletic organizations which activated and influenced this trend. The procedures followed in the development of Chapter III are indicated by the following center headings: (1) preliminary procedures; (2) collection of data from documentary sources; (3) collection of data from human sources; (4) collection of data related to the history of women's basketball; (5) collection of data related to the selected athletic organizations associated with women's basketball in the United States; (6) collection of data related to the ascension and expansion of women's basketball in the United States; (7) the organization and preparation of the data; and (8) the preparation of the written report. In areas or periods where more than one of the organizations is

involved the overlap will be noted and the primary discussion of the event will be presented where it appears to be most pertinent. A brief summary concludes the chapter.

#### Preliminary Procedures

Prior to the commencement of the study, permission to undertake the investigation was obtained by writing to each parent organization involved in the historical review. Specifically, letters were sent to and permission received from: Mr. Jesse Pardue, President of the Amateur Athletic Union; Mr. Clifford Buck, President of the United States Olympic Committee; and Dr. Rachel Bryant, Consultant for the Division for Girls' and Women's Sports. Each of these persons expressed interest in the study and endorsed it as being of value to the sport of women's basketball. A copy of the letters appears in the Appendix of the dissertation.

Upon completing an exhaustive review of the available materials pertaining to women's basketball in the United States, a tentative outline of the study was developed and presented in a Graduate Seminar of the College of Health, Physical Education and Recreation at the Texas Woman's University on August 6, 1969. The dissertation committee made several suggestions which were incorporated into the research design, and the revised tentative outline was filed as a prospectus in the Office of the Dean of Graduate Students.

### Location of Source Materials

Historical research is based upon the premise of reliable primary sources of data. A comprehensive bibliography of documentary materials that were available in local libraries was developed. Secondary sources were considered which might be of value from the standpoint of references to persons or documents related to primary sources of data connected with women's basketball in the United States.

Local libraries utilized in the preliminary quest for data and the acquisition of a working bibliography were: the libraries of the Texas Woman's University and the North Texas State University in Denton, Texas; the Dallas Public Library in Dallas, Texas; the Henderson State College Library in Arkadelphia, Arkansas; and the Southern State College Library in Magnolia, Arkansas.

### Development of Topical Outline

Upon the completion of an extensive review of available sources, a topical outline was prepared on the important aspects of the history of women's basketball in the United States, with respect to its ascension toward advanced competition and selected athletic organizations which influenced this trend. It was considered pertinent that the following aspects of each athletic organization be included for clarification of similarities and differences among the various groups: origin, purpose, membership, meetings, finance, and powers and obligations.

Following consultation with the dissertation director, it was decided that a thematic organization of the data rather than a strict chronological approach would present a more concise description of the groups involved. A topical outline to aid in the collection of data regarding the following topics was presented: (1) a History of Women's Basketball in the United States; (2) a Review of the Women's National Basketball Committee; (3) a Review of the United States Olympic Committee for Women's Basketball; (4) a Review of the National Sports Institute; (5) a Review of the Olympic Development Camp; (6) a Review of the AAU-DGWS Joint Rules Committee; (7) a Review of the National Girls' Basketball League; and (8) the Ascension of United States Women's Basketball Toward Advanced Competition.

Collection of Data from  
Documentary Sources

Upon the completion of the topical outline, a survey was made to assimilate the related data. The investigation entailed a review of the following publications for the purpose of establishing a bibliography: (1) Readers Guide to Periodical Literature; (2) 19th Century Readers Guide to Periodical Literature; (3) Education Index; (4) Cumulative Magazine Subject Index; (5) Poole's Index to Periodical Literature; and (6) New York Times Index.

The New York Times Index was an aid in the location of feature articles related to the early game of basketball as well as current events. Microfilm reprints of original articles found in the New York Times were also a valuable reference.

A variety of magazines were reviewed in an effort to obtain pertinent information related to the history of women's basketball in the United States. The magazines included were: The Amateur Athlete, 1945-70; Atlantic, 1892; Century Magazine, 1895; Cosmopolitan, 1901; Forum, 1929; Harper's Monthly, 1858; Hygeia, 1928; Mind and Body, 1923; Scribner's, 1898; and Swanee Review, 1907.

Access was obtained to various records and reports related to regional, national, and international competitions through personal libraries of various committee members and Olympic House in New York. Other documents used were the U. S. O. C. Quadrennial Review, minutes of the AAU Conventions, financial reports of the AAU and Olympic Committees, and law and legislation reports of the AAU. The American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation archives, and the Library of Congress in Washington, D. C., were visited the week of December 26, 1971.

Collection of Data from  
Human Sources

The procedures followed in the collection of data from human sources did not follow a static, established pattern regarding the interview instrument. This was done because it was decided that the collection of data from human sources should vary in relation to the organization involved and its specific contribution to women's basketball. A list of individuals and criteria considered in the selection of persons to be interviewed along with criteria for the interview instruments used are included in the Appendix of the study.

Collection of Data Related to the  
History of Women's Basketball

In an effort to present a complete review of women's basketball in the United States, a comprehensive survey of all available material related to the subject was reviewed and assimilated. This endeavor required the aid of professional librarians and archivists who rendered valuable assistance throughout this quest. Especially helpful were Mr. Robert Paul, U.S.O.C. Staff Coordinator, and Dr. Rebecca Weinstein, Director of Archives and Records Center for the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation.

Collection of Data Related to the Selected Athletic  
Organizations Associated with Women's  
Basketball in the United States

Data related to selected athletic organizations were collected through minutes of committee meetings, articles in professional journals, convention and institute proceedings, and newspaper articles. In addition to the foregoing process, correspondence with current officials within each selected organization was initiated to supplement documentary sources of data.

Collection of Data Related to the Ascension  
and Expansion of Women's Basketball  
in the United States

In addition to an exhaustive review of written records and proceedings of the selected athletic organizations in women's basketball in the United States, interviews of selected personalities were considered a vital aspect in obtaining a true and accurate account of the acceleration period of this sport toward advanced competition. Persons interviewed included: coaches, players, committee members, and administrative personnel of the selected organizations. Sample interview instruments and a list of persons interviewed are included in the Appendix of the study.

Organization and Preparation of Data

The organization of data from documentary and human sources were arranged and discussed under the following

topics: (1) a Review of the Women's National Basketball Committee; (2) a History of Women's Basketball in the United States; (3) a Review of the United States Olympic Committee for Women's Basketball; (4) a Review of the National Sports Institute; (5) a Review of the Olympic Development Camp; (6) a Review of the AAU-DGWS Joint Rules Committee; (7) a Review of the National Girls' Basketball League; and (8) the Ascension of United States Women's Basketball Toward Advanced Competition.

#### Preparation of the Written Report

The following procedures were adhered to in the writing of this study: (1) the preparation of a tentative outline; (2) the preparation of a topical outline; (3) the preparation of the interview instruments; (4) the writing of each chapter; (5) the revision of each chapter as indicated by the dissertation committee; (6) the preparation of an Appendix; (7) the preparation of a classified bibliography; and (8) the approval of the final written report by all members of the dissertation committee. Each chapter of the study was written in accordance with the topical outline, which was corrected and approved by members of the dissertation committee.

#### Summary

The interest in and development of the present study resulted from the paucity of background information

pertaining to the recent acceleration of women's basketball toward advanced competition in the United States, and the apparent lack of an accessible reference concerning major athletic organizations which activated and influenced this trend. Prior to the commencement of the study, preliminary procedures included obtaining permission to undertake the investigation, the location of primary and secondary source materials, and the development of a topical outline. The procedures followed in the collection of data from human sources involved the construction of interview instruments which allowed a flexible format so that specific information related to each selected athletic organization could be more adequately explored. A list of criteria considered in the selection of persons to be interviewed is included in the Appendix of the study.

The organization of data from documentary and human sources were arranged and discussed under the following topics: (1) a History of Women's Basketball in the United States; (2) a Review of the Women's National Basketball Committee; (3) a Review of the United States Olympic Committee for Women's Basketball; (4) a Review of the National Sports Institute; (5) a Review of the Olympic Development Camp; (6) a Review of the AAU-DGWS Joint Rules Committee; (7) a Review of the National Girls Basketball League; and (8) the Ascension of United States Women's Basketball Toward Advanced Competition.

A History of Women's Basketball in the United States will be presented in Chapter IV of this dissertation. This brief review of women's early basketball endeavors will hopefully establish insight into the reasons for the reticent attitude of our culture toward readily accepting this sport as one suitable for young ladies, thus setting the stage for the long struggle for those leaders who believed in its merit.

## CHAPTER IV

### A HISTORICAL REVIEW OF WOMEN'S BASKETBALL IN THE UNITED STATES

Basketball was born as a game of diversion, or recreation, to fill the idle evenings during the long winter months at the conclusion of the football season.<sup>1,2</sup> The sport was also created to satisfy a grumbling group of male Young Men's Christian Association secretaries who found their daily period of barbell routines very distasteful.<sup>3</sup>

A minimum amount of time transpired before a group of women teachers, who daily passed the Armory Hill Gymnasium, investigated the excited shouts emerging from the building and found the reasons for the excitement interesting enough to try themselves.<sup>4</sup> In 1891, the Springfield, Massachusetts teachers quickly formed two groups for the

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<sup>1</sup>Harriet Isabel Ballintine, "Out-of-Door Sports for College Women," American Physical Education Review, III (March, 1898), 40.

<sup>2</sup>James A. Naismith, "Basket Ball," American Physical Education Review, XIX (May, 1914), 339-40.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 341.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 345.

purpose of competition; thus organizing the first women's independent basketball team in the history of the sport.

Unlike many other sports whose true origins often remain a mystery to historians, basketball was originated in the United States during the latter part of the nineteenth century without the influence of an European model.<sup>1</sup> Even so, doubts and confusions as to the inventor of basketball did periodically arise as evidenced in an historical account of the Young Men's Christian Association which stated: "No single event in Y.M.C.A. history has been surrounded by more folklore than has the invention of basketball, the world's most widely played athletic game."<sup>2</sup>

Gulick was often professed to be the originator of the sport; however, he clarified that misconception by his explanation that he and Naismith often spoke of what constituted an invention. Consequently, Naismith utilized the principles of an invention as discussed between the two men and invented the game of basketball without further aid from his former teacher.<sup>3</sup>

The simplicity of the sport, which made it so popular, was apparent in the minimum number of thirteen original

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<sup>1</sup>Norma Schwendener, A History of Physical Education in the United States (New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1942), p. 149.

<sup>2</sup>Howard C. Hopkins, History of the YMCA in North America (New York: Associated Press, 1951), p. 257.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 260.

rules that still serve as the nucleus of today's game.<sup>1</sup> Actually, the rules were composed, typewritten, and posted upon the bulletin board of the gymnasium within one hour before class time, in an effort by Naismith to clarify game procedures for his students.<sup>2</sup>

### The Early Years

From the moment the peach baskets were attached to the gallery of the running track ten feet above the gymnasium floor, and throughout its popular existence, basketball has enjoyed a prominent place among sports programs for men and women at all competitive levels. As women emerged from their Victorian cocoon, they sought physical freedoms through sport activities in an effort to create a new physical culture beyond the realms of deep breathing and suppleness exercises as a means of relieving daily tensions.<sup>3</sup> The worth of basketball, particularly the three-division court type, was quickly recognized as a "game equal to their ability"<sup>4</sup> and attire during that era.

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<sup>1</sup>James A. Naismith and Luther Gulick, Basket Ball (New York: American Sports Publishing Company, 1894), p. 21.

<sup>2</sup>DeWar, op. cit., p. 40.

<sup>3</sup>Annie Payson Call, "The Greatest Need of College Girls," The Atlantic Monthly, LXIX (January, 1892), 106-107.

<sup>4</sup>Helen R. Kirk, "Discussion," American Physical Education Review, XXV (December, 1920), 411.

Popularity of the Sport

Smith College pioneered the introduction of basketball among the women's Ivy League institutions.<sup>1,2,3,4</sup> In the spring of 1892, the first basketball contest for women at the college level was held at Smith College in the form of intramural competition. Senior girls were responsible for the coaching of the sophomore girls and junior students coached the freshman team.<sup>5</sup> The closed practice sessions began in December and were culminated in the spring amid a standing-room-only crowd of students assembled in the colorfully decorated gymnasium. Although cheering was prohibited as being unladylike, there were victorious class songs sung at the climax of the momentous occasion. This first game for college women consisted of halves of fifteen minutes with a five minute half-time intermission.<sup>6</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>A. A. Wood, "Festivals in American Colleges for Women," The Century Magazine, XLIX (January, 1895), 443.

<sup>2</sup>F. Marion Crawford, "Festivals in American Colleges for Women: at Smith," ed. by A. A. Wood, The Century Magazine, XLIX (January, 1895), 433-34.

<sup>3</sup>Susan G. Walker, "Festivals in American Colleges for Women: at Mt. Holyoke," ed. by A. A. Wood, The Century Magazine, XLIX (January, 1895), 430-31.

<sup>4</sup>Henrietta E. Hooker, "Festivals in American Colleges for Women: at Vassar," ed. by A. A. Wood, The Century Magazine, XLIX (January, 1895), 437.

<sup>5</sup>Alice Katharine Fallows, "Undergraduate Life at Smith College," Scribner's Magazine, XXIV (July, 1898), 46.

<sup>6</sup>Ibid., p. 47.

Basketball was added to the physical education program at Smith College by Senda Berenson, the physical education instructor, in an effort to generate enthusiasm for a lagging activity program, which was on the verge of being excluded from the curriculum.<sup>1</sup> Subsequently, basketball was added to the meager intramural program at Smith College. After witnessing a demonstration of the game by the men at the Young Men's Christian Association Training School in Springfield during the spring of 1892, Miss Berenson decided that the game could be quickly and adequately adapted to the capabilities of college women.<sup>2</sup> This appeared to be the onset of the popularity of the sport among women's groups throughout the country.<sup>3</sup>

#### Acceptance of the Sport

Basketball for women was lauded by physical directors as a team sport which met most of the needs of the young women and girls at the turn of the century. Basketball quickly became a nationally favorite sport of the women participants, and "the physical directors soon found its popularity a wonderful boon"<sup>4</sup> to their sagging exercise programs of dumb-bells and rowing machines.

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<sup>1</sup>Naomi Edith Hill, "Senda Berenson," Research Quarterly, XII (October, 1941), 660.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., pp. 661-62.      <sup>3</sup>Frymir, op. cit., p. 5.

<sup>4</sup>J. Parmly Paret, "Basket-Ball for Young Women," Harper's Bazaar, XXXIII (October 20, 1900), 1563.

As the game began to replace weight-apparatus programs, young ladies began to frequent the gymnasiums more willingly and eagerly to participate in the new activity, which physical-culturists of that period praised as the ". . . best all around development for girls. Besides improving their physical strength, it gives them poise, self-confidence, and self-control."<sup>1</sup>

#### Original Rules and Numerous Modifications

Naismith completed the invention of basketball within a period of two weeks from the time Gulick assigned him the task of establishing a new game. Although the sport derived a portion of its name from the peach baskets nailed to the running track above the gymnasium floor, the name did not emerge as basketball until several weeks after its introduction to the class.<sup>2</sup>

The original set of thirteen rules was simple and to the point. Even though they were jotted down in less than an hour, much thought and discussion transpired between the inventor and his colleagues prior to the commitment of the rules to paper.<sup>3</sup> Naismith posted the

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<sup>1</sup>Lavinia Hart, "A Girl's College Life," Cosmopolitan Magazine, XXXI (June, 1901), 194.

<sup>2</sup>Naismith, op. cit., p. 342.

<sup>3</sup>DeWar, op. cit., p. 40.

following set of rules which were utilized in the first game of basketball on that eventful wintry day in 1891:

The ball . . . an ordinary Association football.

1. The ball may be thrown in any direction with one or both hands.
2. The ball may be batted in any direction with one or both hands. (Never with the fist.)
3. A player cannot run with the ball. The player must throw it from the spot on which he catches it, allowance to be made for a man who catches the ball when running at a good speed if he tries to stop.
4. The ball must be held in or between the hands. The arms or body must not be used for holding it.
5. No shouldering, holding, pushing, tripping, or striking in any way the person of an opponent shall be allowed; the first infringement of this rule by any player shall count as a foul, the second shall disqualify him until the next goal is made, or, if there was evidence to injure the person, for the whole game, no substitute allowed.
6. A foul is striking at the ball with the fist, violation of Rule 3, 4, and such as described in Rule 5.
7. If either side makes three consecutive fouls, it shall count a goal for the opponents (consecutive means without opponents in the meantime making a foul).
8. A goal shall be made when the ball is thrown or batted from the grounds into the basket and stays there, providing those defending the goal do not touch or disturb the goal. If the ball rests on the edges and the opponent moves the basket, it shall count as a goal.
9. When the ball goes out of bounds, it shall be thrown into the field of play by the person first touching it. In case of a dispute the umpire shall throw it straight into the field. The thrower-in is allowed five seconds, if he holds it longer, it shall go to the opponent. If any side persists in delaying the game, the umpire shall call a foul on that side.
10. The umpire shall be judge of the men and shall note the fouls and notify the referee when three consecutive fouls have been made. He shall have power to disqualify men according to Rule 5.
11. The referee shall be judge of the ball and shall decide when the ball is in play, in bounds, to

which side it belongs, and shall keep time. He shall decide when a goal has been made, and keep account of the goals with any other duties that are usually performed by a referee.

12. The time shall be two fifteen minute halves, with five minute rest between.
13. The side making the most goals in that time shall be declared the winner. In case of a draw, the game may, by agreement of the captains, be continued until another goal is made.<sup>1</sup>

#### Factors Which Influenced Rule Modifications

In the opinion of some leaders involved at that time, the rules as originally written by Naismith for his men's teams soon proved to possess undesirable characteristics for women. Roughness began to creep into the game, as the young women became more competitively oriented.<sup>2</sup> It was necessary to eliminate the elements of batting or snatching the ball from the hands of another player in an effort to minimize physical contact. It was decided, however, to impose a three second time limit for holding the ball in an effort to keep the game fast.<sup>3</sup>

Excessive bouncing of the ball was also considered a cause for rough play; therefore, the three bounce dribble

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., pp. 40-41.

<sup>2</sup>Frymir, op. cit., p. 8.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 9.

was instituted.<sup>1</sup> By 1928 this rule was changed once again to allow only a single bounce.<sup>2</sup>

Another undesirable element of intercollegiate basketball competition during its primary years was thought to be a result of "the publicity and excitement resulting from competitive athletic events."<sup>3</sup> It was not an uncommon belief that such events caused intense emotional strain on young ladies. Trilling, however, blamed displays of emotional outbreaks and hysteria upon the lack of background and previous experiences in competition for women.<sup>4</sup> The college woman of 1901 was considered much more conscientious toward her studies and recreational pursuits than her male counterpart; thereby prompting the following observation from a southern magazine article: "Basketball is played with the same nervous intensity with which football is played at men's colleges, so that the atmosphere of most colleges for women is pervaded with a spirit of worry and haste and restless activity."<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Senda Berenson, Line Basket Ball; Basket Ball for Women (New York: American Sports Publishing Co., 1901), p. 26.

<sup>2</sup>Frymir, op. cit., p. 9.

<sup>3</sup>Anna deKoven, "The Athletic Woman," Good House-keeping, LV (August, 1912), 151.

<sup>4</sup>Blanche M. Trilling, "Safeguarding Girls Athletics," Women and Athletics, ed. by Women's Division, National Amateur Athletics Federation (New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1930), p. 8.

<sup>5</sup>John M. McBride, Jr., "Womanly Education for Women," Sewanee Review, XV (October, 1907), 480.

The advent of basketball upon the college campus established a precedence for other forms of athletics for the female student.<sup>1</sup> Demands by students and teachers for competitive sports as an acceptable form of exercise for women caused concern among leaders regarding proper training programs for this newfound freedom.<sup>2</sup> In 1901 the physiological effects of training upon young women were summarized in the following terms:

Basket Ball involves a large amount of work with proportionately small elements of conscious fatigue. It consequently makes larger demands on the heart and other organs of respiration than the player realizes, and in this lies its danger. This danger can be successfully avoided, however, by proper attention to training and by proper regulation of the game itself; indeed, we may add that few other games can so easily be regulated to meet this end. When so regulated, it is in every way a good thing for the heart which it trains to strength and endurance. It moreover trains the coordinating nerve centers to a high degree of muscular control, and, above all, it is a most efficient agent in producing those general hygienic effects of muscular exercises which constitute the chief reason for the use of muscular exercise at all.<sup>3</sup>

Questions regarding the possibility of vigorous activity being harmful to the physiological and reproductive potential of young ladies was a matter of debate in the 1920's,<sup>4</sup> and has remained a controversial subject. The

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<sup>1</sup>Ballintine, op. cit., p. 40.      <sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 39.

<sup>3</sup>Theodore Hough, "The Physiological Effects of Basket Ball," Line Basket Ball, ed. by Senda Berenson (New York: American Sports Publishing Co., 1901), p. 19.

<sup>4</sup>Linda C. Roth, "Are Sports Harmful to Women," Forum, LCCCI (May, 1929), 313.

consensus of opinion among medical personnel appeared, however, to regard the strain and exhaustion brought on by excessive periods of training as an evil of basketball and other sports.<sup>1,2</sup>

The psychological limitations of young ladies also received their fair share of scrutiny during the early days of the game. Some leaders placed the blame for women's inability to adjust to mental and emotional situations involved in team sport efforts upon the social customs which kept them chained to long periods of "fine needle work."<sup>3</sup> Social custom dictated that women act frail, and they were considered incapable of such activity; also, it was believed that their primary competition prior to this period in their history was that involved in an effort to snare a mate.<sup>4</sup> Gulick expressed a common male view of woman's ability to play a team sport when he wrote: ". . . it is more difficult to get women to do team-work than it is to get men to do so."<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>J. Anna Norris, "Basket Ball--Girls' Rules," Women and Athletics, ed. by Women's Division, National Amateur Athletic Federation (New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1930), p. 32.

<sup>2</sup>Trilling, op. cit., p. 8.

<sup>3</sup>Roth, op. cit., p. 314.

<sup>4</sup>Luther Gulick, "The Psychological Effects of Basket Ball for Women," Line Basket Ball (New York: American Sports Publishing Co., 1901), p. 12.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., p. 14.

Regarding loyalty among women, Gulick contended that, "there certainly must grow among women a kind of loyalty to each other, of loyalty to groups in which they naturally are formed . . . ." <sup>1</sup> The stated psychological limitations, regardless of the reasons which may have cultivated these beliefs, were only the beginning of many controversies concerning women participants in the field of sports.

The alleged physiological and psychological limitations of the female in sports competition were not the only elements involved in forcing rules modifications for the women's game. In the winter of 1892, the playing costumes of the first ladies to participate in the activity consisted of the long trailing skirt with the tightly bound waist. <sup>2</sup> By the spring of that year when the first collegiate intramural game occurred at Smith College, the trained dresses were outlawed in favor of a gymnasium suit. <sup>3</sup> The playing attire for women during that period was a blouse, long below-the-knee bloomers or skirts, long hose (usually blue or black in color), a tie, and leather shoes. <sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Naismith, op. cit., p. 345.

<sup>3</sup>Crawford, op. cit., p. 433.

<sup>4</sup>George Harvey, "College Girls and Basket-Ball," Harper's Weekly, XLVI (November, 1902), 235.

Frymir described the 1928 costume as consisting of canvas top shoes, long or knee-length stockings, kneepads, and short woolen socks over the long stockings.<sup>1</sup> By this time the full-pleated bloomers, high collared blouses and ties had been abandoned. They were replaced with a simple sport blouse and knicker style bloomers. Younger girls were allowed to wear a straight line trunk, but very short trunks or bloomers were not allowed.<sup>2</sup>

The cumbersome trained-dresses, full-pleated bloomers, and high collars with ties did not allow freedom of movement required in playing the man's style of basketball. Thus, lack of mobility because of the type of costume worn dictated the necessity for a modification of rules for women. As dress codes became more lax, Mabel Lee proposed that the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation should establish guidelines of restraint regarding the type of uniform to be worn, so that the proper educational atmosphere for character education would not be lost.<sup>3</sup>

Male coaches and their tactics of win-at-all cost, along with their apparent disregard for the health and

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<sup>1</sup>Frymir, op. cit., pp. 42-43.

<sup>2</sup>Harvey, op. cit., p. 235.

<sup>3</sup>Mabel Lee, "Sport and Games--An Educational Dynamic Force," Women and Athletics, ed. by Women's Division, National Amateur Athletic Federation (New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1930), p. 16.

welfare of the participants, caused many negative attitudes to be formed by women physical educators toward the sport of competitive basketball during the formative years of the activity.<sup>1</sup> Some women felt that the men who were required to coach female teams as a part of their professional teaching assignment did attempt to learn more about and understand women who participated in competitive sports.<sup>2</sup> Others, however, alleged such actions to be only token efforts toward preparation, and continued the female protest regarding man's role in a newfound woman's world. Some women believed that for every man who conscientiously attempted to regulate game play toward the best interest of the participants, there were many whose only concern was for the perpetuation of their name as an outstanding and successful coach; thus totally disregarding "periodic physiological conditions that make strenuous exercise at the time a possible grave risk."<sup>3</sup>

This type of argument among women in educational circles has continued throughout the stormy existence of the female in sports competition. By 1960, however, the Amateur Athletic Union retaliated to the men versus women

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<sup>1</sup>Burrell, op. cit., p. 17.

<sup>2</sup>Trilling, op. cit., pp. 9-10.

<sup>3</sup>John M. Cooper, "A Magna Charta for the Girl and Woman in Athletics," Women and Athletics (New York: American Sports Publishing Co., 1930), p. 22.

coaching conflict with the following statement:

#### COACHING--MEN versus WOMEN

The "versus" in the above heading has been supplied by the educational institutions which, while in an excellent position to provide both good facilities and competent women coaches in the various competitive sports have, with a few minor exceptions, not done so, thus leaving the field completely open to men of varying degrees of ability willing to assist women in their athletic endeavors. The Amateur Athletic Union of the United States not only welcomes but would prefer to use women coaches. Unfortunately . . . only a mere handful of women physical educators across the country have come forward to coach girl athletes.<sup>1</sup>

This particular void in female leadership at the grass-roots level has existed in basketball and other women's sports up to and including 1970. The male coach for girls' and women's teams has been retained at all levels of competition including age group, high school, college, and independent groups.<sup>2</sup>

Men who pioneered in coaching women's basketball received the distinction of being the persons primarily responsible for the exploitation of star players, accentuation of victories, and the establishment of an intensive schedule of games.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>A.A.U. Study of Effect of Athletic Competition on Girls and Women, ed. by Rozanne Anderson (New York: Amateur Athletic Union, 1960), p. 19.

<sup>2</sup>Nora Page Hall, "The Swing of the Pendulum," Official Basketball Guide for Women and Girls--1941-42, ed. by Josephine Fiske (New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1941), p. 26.

<sup>3</sup>Roth, op. cit., p. 314.

By the latter years of the 1920's high school state championships in girls' basketball, and the publicity which accompanied them, were being condemned. Educators termed the two or three games per day schedule as too severe for young ladies.<sup>1</sup> Resentment was also generated among women physical educators regarding male coaches using women's contests as "curtain raisers" for men's games.<sup>2</sup> After years of controversies regarding the exploitation subject, the Amateur Athletic Union replied to such charges in the following manner:

One of the oft-heard claims is that male coaches are "exploiting" women athletes . . . . Male coaches across the country are married men with families who not only take time away from home in order to teach other people's children the fundamentals of sport, but often dip into their own pockets to supply necessary athletic equipment and transportation to centers where competitions are held. The athlete receives all the plaudits . . . . One wonders who is exploiting whom!<sup>3</sup>

#### Methods Utilized in Rule Modification

The first game of basketball was played by two teams of nine men each. This, however, was not a predetermined or strategy-inspired number but a simple matter of arithmetic--the young mentor's class consisted of eighteen

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<sup>1</sup>Cooper, op. cit., p. 22.

<sup>2</sup>Hall, op. cit., p. 26.

<sup>3</sup>A.A.U. Study of Effects of Athletic Competition for Women, p. 1.

students.<sup>1</sup> Naismith indicated that he visioned the new activity to be a mass-participation game when in 1894 he stated: "As many as fifty on a side have been accommodated."<sup>2</sup> Although the rules regarding the number of players were modified to satisfy each individual situation, Naismith and Gulick decided in 1893 that for official games the five or nine player team should be used.<sup>3</sup>

During the early days of basketball the women attempted to use the same number of players and court division as the men, but after a short time realized their conditioning programs were not adequate to allow them to participate in the full court five-player game. Originally, the first major modification for women was a division of the playing court into three equal parts with three players from each team restricted to their particular court area.<sup>4</sup> To those who organized and taught the game, this arrangement in court and number of players was apparently believed sufficient to meet appropriate physical stamina levels of girls and women of the early decades of the twentieth century.

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<sup>1</sup>Weyand, op. cit., p. 6.

<sup>2</sup>Naismith and Gulick, op. cit., p. 5.

<sup>3</sup>Weyand, op. cit., p. 11.

<sup>4</sup>Meissner and Meyers, op. cit., p. 1.

In April, 1913, Stewart conducted a critical study of rules and conditions of women's basketball and concluded the following:

The number of square feet per player should be the deciding factor. Smith College gymnasium with 6000 square feet makes each player of a team of nine cover 667 square feet, while in the average school gymnasium of 2500 square feet each player in a team of five covers 500 square feet. It would, therefore, seem logical to have the following rule for floor divisions: Floors 2500 square feet and under, five players and no lines. Floors 2500-3000 square feet, one line and six players, centers unrestricted. Floors 3000-6000 square feet, two lines and six to nine players.<sup>1</sup>

By 1928 the three-court game was considered appropriate if the playing space was seventy feet or more in length, and the two-division court was sufficient if the area was smaller.<sup>2</sup>

#### Reasons for Rules Standardization

The presumed physiological and emotional disposition of women during the early days of basketball were instrumental factors in the creation of numerous sets of modified rules which rapidly appeared and thereby presented problems for those who conducted the new activity. Each college director of physical education began to establish modified rules for his own particular institution and

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<sup>1</sup>Harry E. Stewart, "A Critical Study of the Rules and Present Day Conditions of Basket Ball for Women," American Physical Education Review, XIX (March, 1914), 245-46.

<sup>2</sup>Frymir, op. cit., p. 37.

thereby created an impossible situation from the standpoint of interschool competition.<sup>1</sup>

Dr. Dudley Sargent of the Boston Normal School, and other instructors of normal schools, printed a modification of the game, and as each school's graduates began their teaching careers, each of those versions were perpetuated. By 1899 multiple sets of rules presented such an impasse toward inter-school competition among women's colleges that a committee was appointed at the Conference of Physical Training in June, 1899, to consolidate the many variations into one modified code for women.<sup>2</sup> Members of the committee were: Chairman, Dr. Alice Foster, Oberlin College; Ethel Perrin, Boston Normal School of Gymnastics; Elizabeth Wright, Radcliffe College; and Senda Berenson, Smith College.<sup>3,4</sup>

The result of that committee's influence did not become evident, however, until March of 1921 when the National Athletic Conference for American College Women held a meeting at Indiana University at Bloomington.<sup>5</sup> The

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<sup>1</sup>Paret, op. cit., pp. 1564-65.

<sup>2</sup>Berenson, op. cit., pp. 5-6.

<sup>3</sup>Miller and Horky, op. cit., p. 7.

<sup>4</sup>Berenson, op. cit., p. 6.

<sup>5</sup>Margaret J. Swift, "Report of the National Athletic Conference of American College Women," American Physical Education Review, XXVI (June, 1921), 305.

purpose of the conference was to upgrade and promote an acceptable and unified athletic program on college campuses across the United States by establishing qualifications for membership and a printed constitution.

An interesting diversion from the usual order of business was a debate between Ohio State University and Oberlin College regarding the question of whether the Athletic Conference for American College Women would abide by the Spalding's Official Rules for Women or a modified boys' rules. Ohio State defended the use of the Spalding Rules and Oberlin was in favor of a modified boys' game. A vote taken at the termination of the debate revealed that forty-two colleges out of the fifty-four represented played by the Spalding's Women's Rules.<sup>1</sup> Consequently, the Spalding Rules became the official rules governing women's basketball.

#### The Great Confrontation

As the squabble over the advantages and disadvantages of women's interschool basketball continued throughout the decade of the 1920's, a new philosophy was slowly emerging which would lead to the establishment of new guidelines for competition that would endure for a quarter of a century.<sup>2</sup> College women physical educators were

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 306.

<sup>2</sup>Neal, Basketball Techniques, p. 13.

vitaly concerned with developing programs that were centered around events designed for the good of the masses. The trend was toward the promotion of a fine inclusive program for all girls, rather than the development of programs to accommodate future Olympians.<sup>1</sup>

In 1923 the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation crystalized as a private agency to establish standards and policies for the purpose of providing "wide opportunities for wholesome play under trained women leaders."<sup>2</sup> The play day concept was firmly entrenched in the college woman's sports program by the 1930's, and the influence of its standard bearers<sup>3,4,5</sup> would survive World War II and through most of the 1950 decade before the pendulum would commence its swing in the opposite direction.<sup>6</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Ethel Perrin, "More Competitive Athletics for Girls--But of the Right Kind," American Physical Education Review, XXXIV (October, 1929), 476.

<sup>2</sup>Laurentine B. Collins, "Standards in Athletics for Women," Research Quarterly, VIII (May, 1937), 24.

<sup>3</sup>Mabel Lee, "The Case For and Against Intercollegiate Athletics for Women and the Situation as It Stands Today," American Physical Education Review, XXIX (January, 1924), 19.

<sup>4</sup>Perrin, op. cit., pp. 473-74.

<sup>5</sup>Rosalind Cassidy, "A Successful College Play Day," American Physical Education Review, XXXIII (February, 1928), 124.

<sup>6</sup>Miller and Horkey, op. cit., p. 12.

The fluid state of the women's competitive sport programs in the United States during World War II prompted Montgomery to compare the principles and policies for women derived from a study she had conducted with those professed at that time by the National Section on Women's Athletics.<sup>1</sup> Her study in 1942 indicated a move away from the over-saturation of the play day concept toward a more interscholastic type basis, which she referred to as sports days. State and National tournaments, however, still did not receive approval among women leaders.<sup>2</sup>

By 1947 interschool basketball began gaining limited acceptance. Certain stipulations accompanied this new acceptance: good physical and mental health; a limited schedule; a teacher of high character to supervise; and sound controls over the game. Leavitt expressed the new attitude toward competition when she stated: "It is not the game that is wrong, but the way in which it has been conducted."<sup>3</sup> Landrum endorsed the move toward varsity competition as an outgrowth of a broad intramural

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<sup>1</sup>Katherine W. Montgomery, "Sports Day--A Forward Look," Service Bulletin, II, Number 5 (February, 1942), 73.

<sup>2</sup>Marie D. Hartwig, ed., Official Basketball and Rating Guide for Women and Girls (New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., Publishers, 1948), p. 58.

<sup>3</sup>Norma Leavitt, "Pro's and Con's of Interscholastic Basketball for High School Girls," Sports Bulletin, IV, Number 5 (March, 1947), 12.

experience. She believed the highly skilled should be afforded an opportunity to develop their talents.<sup>1</sup>

Even as late as 1950 few, if any, professionally trained leaders "advocated an interscholastic program comparable to the boys in purpose, conduct, or nature."<sup>2</sup> At this stage of development the girl's and women's competitive sports programs in the United States were still experiencing a period of generalization due to extreme philosophies which had not yet begun to synthesize toward a more common position regarding competition.<sup>3</sup>

#### Summary

Thirteen hastily typed rules by the secretary of James A. Naismith, the inventor of basketball, in December of 1891 launched the new sport. Unknowingly, the Young Men's Christian Association physical education teacher had presented to the world an activity that would become overwhelmingly popular to both male and female of all age levels.

Basketball for women was quickly lauded as a team sport which met the needs of the young women and girls. As

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<sup>1</sup>Marylois B. Landrum, "Why Not Varsity and Intramurals," Sports Bulletin, IV, Number 6 (April, 1947), 10.

<sup>2</sup>William L. Hughes, "The Place of Athletics in the School Physical Education Program," Journal of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, XXI (December, 1950), 23.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 27.

the game began to replace free exercise and dumbbell programs, young ladies flocked to the gymnasiums willingly and eagerly to participate in the new activity.

The rules as originally written by Naismith for his men's teams soon proved to possess undesirable elements of roughness unbecoming to young ladies. Other evils were believed to have infiltrated into the game for women in the forms of: emotional strain, exploitation of players by men coaches, excessive training and game schedules, and publicity for star performers. Consequently, women leaders began organizing to establish policies and standards in the form of operating codes, and to modify the game to meet acceptable physiological and psychological needs of young women.

Originally, the first major modification for women was a division of the playing court into three equal parts with three players from each team restricted to their particular court area. By 1928 the three-court game was considered appropriate if the playing space was seventy feet or more in length, and the two-division court was sufficient if the area was smaller.

Each college director of physical education began to establish modified rules for his own particular institution and thereby created an impossible situation from the standpoint of interschool competition. By 1899 multiple sets of rules presented such an impasse toward interschool

competition among women's colleges that a committee was appointed to consolidate the many variations into one modified code for women.

In 1923 the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation was formed to establish standards and policies in women's sports. The play day, and eventually the sports day, became popular as physical and social outlets for women from the 1920's until after World War II. By 1947 inter-school basketball was gaining some acceptance, but even as late as 1950 few professionally trained women advocated a competitive program patterned after the men's game.

## CHAPTER V

### THE STRUCTURAL COMPOSITION OF SELECTED ATHLETIC ORGANIZATIONS IN WOMEN'S BASKETBALL

Athletic organizations are frequently so complex with structural hierarchies that an understanding of their function in respect to a particular sport often becomes an arduous task. A brief review of the operational structures of the selected athletic organizations was presented in this study to clarify the overlapping and dependencies among the various groups. Athletic organizations considered were: United States Olympic Committee for Women's Basketball, Women's National Basketball Committee, National Institute on Girls Sports, AAU-DGWS Joint Rules Committee, Olympic Development Camps, and National Girls Basketball League. A critical analysis regarding the involvement of the organizations will be presented in Chapter VI of the study.

#### The United States Olympic Committee for Women's Basketball

The revival of the Olympic Games occurred in Athens, Greece, on April 6, 1896, under the direction of a French nobleman, Baron Pierre de Coubertin.<sup>1</sup> The United States

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<sup>1</sup>C. Robert Paul and Jack Orr, The Olympic Games (New York: The Lion Press, 1968), p. 27.

initially displayed little interest in the international event and was represented by only a handful of collegians from eastern institutions and athletic clubs.<sup>1</sup>

Commencing with the revision of the Games in 1896 until his death in 1914, James E. Sullivan, with the approval of the International Olympic Committee (IOC), worked tirelessly to arouse interest and stimulate participation in the Olympic program in the United States.<sup>2</sup> Under Sullivan's direction the organization became the American Olympic Committee (AOC), and the appointive offices of president, vice-president, and treasurer were established and maintained as the general operational structure until 1921.<sup>3</sup> The American Olympic Committee operated without the guidance of a constitution, by-laws, or rules of procedure until that time.<sup>4</sup>

Beginning in 1921, the name of the organization changed three times in as many decades. In that year the name was changed to the American Olympic Association; in 1940, to the United States of America Sports Federation:

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., pp. 27-29.

<sup>2</sup>United States of America Sports Federation, Constitution, By-Laws and General Rules (New York: Olympic House, 1941), p. 2.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 3.

<sup>4</sup>United States Olympic Association, Constitution, By-Laws and General Rules (New York: Olympic House, 1945), p. 3.

and in 1945, to the United States Olympic Association (USOA).<sup>1</sup> The Eighty-first Congress of the United States passed an Act which incorporated the organization on September 21, 1950.<sup>2</sup>

The incorporation of the Association did not, however, mark the end to the change-of-name phase the organization experienced as it became more sophisticated in its operation. In 1961, at the Quadrennial Meeting in Washington, D. C., a constitutional revision once again changed the name to the current, official title of the United States Olympic Committee (USOC).<sup>3</sup>

Within the framework of the USOC each sport is administered by a Games (Sport) Committee.<sup>4</sup> The Games Committee is composed of representatives recommended by member organizations, and elected to serve a four year term by the Board of Directors of the USOC.<sup>5</sup> Prerequisites for membership to a Games Committee include the following: United States citizenship; valuable contributions to the welfare

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<sup>1</sup>United States Olympic Association, Constitution, By-Laws and General Rules (New York: Olympic House, 1946), p. 2.

<sup>2</sup>United States Olympic Association, Constitution, By-Laws and General Rules (New York: Olympic House, 1950), p. 2.

<sup>3</sup>United States Olympic Committee, Constitution, By-Laws and General Rules (New York: Olympic House, 1961), p. 2.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 15.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., p. 7.

of amateur sports; thorough knowledge of the sport of a particular committee; and extensive experience in the organization and administration of a particular sport.<sup>1</sup> International basketball competition for women in the United States is governed by a Games Committee.<sup>2</sup>

### Purpose

Among the numerous purposes of the USOC Women's Basketball (USOCWB) Games Committee, a primary function is to exercise exclusive jurisdiction over all matters pertaining to the participation of United States Teams in the Pan-American and Olympic Games as indicated by the rules and regulations of the IOC.<sup>3</sup> A second purpose of the USOCWB involves the acquisition and selection of team personnel to represent the United States in the Pan-American and Olympic Games. In addition, the Committee assumes the responsibilities for stimulating interest in and the development of programs for international competition in the United States in the area of women's basketball. Such programs are intended to encourage and promote the "physical, moral, and cultural education of American youth."<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 10.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 17.

<sup>3</sup>United States Olympic Committee, Constitution, By-Laws and General Rules (New York: Olympic House, 1953), p. 3.

<sup>4</sup>United States Olympic Committee, Constitution, By-Laws and General Rules (New York: Olympic House, 1957), p. 3.

### Membership

The USOCWB is composed of thirteen representatives from such parent organizations as: Amateur Athletic Union; National Collegiate Athletic Association; National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics; National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations; National Junior College Athletic Association; Armed Forces of the United States; American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation; and numerous other organizations active in the sport.<sup>1</sup> Membership to the Games Committee is by appointment of the Board of Directors of the USOC, and by acceptance of the appointment the committee member indicates a willingness to devote the time and effort necessary for effective operation of Committee responsibilities.<sup>2</sup>

### Meetings

At the initial meeting of the USOCWB at the beginning of each quadrennial period the Committee decides by a majority vote upon the procedures to be followed, length of time of meetings, procedures for notice of meetings to be held, and methods for obtaining votes from members who might be absent at future meetings.

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<sup>1</sup>United States Olympic Committee, 1967 United States Pan-American Team Handbook (New York: Spencer Co., 1967), p. 31.

<sup>2</sup>United States Olympic Committee, Constitution, By-Laws and General Rules (1961), p. 16.

A quorum, eight of the thirteen persons, of the entire Committee is required for the transaction of all business. If less than the total membership is in attendance at a meeting, and if agreement cannot be reached by a majority of the entire Committee, a telegraphic or mail vote must be obtained.<sup>1</sup> More frequently, however, such voting deadlocks are broken by an administrative representative at the executive level who attends important meetings for the specific purpose of polling absentee members by telephone in order to decide a point in question among committee members.<sup>2</sup>

The Committee may invite interested observers to attend their meetings; or, a member who cannot attend may send an observer to the meeting. Observers, however, do not have voice or vote regarding committee business.<sup>3</sup>

#### Powers and Duties

The USOCWB has the authority and responsibility to recommend to the Board of Directors of the USOC the names of persons to serve as coach, assistant coach and manager

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<sup>1</sup>United States Olympic Committee, Constitution, By-Laws and General Rules (New York: Olympic House, 1963), p. 16.

<sup>2</sup>United States Olympic Committee for Women's Basketball Minutes, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, April, 1971.

<sup>3</sup>United States Olympic Committee, Constitution, By-Laws and General Rules (New York: Olympic House, 1967), p. 16.

for the United States Teams to the Pan-American and Olympic Games. The Committee decides upon the procedure for selecting the required personnel for international competitions.

Within twelve months after the first meeting of a quadrennial period, the USOCWB members are required to present a written proposal which establishes the following: the number of athletes and team officials to be nominated to represent the United States at the Games; procedures to be followed in the preparation and conditioning of the athletes for competition; a program of tryouts and the procedure for team selection; special equipment or supplies required for preparation of the team; services of physicians or trainers; and any other relevant considerations related to team preparation for international competition.<sup>1</sup>

The USOCWB assumes the responsibility for appropriate contractual arrangements for all phases of tryouts from preliminary to the final stages of selection of team personnel. The latter stage of tryout arrangements must be approved by the USOC Games Planning Committee. Specifically, six months prior to the final tryout for team selection, the USOCWB must submit to the Games Planning Committee a list of names of candidates eligible for consideration. A maximum of five candidates may be submitted for each authorized team position.

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 17.

Other duties of the Committee are: to submit to the Board of Directors long-range development plans for United States Teams for international competition; actively participate in fund raising campaigns to aid in financing the sport of women's basketball; and to cooperate with Olympic House regarding public relations matters. All USOCWB members are pledged to cooperate with the Board of Directors and the Executive Director of the USOC.<sup>1</sup>

### Finance

Funds are collected from a variety of sources to aid in defraying expenses incurred by the USOC. Specifically, the work of the Committee is financed from the following sources: dues of the 222 member organizations; competitions related to tryouts for the Pan-American and Olympic Games; special meets specifically for the purpose of procuring money for the USOC movement; special fund raising drives sponsored by member organizations and their constituents; and special fees received from radio and television broadcasts of final tryout events of Olympic Team candidates. The United States Government, unlike many other countries, does not give financial aid to the National Olympic Committee and the organization does not solicit such assistance.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>United States Olympic Committee, Constitution, By-Laws and General Rules (New York: Olympic House, 1969), p. 17.

<sup>2</sup>United States Olympic Committee, Constitution, By-Laws and General Rules (1967), pp. 22-23.

The responsibility for the perpetuation of the massive fund raising program is assumed by the United States Olympic Fund Raising Committee who operate under the auspices of three primary groups, and whose members all serve in a voluntary capacity. The three groups are: USOC Fund Raising Board of Directors; National Divisions; and Area Committees.<sup>1</sup>

The Board of Directors establishes policies and procedures exercised in fund raising programs throughout the country. It is the direct responsibility of that committee to supervise and approve all fund raising ventures under the jurisdiction of the USOC.<sup>2</sup>

The National Divisions undertake fund raising responsibilities in specific areas of interest. Activities of that group are often confined to the particular sport level.<sup>3</sup>

Thirty-two areas, each supervised by a chairman, complete the USOC fund raising campaign strategies. This grass-roots level of operation swells the organization's coffers through their year-round diligence to duty.<sup>4</sup>

Monies collected by the USOC are used to meet the necessary expenditures for the United States Teams to the Pan-American and Summer and Winter Olympic Games.

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 18.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 12.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 17.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., pp. 8-11.

Specifically, monies are allocated for the following budget categories: transportation, including round-trip domestic fares, for all members of the official delegation (athletes, administrative officials, coaches and managers) to and from the Games; housing and food for all personnel at the Games site; and playing uniforms and equipment for all participants. In addition to the foregoing expenditures, monies are reserved from each annual budget for the purpose of long-range development programs for future Olympians.<sup>1</sup>

The Women's National Basketball  
Committee

The Amateur Athletic Union, of which the Women's National Basketball Committee (WNBC) is a part, was organized as a union of clubs in 1888. By 1890 the organization, under the direction of A. G. Mills, had changed its structural concept from an association of clubs to a union of associations. The key element of the new arrangement was that each district would maintain local rule over sports activities within their jurisdiction. Although originally the entire country was divided into five sections, all under one constitution, there are currently fifty-eight district associations that assume the responsibilities for

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<sup>1</sup>United States Olympic Committee, Quadrennial Directory (New York: Olympic House, 1969-73), p. 23.

policing all aspects of the amateur sports programs within their respective areas.<sup>1</sup>

Amateur basketball has been under the direct supervision and control of the AAU since its inclusion in the organization in 1895.<sup>2</sup> Basketball for women, however, was destined to remain in the background of women's sports for approximately three decades beyond the inclusion of the sport in the AAU framework of control and supervision. Traditionally, once a sport is included as a class of competition under AAU jurisdiction, a national championship soon follows.<sup>3</sup> The first Women's National AAU Basketball Championship was held in 1926 at Pasadena, California.<sup>4</sup>

Basketball for women was not the pioneer sport in amateur competition for the female participant in the AAU program. Women were registered for competitive swimming events in 1914 and claimed the distinction of being the first distaff group to carry the AAU affiliation.<sup>5</sup> In September of 1922 a team of women swimmers traveled to Bermuda for the purpose of presenting an aquatics program

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<sup>1</sup>Amateur Athletic Union, Official Handbook of the Amateur Athletic Union of the United States (New York: AAU House, 1965), p. 3.

<sup>2</sup>Korsgaard, op. cit., p. 357.

<sup>3</sup>Amateur Athletic Union Minutes, 1923, p. 77.

<sup>4</sup>Amateur Athletic Union Minutes, 1926, p. 19.

<sup>5</sup>Amateur Athletic Union Minutes, 1914, pp. 30-31.

at the opening of a resort hotel. Although the event did not fall within the realms of competitive contests, it was significant in that it set a precedent regarding foreign exposure for United States women's sports groups. Immediately afterward the AAU announced its position as favoring international competition for the American woman.<sup>1</sup>

### Purpose

The WNBC's primary responsibilities are to improve and promote, at all skill levels, the program of women's competitive basketball. It is stated by that governing body that wholesome sports endeavors aid the individual both physically and mentally. Subject to the approval of the Board of Directors of the AAU, the Committee is responsible for awarding contracts for and assuming jurisdiction over the Women's National AAU Championship.<sup>2</sup>

### Membership

Membership in the WNBC is by appointment from the President of the AAU. Prerequisites for committee membership require the individual to be interested in women's basketball and to be active in its conduct. The chairman of the Women's National Basketball Committee is also

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., pp. 200-201.

<sup>2</sup>Amateur Athletic Union, Official Handbook of the Amateur Athletic Union of the United States, p. 32.

appointed by the president to serve for a minimum of two and a maximum of four years.<sup>1</sup>

The general rules of the AAU stipulate that for all sports committees in which women compete there shall be women members in addition to any men appointed. All clubs or organizations which enter competitions sanctioned by the AAU must have women officers or officials of that club or organization present to care for the needs of the female contestants.<sup>2</sup>

#### Meetings

The annual meeting of the WNBC is held on the first weekend in December of each year in conjunction with the annual AAU Convention. Special meetings may be called by the committee chairman at any time deemed necessary throughout the year by notification ten days prior to the meeting date.<sup>3</sup>

#### Powers and Duties

The WNBC has the responsibility to regulate and conduct championship tournaments in women's basketball at the national level. The committee also accepts bids for the national championships and makes recommendations for contracts for this event to the AAU Board of Directors.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 31.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., pp. 81-82.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., pp. 25-26.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 38.

The committee is empowered with the responsibility, subject to the Board of Directors, to recommend action regarding cases involving eligibility, conduct, and amateur status for the sport. The WNBC selects also qualified officials for national championships who are familiar with AAU rules and regulations.<sup>1</sup>

### Finance

Unlike the USOC, which is primarily dependent upon donations from various sources to meet their financial obligations, the AAU relies upon various sources for revenues. Originally, the Union relied on dues paid by various clubs and the meager returns from the first sports championship events rather than assuming the responsibility of obtaining facilities, allowing for publicity and advance ticket sales. The host group was responsible for such auxiliary details and the particular AAU sports committee was responsible for the actual mechanics of the tournament-- entries, draws, brackets and officials. The AAU placed the stipulation on the award of the bid that the Union would not be responsible for any debts incurred in the process of the tournament, and any profit beyond operational expenses would be turned over to the AAU.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., pp. 20-38, passim.

<sup>2</sup>Amateur Athletic Union Minutes, 1892, pp. 3-15, passim.

As the organization expanded its operations, new ways of finance were sought. Tournament registrations and sanctions provided some additional revenues, and eventually the concept of life membership in the AAU.<sup>1</sup>

In more recent times radio and television broadcast rights have become a lucrative means of aiding the Union in remaining self-sustaining. Although the organization does not solicit funds to finance its own operations, it does aid in the collection of funds for the USOC.<sup>2</sup>

Most sports committees of the AAU aid in financing their own operations by requiring a set guarantee from the hosts of the National Championships.<sup>3</sup> This money is usually utilized in sending the United States Women's Basketball Team on an international tour of games, or to the World Tournament.

#### The National Institutes on Girls Sports

In November, 1963, at the University of Oklahoma, a seed was planted as a joint venture by the United States Olympic Development Committee and the Division for Girls and Women's Sports of the American Association for Health,

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<sup>1</sup>Amateur Athletic Union Minutes, 1951, p. 7.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 5.

<sup>3</sup>Womens National Basketball Committee, Sahara Hotel, Las Vegas, Nevada, December, 1968.

Physical Education and Recreation.<sup>1</sup> The harvest was an abundant experience that has been lauded by some as the most positive action taken in this country to further basketball competition for the girl who excels in the sport.<sup>2</sup> The seed was the first National Institute on Girls Sports-- a concentrated effort toward teaching teachers how to become more proficient in the teaching of specific sports.<sup>3</sup>

The general concern of the steering committee was to provide master teachers in each sport area presented at each Institute. Participants from every state were extended invitations to attend the Institute for a week of concentrated study with the specialists, and upon their return to their home state they were obligated to hold workshops and share their learning experiences with their fellow teachers.<sup>4</sup> Meetings were held annually from 1963 to 1969.<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Sara Staff Jernigan, Olympic Development Committee Report, Quadrennial Review of Activities (New York: Olympic House, 1969), p. 69.

<sup>2</sup>Miller and Horkey, op. cit., p. 20.

<sup>3</sup>Sara Staff Jernigan, closing speech, First National Institute on Girls Sports, University of Oklahoma, November, 1963.

<sup>4</sup>Sara Staff Jernigan, Proceedings: Second National Institute on Girls Sports, American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1966), p. 5.

<sup>5</sup>Jernigan, Quadrennial Review of Activities, p. 69.

### Purpose

Other than the improvement of teaching competencies of the participants, the Institutes proposed to improve interpretations and lines of communication regarding women in sports. It was believed to be important that the American public understand woman's changing role in competition.<sup>1</sup>

### Membership

Inclusion as a participant at an Institute was by invitation based upon recommendation. Professional organizations within each state were contacted for the submission of names of prospective participants. The candidate with the highest number of recommendations received the invitation and, if she declined, the person with the next highest total was invited.<sup>2</sup>

### Finance

The National Institute of Girls Sports was financed by a thirty thousand dollar gift from the Doris Duke Foundation. It was estimated that through the results of one

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<sup>1</sup>Sara Staff Jernigan, "The Role of Women in Sports Development," Olympic Development (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1966), pp. 14-15.

<sup>2</sup>Jernigan, Proceedings: Second National Institute on Girls Sports, p. 5.

Institute a minimum of 25,350,000 girls had been exposed to a sports workshop.<sup>1</sup>

Several interesting items should be noted regarding the indifference toward female leadership in competitive activities among the USOC, AAU and the National Institute on Girls Sports--a joint venture of the USOC and the Division for Girls and Women's Sports (DGWS). In 1922, the AAU was lamenting the fact that women physical educators in the United States would not assume the leadership necessary for the control and supervision of girls competitive sports; hence, the AAU, whose executive boards were composed of all-male members, accepted the responsibility.<sup>2</sup>

In 1961 the Women's Board of the United States Olympic Development Committee was formed, and in 1962 officials of the USOC and DGWS of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation (AAHPER) met to formulate guidelines for the first National Institute on Girls Sports.<sup>3</sup> Forty years had elapsed from the time the men officials of the AAU had pointed out the need for

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<sup>1</sup>Sara Staff Jernigan, Olympic Development Committee Report, Quadrennial Review of Activities (New York: Olympic House, 1965), p. 38.

<sup>2</sup>Amateur Athletic Union Minutes, 1922, p. 26.

<sup>3</sup>American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, Proceedings: First National Institute on Girls Sports (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1966), p. 5.

involvement by women leaders before women physical educators openly supported, on a nationwide level, the need for competitive sports programs for the girl who excelled.

#### The AAU-DGWS Joint Rules Committee

The AAU-DGWS Joint Rules Committee became a reality in January, 1968, ten years after the initial endeavors of the basketball committees of the two groups first met to lay a foundation for the standardization of rules for the sport.<sup>1</sup> The need for such a committee was apparent since there were at least five sets of women's basketball rules in use at the time of the 1968 merger. A tentative joint rules committee was established in February, 1964, when representatives of AAU and DGWS met and finally agreed to be agreeable.<sup>2</sup>

#### Purpose

Although both organizations have published their respective basketball rules guides since 1930, both the AAU and DGWS felt the need for a unified effort to devise the best possible rules for girls and women's advanced

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<sup>1</sup>"Comments on Rule Changes," Basketball Guide--1964-65, ed. by Barbara L. Drinkwater (Washington, D. C.: American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, 1964), p. 117.

<sup>2</sup>Letter from Barbara Drinkwater, DGWS Representative to the National AAU Basketball Committee, to Irma Schalk, DGWS Liaison Chairman, February 26, 1964.

competition. Some women felt that DGWS had blindly embraced rules proposed by the AAU, or that each group lobbied to have their rules accepted by giving in on other points.<sup>1</sup> Scott emphasized that the concern of both organizations was not appeasement of trivial matters, but to establish a better game situation for players and officials.<sup>2</sup>

### Membership

Membership to the Joint Rules Committee is by appointment from each parent organization. There are twelve members on the committee who serve for a minimum of two years. Each group has an equal number of representatives to the Joint Rules Committee. Committee chairmanship is established on a yearly rotational basis--each organization assuming the responsibility on alternate years.<sup>3</sup>

### Meetings

Meetings consist of one each year, which usually occurs during the first week in February. Meeting place

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<sup>1</sup>"Comments on Rule Changes," Basketball Guide--1964-65, p. 117.

<sup>2</sup>Phebe M. Scott, "Experimentation Subcommittee: National DGWS Basketball Committee," Basketball Guide--1963-64 (Washington, D. C.: American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, 1963), p. 59.

<sup>3</sup>Elinor Crawford, paper, "The Division for Girls and Women's Sports and Allied Sports Organizations," March 15, 1965.

varies in accordance to the wishes of the chairman and committee members.<sup>1</sup>

### Powers and Obligations

Prior to the formation of a Joint Rules Committee, major or minor rule changes for AAU Basketball Guides required the approval of the Women's National AAU Committee and subsequent approval of the parent organization before they could be included for use in game play.<sup>2</sup> DGWS, however, in accordance with their operating code, is committed to an experimentation period before accepting or rejecting any major rule change.<sup>3</sup> Since the merger of the two rules governing bodies into one Joint Committee, the AAU has cooperated with DGWS in a period of experimentation prior to any major rule change. The Joint Rules Committee may make minor rules changes which clarify or expedite the game without a period of experimentation.<sup>4</sup>

### Finance

Although the AAU Representatives serve on the Joint Rules Committee without financial support from the parent

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<sup>1</sup>Fran Becker Koenig, Representatives Report on DGWS-AAU Joint Rules Meeting, Chicago, Illinois, February 23, 1964, p. 2.

<sup>2</sup>Amateur Athletic Union Rules Committee Minutes, Gallup, New Mexico, April 9, 1965.

<sup>3</sup>Scott, op. cit., p. 57.

<sup>4</sup>Elinor Crawford, Liaison Chairman's Report to the Division for Girls and Women's Sports, 1964, p. 1.

organization, the DGWS provides their personnel with traveling expenses.<sup>1</sup>

### The Olympic Development Camp

The idea for an Olympic development program for women's basketball was first proposed by Alberta Cox (coach of the Raytown Pipperettes AAU Basketball Team) during the USOCWB meeting in Washington, D. C. on November 29, 1965.<sup>2</sup> The committee was receptive to the concept of a long term development program and the chairman, Laurine Mickelsen, appointed Miss Cox to head a subcommittee of three to study the feasibility of such a plan. Other subcommittee members were John Head (coach of the National AAU Champions--Nashville Business College) and Mildred Barnes (officiating service representative from the University of Iowa).<sup>3</sup>

On September 10, 1966, in Kansas City, Missouri the USOCWB met to approve the final plans (as presented by Miss Cox) and to select participants for the first training program geared toward future Olympic and Pan-American Games competitions.<sup>4</sup> Although the plans were supposedly the

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<sup>1</sup>Nell C. Jackson, Liaison Report to Division for Girls' and Women's Sports, 1966, p. 5.

<sup>2</sup>United States Olympic Committee Women's Basketball Minutes, Washington, D. C., November 29, 1965, p. 1.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 2.

<sup>4</sup>United States Olympic Committee Women's Basketball Minutes, Kansas City, Missouri, September 10, 1966, p. 1.

recommendations of the subcommittee for long range development, John Head, a member of that subcommittee, was concerned because he had not received any information prior to the Kansas City meeting regarding the proposed development program. Obviously, there had not been a subcommittee meeting to his knowledge. In a scathing letter to the secretary of the USOCWB, Margaret Downing, he stated:

Margaret, you will recall the meeting in Kansas City where everything was cut and dried before I got there--after I had paid eighty something dollars for a round-trip plane ticket to sit there and listen for one and one-half hours before returning to Nashville.<sup>1</sup>

John Head apparently did not believe in and, therefore, did not support the long range development camp program presented by the subcommittee.

#### Purpose

Since United States Women's Basketball Teams had begun to show a decline in international prowess, the training camp concept was deemed valuable toward returning this country to a position of supremacy in the distaff arena of the sport. The program consisted of an extensive six year plan for summer development camps which would be provided for the most highly skilled female basketball players in the United States.

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<sup>1</sup>John Head, personal letter, June 23, 1967.

The first of these camps was held at Blue Eye, Missouri from March 20 through April 8, 1967, just prior to the World Tournament in Prague, Czechoslovakia.<sup>1</sup> Other camps were to be held each subsequent summer and their locality rotated to various sites across the United States. The camp sites were: Sulphur, Oklahoma, 1968; Arkadelphia, Arkansas, 1969; Wooster, Ohio, 1970; and Plainview, Texas, 1971.<sup>2</sup>

### Membership

The USOCWB selected forty-five candidates, who were suggested by other committee members and top coaches of women's basketball programs throughout the United States, for the first training program. It was decided that five invitations would be held in reserve for possible unknown players who might develop during the regular season of play. Fourteen alternates were also selected to replace any of the original number who did not accept an invitation.

The committee decided that after a training period of ten days the number of participants would be cut from fifty to twenty-four women who would be known as the United States' Squad. After a brief period of time there would be

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<sup>1</sup>"Olympic and AAU Groups Prepare Plans to Promote Women's Basketball," New York Times, October 23, 1966, Sec. 11.

<sup>2</sup>USOCWB Minutes, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, April, 1971, pp. 1-2.

a second cut to the final twelve women, the United States Team, who would represent this nation in international competition until another camp was assembled. The committee also decided at the meeting in Kansas City that the United States Squad, twenty-four players, would be retained from one year to the next as a nucleus for the succeeding training camp; and that invitations would be extended to twenty-six new candidates to complete the total of fifty participants.

To qualify as a candidate the following stipulations were established: the candidate must be a participant in an active basketball program; the candidate accepts the invitation with the understanding that if chosen among the final twelve she would make the entire proposed schedule as presented by the committee; the candidate must answer the invitation, yes or no, within the limit of time stipulated in the invitation or lose her chance for consideration for future invitations; the candidate, upon acceptance of the invitation, must send to the USOCWB Chairman her full name, address, and telephone number; and those selected as members of the United States squad, the final twenty-four women, were obligated to return to the succeeding training camp.<sup>1</sup>

### Finance

The Olympic Development camps are financed jointly by the AAU and the United States Olympic Development Committee,

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<sup>1</sup>United States Olympic Committee for Women's Basketball Minutes, Kansas City, Missouri, September 10, 1966, p. 2.

in addition to funds contributed from private individuals. On May 18, 1966 the USOCDC appropriated four thousand dollars toward support of the first development camp with the understanding that a private contributor would match that amount.<sup>1</sup>

### The National Girl's Basketball League

The National Girl's Basketball League was formed with the following charter members: C. E. School of Commerce, Nashville Business College, Platt College, Iowa Wesleyan, Wayland College, and Northeastern Oklahoma A & M. By 1961 Platt College and Northeastern A & M had dropped out of the League and Ouachita Baptist College and Pepsi Cola were added. At the League meeting on April 1, 1963 in St. Joseph, Missouri three new teams were admitted for a total of ten. The three new teams were: Great Southern, Topeka Boosters, and Real Refrigeration.<sup>2</sup>

The League was formed in an effort to provide a nucleus of strong competition among the top teams in the United States. Teams selected for membership in the organization had superior basketball skills and were seeded in the National AAU Championship.

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<sup>1</sup>Laurine Mickelson, personal letter, July 18, 1966, p. 1.

<sup>2</sup>National Girls Basketball League Minutes, St. Joseph, Missouri, April 1, 1963, p. 1.

### Purpose

The formation of the NGBL was to provide a league for the better teams in the United States so they would not be relegated to playing a seasonal schedule of inferior teams. In order for a new team to be added to the League it was necessary to submit a letter of application in advance of the National AAU Tournament and have various coaches of League teams support the applicant.

### Membership

Some teams were denied admittance to the strong NGBL because they could not demonstrate the calibre of basketball required for League membership. A team could be rejected upon the basis of poor personal grooming or improper floor conduct.<sup>1</sup> The initiation period for such application was in the first round of the National AAU Tournament, a time when all League members were sure to be present because NGBL teams were seeded for that event. In 1965, the Broadview Blazers failed in their attempt for membership because of their poor showing in the Nationals at Gallup, New Mexico.<sup>2</sup> The high altitude and its effect upon the endurance of players at Gallup was a factor many

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<sup>1</sup>National Girls Basketball League Meeting, St. Joseph, Missouri, April, 1965.

<sup>2</sup>Letter to Mrs. Pat DiBenedetto, Manager of the Broadview Blazers, from Austin Core, President, NGBL, April 28, 1965.

teams did not take into account when planning their pre-tournament arrival dates. Hence, Broadview was not the only team that had problems with physiological adjustments. Many of the NGBL teams had their problems also; however, they were not on trial for admittance.

### Meetings

The annual meeting is held on the second day of the National AAU Tournament each year. At that time, League members conduct NGBL business, vote on all-League player selections, and establish the next year's schedule. A president, first vice-president, and secretary-treasurer are elected each year at the annual meeting. The National AAU Basketball Committee Chairman serves as the second vice-president.<sup>1</sup>

### Powers and Obligations

The NGBL through its constant efforts to upgrade all phases of women's basketball from dress to calibre of competition, attempts to establish a strong nucleus for the sport in this country.<sup>2</sup> The NGBL coaches have been prominent leaders on other national basketball committees and have been instrumental in the ascension of the sport to its present level.

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<sup>1</sup>NGBL Constitution, May, 1961, p. 1.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 2.

NGBL members schedule and play a home and home series each season, which is culminated at the National AAU Tournament. Eligibility rules are well defined and in line with AAU requirements.<sup>1</sup>

### Finance

Each League member is assessed twenty dollars to cover the cost of trophies for the season.<sup>2</sup> Costs of correspondence are absorbed by the elected League officials for a given year.

### Summary

A brief review of the operational structures of selected athletic organizations presented in this study was considered to be important to understand the overlapping and dependencies among the various groups. Specifically, origin, purpose, membership, meetings, powers and obligations, and finance were considered for each of the following athletic organizations: United States Olympic Committee for Women's Basketball, Women's National Basketball Committee, National Institute on Girls Sports, AAU-DGWS Joint Rules Committee, Olympic Development Camps, and National Girls Basketball League.

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<sup>1</sup>League Eligibility Rules, April 5, 1963.

<sup>2</sup>Letter to Barbara Gill, Ouachita Baptist College from Gene Agee, League president, May 5, 1961, p. 1.

The ascension period of United States Women's Basketball toward advanced competition will be presented in Chapter VI of the dissertation.

## CHAPTER VI

### THE ASCENSION OF BASKETBALL FOR WOMEN IN THE UNITED STATES TOWARD ADVANCED COMPETITION

The acceptance of competitive sports for women in general and basketball in particular has been a slow process in the United States. The many years of philosophical feud between the two major influences upon women's basketball in this country, the DGWS and the AAU, apparently stifled its growth for approximately four decades. Records of both organizations indicated that when the two major powers began to cooperate rather than combat each other, advanced competition in the sport did accelerate.

The breach between the two organizations began in 1922 when the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation, the forerunner of DGWS, was formed to protest the entry of a United States Women's Track Team in the Olympic Games in Paris. That incident created a national controversy among women physical educators.<sup>1</sup> Prior to that action, however, the AAU had suggested that women physical educators assume the responsibility of the

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<sup>1</sup>Ethel Perrin, "More Competitive Athletics for Girls-- But of the Right Kind," American Physical Education Review, XXXIV (October, 1929), 473 and 476.

regulation and control of women's competitive sports in the United States.<sup>1</sup> When the women failed to act upon the suggestion, the AAU established jurisdiction over some phases of girls and women's sports in this country.

The 1922 Olympic competition for women caused such strife among professional leaders that Blanche Trilling, chairman of the Committee on Women's Athletics of the American Physical Education Association, discussed the problem with Mrs. Herbert Hoover. Mrs. Hoover called a meeting of women physical educators on April 6 and 7, 1923, in Washington, D. C. The result of the meeting was the formation of the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation, the forerunner of DGWS.<sup>2</sup>

After seventeen years as an independent organization, the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation merged with the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation in June of 1940, and the name of the organization became the National Section on Women's Athletics.<sup>3</sup> On June 1, 1953 the title was changed once again to the National Section for Girls and Women's

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<sup>1</sup>Chapter V of this study regarding the National Institute on Girls' Sports.

<sup>2</sup>Frymir, op. cit., p. 11.

<sup>3</sup>Emma F. Waterman, "A Merger: The Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation and the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation," Journal of Health and Physical Education, XXII (January, 1941), p. 36.

Sports.<sup>1</sup> In May, 1957, the organization's title was changed to its current status of the Division for Girls and Women's Sports.<sup>2</sup>

A prime factor which influenced the change to a more cooperative policy between the AAU and DGWS was the change in philosophy caused by a more liberal attitude toward woman's role in society. Such a change of attitude did not evolve easily, but can be traced back to the Second World War when women had to assume positions previously considered the province of men.

#### The Influence of World War II

World War II dictated a new life style throughout all phases of existence for citizens of the United States.<sup>3</sup> The traumatic situation required that all individuals, male and female, put aside traditional influences and customs in an attempt to support the war effort.<sup>4</sup> Hence, the role for women in particular changed drastically from that of wife, mother, and homemaker to one of mechanic, truck driver or

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<sup>1</sup>Rachel Blackburn, "Women in Athletics," Journal of American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, XXIV (March, 1953), 50.

<sup>2</sup>Thelma Bishop, "DGWS--A Permanent AAHPER Division?" Journal of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, XXVIII (October, 1957), 56.

<sup>3</sup>Nell Evans, "What About Basketball?" Journal of Health and Physical Education, XIV (April, 1943), 214.

<sup>4</sup>Allan Nevins, "The Pearl Harbor Controversy," New York Times Magazine, December 16, 1945.

assembly line worker--whatever job needed to be performed in order to free men for military service. By 1943 women comprised a work force of thirteen million as compared to five million between 1920 and 1940.<sup>1</sup>

A change in social customs for women was also influenced by the more flexible work opportunities encountered during that time of national crisis. The new lenient attitude toward a more permissive outlook for women was reflected in recreational pursuits in addition to employment status.

Recreation as a diversion from the tensions of the times became a major concern in regard to war plant workers. Consequently, competitive industrial sports leagues were formed throughout the United States. Women's basketball flourished as a primary sport played in the industrial leagues for the duration of the war.<sup>2</sup>

The National Section on Women's Athletics (NSWA), through their state representatives, attempted to bring all industrial basketball competition under its jurisdiction and standards.<sup>3</sup> In October, 1942, NSWA commenced a national

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<sup>1</sup>Lewis Paul Todd and Merle Curti, Rise of the American Nation (2nd ed.; New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1966), p. 727.

<sup>2</sup>Phyllis Van Vleet, ed., "National Section on Women's Athletics," Journal of Health and Physical Education, XVI (February, 1945), 88.

<sup>3</sup>Lucia Ernst, "Women's Athletic Section News," Journal of Health and Physical Education, XV (March, 1944), 143.

project geared toward popularizing the theme that sports for women contribute to the country's recreation program in a time of war.<sup>1</sup>

For the first time, women joined various branches of the armed forces to release men for active duty overseas. Most professional journals, throughout the war years, were filled with news items of women physical educators resigning their posts to join some branch of military service.<sup>2</sup> Apparently the influence of women physical educators entering the armed forces as personnel in charge of recreational programs did account for all services (Women's Army Corp, Women Accepted for Volunteer Emergency Service, and Women Marine Corp) accepting the NSWA standards and operating procedures.<sup>3</sup>

Captain Isabel Kane, head of the Athletic Branch of the WAC program in France, wrote to Phyllis Van Vleet (editor for the National Section on Women's Athletics) in 1945 that the French women were eager to compete with the American WACS in basketball. One problem existed, however; the French, as did most Europeans, played men's (full court)

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<sup>1</sup>"Women's Athletic Section News," Journal of Health and Physical Education, XIII (October, 1942), 438.

<sup>2</sup>"Women's Athletic Section News," Journal of Health and Physical Education, XIV (June, 1943), 326-27.

<sup>3</sup>Phyllis Van Vleet, "Women's Athletic Section News," Journal of Health and Physical Education, XV (September, 1944), 391.

rules. Captain Kane refused to allow the United States women to play using those rules for she felt that would sanction their use elsewhere. The French finally agreed to play women's (two-division court) rules if a copy of the rules was provided for their use.<sup>1</sup> The results of this action by the United States prolonged the use of the two-division court game and continued to plague the United States representatives in international competition. After Russia's resounding defeat of the United States Team in the World Tournament held in Prague, Czechoslovakia in 1967, during the preliminary rounds of play a native inquired, in broken English, "Why you play so slow?"<sup>2</sup> That particular squad had been exposed to a three week development camp during which players were required to learn the full-court game, new offenses, new defenses, and how to play with each other. For the first time, the United States finished last in the tournament.

The war years initiated Americans to the necessities of rationing because of shortages in food, tires, gasoline, coffee, and numerous other items which had always been so readily available for consumption. The lack of transportation was considered a blessing in disguise by some

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<sup>1</sup>Isabel Kane, "National Section on Women's Athletics," Journal of Health and Physical Education, XVI (March, 1945), 145.

<sup>2</sup>Margaret Downing, Prague, Czechoslovakia, 1967.

women physical educators. Those who did not believe in intercollegiate competition soon found it much simpler to answer students' questions of why there was no competition by a simple statement regarding lack of transportation rather than presenting a discussion of the ill effects of rigorous competition.<sup>1</sup>

Because of the problems involved with transportation much of the basketball competition during the 1940s was confined to local industrial leagues. In 1945, Martha Gable, chairman of public relations for NSWA, suggested that women physical educators should make themselves known to recreation directors of industrial leagues, and attempt to influence their programs toward the NSWA philosophy through cooperation and working with them rather than openly criticizing their efforts.<sup>2</sup> This indicated a different approach by NSWA, which apparently was influenced by the let's-pull-together-for-victory approach everyone was projecting during the crisis years of World War II.

The continued increase in industrial leagues created an additional problem of too few rated officials to accommodate the number of games being played. In an effort to supply competent officials in girls and women's

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<sup>1</sup>Nell Evans, "What About Basketball?" Journal of Health and Physical Education, XIV (April, 1943), 214.

<sup>2</sup>Martha Gable, "National Section on Women's Athletics," Journal of Health and Physical Education, XVI (April, 1945), 193.

sports, NSWA announced the formation of the Women's National Officials Rating Committee in January of 1946. The committee emphasized that it still did not condone interschool competition; however, it did recognize the fact that such competitions did exist and there was a need for qualified officials in both industrial and educational situations.<sup>1</sup> This implicit action rather than the explicit words provided the rationale for competition among women for many physical educators.

With the end of the war travel limitations eased and college competition returned quickly to the play day-sports day form of events.<sup>2</sup> Meanwhile, post war industrial leagues became victims of peace time circumstances as women physical educators left them stranded and lacking in competent leadership as they returned to their pre-war jobs. Industrial recreation directors voiced a plea for help through articles in professional journals.<sup>3</sup>

Post war years brought an attitude of cooperation between NSWA and other sports groups. In 1947 NSWA was

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<sup>1</sup>Phyllis Van Vleet, "National Section on Women's Athletics," Journal of Health and Physical Education, XVII (January, 1946), 28.

<sup>2</sup>Phyllis Van Vleet, "National Section on Women's Athletics," Journal of Health and Physical Education, XVII (June, 1946), 356.

<sup>3</sup>Dorothea M. Lensch, "The Woman-Power Shortage in Sports," Journal of Health and Physical Education, XVII (September, 1946), 444-45.

extended, and accepted, an invitation to join a panel discussion at the National Council of the National Federation of State High School Athletic Association (NFSHSAA). Other organizations in attendance were: AAU, Society of Recreation Workers of America, and Congress of Parents and Teachers.<sup>1</sup> In that same year, NSWA appointed an Olympic study committee to make recommendations of policies for women who were participants in the 1948 Olympic Games.<sup>2</sup> The NFSHSAA meeting apparently marked the beginning of NSWA's efforts to seek greater cooperation among sports groups, for in April of the following year the AAU and NSWA basketball chairmen met in Kansas City to expand their working relationship. That meeting resulted in the NSWA chairman-elect's acceptance of membership to the AAU Women's Basketball Committee.<sup>3</sup> This formalized the desire by both groups to advance competitive basketball for women.

Although foundations were being established for future agreements in policy with the AAU, the National Section for Girl's and Women's Sports (NSWS had experienced a name change) as late as 1954 still did not overtly

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<sup>1</sup>Claire M. Johnston, "National Section on Women's Athletics," Journal of Health and Physical Education, XVII (March, 1947), 175.

<sup>2</sup>Claire M. Johnston, "National Section on Women's Athletics," Journal of Health and Physical Education, XIX (June, 1948), 417.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

subscribe to college sponsorships of tournaments and meets with agencies (independent groups) organized primarily for competition and determination of championships at successively high levels--local, sectional and national.<sup>1</sup>

In summary, World War II and the immediate post war years served as a catalyst for change in women's basketball throughout the United States. Changes in attitudes and social customs regarding women during the time of crisis established a fertile environment from which the acceleration period developed during the 1960s. However, during the 1940s and 1950s the women physical educators publicly continued to cling to the security of a no intercollegiate competition policy. Perhaps that position was assumed because of their philosophy emphasizing participation for all rather than for a few highly selected girls, perhaps they felt insecure about their abilities as coaches, or maybe they continued to believe that competition was physiologically debilitating to women. Another undesirable aspect the women physical educators may have attempted to avoid was the political undertones to competitive sports which began to surface with the beginning of World War II.

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<sup>1</sup>Doris Hutchinson, "Sports for Girls and Women," Journal of American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, XXV (December, 1954), 50.

### The Influence of Politics

The tentacular aspects of politics are not usually associated with amateur or professional sports. The XI Olympic Games held in Berlin in 1936, however, changed the underlying principles of international competition--of creating understanding and sportsmanship among nations. Countries who opposed the Games being held in Germany felt that the nations who participated in the event gave moral support to the Nazi movement.

Since that time there have been varying degrees of politics which continue to surface in the field of sports. The reports of the occurrence of such incidents appear frequently in newspapers in the form of treatment of Black Muslim athletes traveling in Africa and the Middle East; the English conflict regarding cricket matches with white South Africa; and even Jackie Robinson's struggles as the first black player in major league baseball in the United States.<sup>1</sup>

Adolf Hitler utilized the 1936 Olympic Games as a spectacular means of convincing the outside world that there was no persecution of races and that churches were still open to everyone.<sup>2</sup> The Games aided Germany by serving as a

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<sup>1</sup>Judith Holmes, Olympiad 1936: Blaze of Glory for Hitler's Reich, intro. by Sydney L. Mayer (New York: Ballantine Books, Inc., 1971), p. 6.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 158.

financial buffer to provide jobs for their unemployed, increasing the tourist trade that was direly needed to provide foreign currency, and propagandizing the occasion to lull other nations into a hypnotic state regarding Germany's military intentions.<sup>1</sup> Meyer speculated that perhaps the black athletes who raised their clenched fists above their heads in a Black Power salute before an international television audience at the 1968 Olympic Games in Mexico City would indicate a close parallel to the 1936 insertion of politics in sports by Germany.<sup>2</sup> Such a demonstration of rebellion, however, may be more correctly identified with social problems of the times.

Political pressure has become apparent in United States women's basketball at the international level in recent years. In 1964 a DGWS liaison representative report indicated the displeasure of the State Department regarding this nation's fourth place finish behind Russia, Czechoslovakia, and Bulgaria in the 1964 World Tournament.<sup>3</sup>

The same political implication was expressed in April, 1967, at the first Olympic Development Camp. Coach Alberta Cox reminded the participants that at the international level when one country defeats another on the field

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 159.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 7.

<sup>3</sup>DGWS Liaison Representative Report, February 22, 1965, p. 1.

of competition it is often misrepresented as signifying that the victorious country is superior to the defeated nation.<sup>1</sup>

Political undertones to basketball activities of the United States team occurred during the VI Pan American Games held in Cali, Colombia in the summer of 1971.<sup>2</sup> The first incident occurred during the team managers and coaches' meeting for women's basketball. After the round robin schedule was displayed upon a chalkboard, the next step was supposedly for all managers to draw for a team position number as listed in the schedule. At that point, a representative from Colombia requested that due to the tremendous crowd appeal of Brazil (the defending gold medal winners of the 1967 Pan-American Games) and Cuba, that they be allowed to assume positions five and seven on the schedule so that their competition would be the last contest in the Games. The United States and Canadian representatives opposed such action as being contrary to procedures followed for placement in round robin schedules in former Games. Opposition to the motion, however, was voted down by representatives from other countries.

Another incident which was thought to be politically motivated was one during the final contest of the

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<sup>1</sup>Margaret Downing, Olympic Development Camp, Blue Eye, Missouri, April, 1967.

<sup>2</sup>Margaret Downing, Cali, Colombia, July 30-August 13, 1971.

Games between Brazil and Cuba. As the final game approached, three teams had the same number of losses--one each. The outcome was most important to the United States Team, however, for if Cuba defeated Brazil the United States would win the gold medal because the American squad had lost only to Brazil by four points and had defeated Cuba in their opening game. If Brazil won they would have defended their Pan-American Championship status.

Cuba appeared the stronger of the two teams although they led by only a one point margin at halftime. In the second half, Cuba played superbly and led their opponents by as much as eleven points before commencing a complete performance reversal in the last six minutes of the contest. The outcome was a Brazilian victory and a gold medal; the United States Team was thus moved to the runner-up position and a silver medal. Such an ending led some to speculate that Cuba lost intentionally. Head coach of the United States Team, Harley Redin, would only comment on the contest in this manner: "The potential of the Cuba Team was awesome."<sup>1</sup>

There were other occurrences at the 1971 Pan-American Games that were construed as being politically related. One male member of the Cuban staff jumped head first to his death out of a fourth floor window of that

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<sup>1</sup>Harley Redin, Report on VI Pan-American Games, August 19, 1971, p. 4.

team's dormitory in Pan Am Village, supposedly because he did not want to return to Cuba.<sup>1</sup> Two women athletes from that same country consumed poison, reportedly for the same reason as the first suicide.<sup>2</sup> It was rumored that the Cuban Baseball Team had a secret policeman assigned on a one-to-one basis for each player of the team so they could not defect to the United States.<sup>3</sup>

Mary Rekstad, consultant for the Division for Girls and Women's Sports, indicated in December of 1971 that DGWS was not concerned with the international level of competition.<sup>4</sup> Within the last few years that organization has been primarily involved with the establishment of national intercollegiate championships. A point of interest, however, AAHPER holds membership in the International University Sports Federation (FISU), sponsor of the World University Games.<sup>5</sup> Also of interest was the listing of Carol Oglesby, president of the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women of the DGWS, as a member of the Executive

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<sup>1</sup>El Tiempo (Bogota, Colombia), August 7, 1971, p. 18.

<sup>2</sup>Alice Englert, private discussion held during manager's meeting, Cali, Colombia, August, 1971.

<sup>3</sup>Herbert J. Mols, private discussion held during manager's meeting, Cali, Colombia, August, 1971.

<sup>4</sup>Mary Rekstad, private interview, Washington, D. C., December 29, 1971.

<sup>5</sup>"World University Games," Journal of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, XLIII (May, 1972), 22.

Committee of the United States Collegiate Sports Council which sponsored the University Winter Games in February, 1972.<sup>1</sup>

Politics have been a force in shaping the destiny of women's basketball in this country during recent decades through repercussions of events at the international level. Reaction by the State Department to the United States losses in the World Tournaments has caused a re-evaluation and an accelerated effort by the USOCWB, WNBC and apparently the DGWS to produce a more competitive national team.<sup>2</sup>

#### The Influence of Rule Changes

Commencing with the appointment of the first rules study committee in 1899 and extending to current times, rule changes have transformed the women's basketball game from a movement restricted sport to an open mobile form of competition. Since its introduction as a woman's game at Smith College in 1892, the major rules which regulate the primary structure of the sport have experienced a complete change cycle.<sup>3</sup>

In the beginning the women attempted to play the same full-court game as the men. Several factors, ranging

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 23.

<sup>2</sup>USOC Minutes, Kansas City, Missouri, September 10, 1966.

<sup>3</sup>Fallows, op. cit., p. 46.

from long trailing skirts to inadequate physical conditioning prevented the successful participation of women using those rules. From 1899 until the mid-1920s the three-division court was considered appropriate for young ladies.<sup>1</sup> In 1928 Frymir stated that the two-division court rule which had been used previously only when courts were small had become popularly accepted.<sup>2</sup> With the reduction of the court from three to two divisions the number of players was reduced also from nine to six.

Sayre, in a preview article regarding a new look for DGWS basketball in 1962, suggested the rule introducing the roving player game.<sup>3</sup> Simply stated, this rule permitted one forward and one guard to play full-court, both offense and defense. Thus, for a few years the AAU and DGWS both professed a combination of the full-court and two-division court game. During the 1964-1965 basketball season experimentation with the unlimited dribble and thirty-second rule was entered into by the AAU and DGWS.<sup>4</sup> These changes were

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<sup>1</sup>Frymir, op. cit., pp. 37-38.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 10.

<sup>3</sup>Jan Sayre, "The Roving Player," Division for Girls and Women's Sport Basketball Guide (Washington, D. C.: 1961), pp. 40-41.

<sup>4</sup>Jan Sayre, "Report of the Joint Committee on Basketball Rules Experimentation," Division for Girls and Women's Sport Basketball Guide (Washington, D. C.: 1965), p. 18.

accepted by both organizations with the DGWS retaining the thirty second clock rule as optional.

By 1969, the two organizations once again agreed to a two year experimentation period for the rules which would reduce the number of players from six to five and would utilize a full-court.<sup>1</sup> Thus, after approximately eighty years women's basketball rules have returned to their original state--five players and full-court regulations.

Until the late 1950s, evidence appears to indicate that the DGWS and its predecessors have been slow to accept changes in basketball rules for women, while the AAU has served as an activator for continuous and periodic changes toward the original rules of the game. The AAU, because of involvement in international competition, found it necessary to push constantly toward the full-court game. Meanwhile, DGWS served as a stabilizer to prevent a head-long rush into the unconditioned acceptance of any and all rule changes, and by such action has retained rules that could be utilized by participants at all skill levels--except those involved in international competition.

Apparently the only thing for which either group could be criticized, regarding the rules, would be for attempting to adjust or retain rules which met each

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<sup>1</sup>"Summary of Experimental Basketball Rules for 1969-70 and 1970-71," Division for Girls and Women's Sport Basketball Guide (Washington, D. C.: 1969), pp. 36-37.

organization's objectives at the time. Until the late 1950s those objectives, in reference to calibre of participation, were worlds apart. Evidence indicated that the AAU-DGWS controversy over rule changes did retard the ascension of women's basketball in the United States toward advanced competition for approximately four decades. While other women's teams throughout the world played the full-court game, the AAU, in its apparent efforts to gain and maintain harmony with DGWS, continued to support the restricted game of that organization until loss of international prestige forced the Union to move ahead in its quest for a more mobile game.

With NSWAA's acceptance of representation to the AAU Women's National Basketball Committee in April of 1948, the two groups appeared to enter a period of agreement regarding rules, which eventually resulted in the formation of a Joint AAU-DGWS Rules Committee.<sup>1</sup> In 1966, each group appointed three persons to serve as a member of the temporary Joint Rules Committee with the responsibility of officially representing the views of the parent organization regarding rule changes. The AAU and DGWS retained their former rules committees as advisory groups.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Johnston, op. cit., p. 417.

<sup>2</sup>Amateur Athletic Union, Rules Committee Report, May, 1966, p. 1.

Although the two groups had been working informally as a Joint Rules Committee since approximately 1958 in an effort to develop a game in which it was possible for participants at all skill levels to enjoy, the DGWS was concerned as late as 1964 about the official structure and powers of the Committee.<sup>1</sup> The DGWS felt that a Joint Rules Committee should be allowed to function under the auspices for which it was formed rather than as two separate committees working together as it had occurred up to that point. The DGWS representative to the AAU National Women's Basketball Committee, Fran Koenig, pressed for and received a concrete reply concerning the establishment of a Joint Rules Committee from AAU Committee chairman, Laurine Mickelsen, in December of 1965.<sup>2</sup> Miss Mickelsen reported that Stephen Archer, AAU Executive Secretary, had received a ruling that

. . . the AAU could enter into a joint rules committee arrangement and decisions of such a committee could be final--thus not subject to review or change by the AAU Basketball Committee or the AAU Delegate Assembly.<sup>3</sup>

Meanwhile a provisional committee was appointed for the 1966-1967 period to establish an operating code. The

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<sup>1</sup>Rachel E. Bryant, letter to DGWS liaison representative, March 4, 1964.

<sup>2</sup>Division for Girl's and Women's Sports Liaison Report, December 7, 1965, p.1.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 5.

first official Joint Rules Committee was announced in the 1968-1969 DGWS Basketball Guide.<sup>1</sup> Action taken by this group throughout its existence has greatly influenced the type of basketball game played by girls and women in the United States. Other organizations considered in this study did not influence rule changes except through the multi-committee participation by some of their members.

### The Acceleration Period

The United States won its first serious venture into international championship competition at the first World Tournament in Santiago, Chile in 1953.<sup>2</sup> At Mexico City in 1955 women's basketball was included in the second Pan-American Games for the first time.<sup>3</sup> The United States also won that tournament, plus each of the two succeeding championships in 1959 and 1963, held in Chicago, Illinois and Sao Paulo, Brazil.<sup>4</sup> For the first time since entering the Pan-American Games, the United States lost the championship to Brazil at the 1967 Games in Winnipeg, Canada.<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Mildred Barnes, "From Half Court to Full Court," Division for Girls and Women's Sports Basketball Guide (Washington, D. C.: 1971), p. 36.

<sup>2</sup>Miller and Horky, op. cit., p. 14.

<sup>3</sup>Quadrennial Review of Activities (New York: Olympic House, 1969), p. 90.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., pp. 95 and 100.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., p. 105.

At the end of the Pan-American Games in Chicago in 1959, coach of the United States Team, Harley Redin, voiced concern regarding the skill improvement of the other teams entered.<sup>1</sup> It was becoming more apparent that the United States could no longer select an all-star team, give them a few days training together and expect them to win an international championship.

That same year, John Head coached the United States Team against the Russian Team on a home and home basis. The manager of the team, Shirley Martin, noted that the Russian girls were highly trained and conditioned as well as possessed with exceptional team play.<sup>2</sup> At the end of a basketball tour of Russia in 1965, coach Head commented upon the progress of the Soviet team in the following manner:

The Russians have more top notch basketball players than we have seen in previous trips to the Soviet Union. There appears to be little difference between the Soviet Union's National Team and its National Junior Team.<sup>3</sup>

The United States Team defeated France and West Germany easily on that tour and lost to the Soviet Team by a 64-39 score. On a tour of the United States in April of 1966, the National Team of the Soviet Union repeated its previous

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<sup>1</sup>Miller and Horky, op. cit., p. 15.

<sup>2</sup>Amateur Athletic Union Basketball Guide (New York: 1959), p. 27.

<sup>3</sup>Amateur Athletic Union Basketball Guide (New York: 1965), p. 9.

performance by thrashing every team they played. Olan Ruble, assistant coach of many international teams for the United States, reminded the various American sports committees that the last time a United States team defeated Soviet Russia in women's basketball was at the 1957 World Tournament.<sup>1</sup>

Because of their experience with the problems involved in international competition, National Girl's Basketball League (NGBL) coaches voiced their concern with our efforts in the championships. The NGBL teams, who served as this country's nucleus in international endeavors during the formative years, led the struggle to expedite rule changes away from the six player, two-division court game toward a semblance of international rules.

Two men whose teams had monopolized the NGBL and AAU National Championships since 1954, shared the credit and condemnation for their tenacious stands for a more mobile game. These men were coaches John Head and Harley Redin of the Nashville Business College and Wayland College, respectively.

In 1963, Redin expressed concern with the antiquated rules the AAU continued to use in their programs.<sup>2</sup> Mr. Redin

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<sup>1</sup>Olan G. Ruble, "Russians Blank United States Girls," Amateur Athletic Union Basketball Guide (New York: 1966), p. 8.

<sup>2</sup>Letter to Margaret Downing from Harley Redin, March 26, 1963, p. 1.

conducted an independent survey of selected high school coaches in an eight state area regarding use of the unlimited dribble. The results indicated that most coaches were appalled that the AAU was still obsolete in their game structure.<sup>1</sup> High school teams under the jurisdiction of the National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations used the unlimited dribble while AAU teams continued to use the three-bounce dribble.

At the AAU Rules Committee meeting in April of that year, Mr. Redin suggested, and Mr. Head seconded the motion, that AAU enter a trial period of using the unlimited dribble and the thirty-second clock--subject to DGWS acceptance of the experiment.<sup>2</sup> DGWS agreed and an experimentation sub-committee composed of representatives from both organizations was appointed. After a two year period of experimentation the interim report of the DGWS-AAU sub-committee was presented at the AAU National Committee Meeting in Washington, D. C. by Margaret Downing, a sub-committee member. Charts indicated there had not been enough reaction by teams to indicate approval or disapproval of the new rules. Upon that basis, Miss Downing made the motion that AAU teams continue to use the unlimited dribble and thirty-second clock rule through the National AAU

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 3.

<sup>2</sup>Amateur Athletic Union Basketball Rules Committee Minutes, April 3, 1963.

Tournament. Olan Ruble seconded the motion and it passed without a dissenting vote.<sup>1</sup> At the end of the 1966 season, the unlimited dribble and thirty-second clock rule became official for AAU teams, while DGWS retained the unlimited dribble as official and left the thirty-second clock rule as optional.<sup>2</sup> The foregoing serves as an example of how most rule changes presently occur. The formation of the AAU-DGWS Joint Rules Committee has presented an opportunity for understandings between the two groups and has facilitated rule changes directed toward greater competition on a world level.

Succeeding rules changes did not occur until 1969, when, once again, the United States teams slipped further down the placement lists in international competition. The last place finish of this country in the Fifth World Tournament in Prague, Czechoslovakia in 1967 prompted new efforts by national sports committee members to change the rules to the five-player full-court game. Laurine Mickelsen, USOCWB chairman, cited the United States as the only nation that did not play the full-court game.<sup>3</sup> Miss Mickelsen further stated that in terms of future

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<sup>1</sup>Amateur Athletic Union Women's National Basketball Committee Minutes, Washington, D. C., November 29, 1965.

<sup>2</sup>Amateur Athletic Union Basketball Guide (New York: 1966), p. 2-A.

<sup>3</sup>United States Olympic Committee Report, May 8, 1967, p. 1.

international competition the United States had one of two choices to decide upon: adopt rules more in line with international play, or discontinue international competition completely. Miss Mickelsen indicated also that the United States needed to maintain a National Team on a year round basis as did other nations--that three week training periods were not adequate to prepare a team to work together while other countries train for ten months each year.<sup>1</sup>

Thus, in the meeting of the Joint DGWS-AAU Basketball Rules Committee in February, 1969, it was decided that the five player full-court basketball game would be used for an experimental period of two years.<sup>2</sup> The five player full-court game became a part of the official rules for the 1971-1972 season.<sup>3</sup>

Since the full-court rules have become a part of the official game for women's basketball in this country, one would think that the persistent Mr. Redin, who coached the 1971 Pan-American team to a silver medal, would desist in his efforts to adopt the international game. In a post tournament communique to the chairman of the AAU Women's National Basketball Committee, he expressed a desire for a move toward adopting the international foul rule, wide

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 2.

<sup>2</sup>"You Decide!" Division for Girls and Women's Sports Basketball Guide (Washington, D. C.: 1969), p. 34.

<sup>3</sup>Barnes, op. cit., p. 37.

lanes, and twenty minute halves.<sup>1</sup> He indicated these items were factors in the four point loss, the only loss, the United States team suffered at the VI Pan-American Games in Cali, Colombia. If the trend in the revision of the rules continues to follow the pattern established within the last few years, another period of experimentation in the direction of international rules can be expected in the near future.

It has been said that one should never underestimate the power of a woman. Such an axiom became a matter of record in United States woman's basketball from 1964 through 1968. It was in that year that Laurine M. Mickelsen became chairman of the influential AAU Women's National Basketball Committee.<sup>2</sup> Miss Mickelsen was the first woman selected as chairman of that committee who had a DGWS background.<sup>3</sup>

Soon after her appointment as chairman, Miss Mickelsen requested that DGWS appoint someone to serve on the WNBC on a permanent basis rather than a year by year appointment. The chairman felt such exposure for the representative would aid in building continuity between the two groups. Specifically, the position required a person

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<sup>1</sup>Letter from Harley Redin to Carolyn Moffatt, Chairman, AAU National Basketball Committee, May 2, 1972, p. 2.

<sup>2</sup>Division for Girls and Women's Sports Liaison Report, May, 1964, p. 2.

<sup>3</sup>Letter to Elinor Crawford from Fran Koenig, March 16, 1964, p. 2.

who would be sympathetic toward women involved in competition and the continuance of the working alliance between the two organizations.<sup>1</sup>

During her tenure of office Miss Mickelsen was instrumental in the following milestones in women's basketball: the formulation of a Joint AAU-DGWS Rules Committee; the inclusion of basketball in the National Institute on Girls' Sports; the inclusion of the first women officials in the AAU National Championships; the appointment of more women to the National Basketball and Olympic Committees; the first woman coach in international competition for women's basketball; and the establishment of the Olympic Development Camps.<sup>2</sup>

Miss Mickelsen assumed the reins of the powerful AAU Woman's National Basketball Committee at the beginning of the crucial era in public relations between the AAU and DGWS. Her apparent grasp of the potential opportunities of the times for women's basketball and her infallible diplomacy in the appointment of concerned women to strategic

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<sup>1</sup>Letter to Frances B. Koenig from Rachel E. Bryant, March 5, 1964.

<sup>2</sup>United States Olympic Committee for Women's Basketball Minutes, September 10, 1966, pp. 1-3.

committee vacancies prevented misunderstandings between the two organizations.<sup>1,2</sup>

In 1968, Miss Alberta Cox followed Miss Mickelsen as chairman of Women's Basketball Committee of the National AAU. Miss Cox continued the programs initiated by Miss Mickelsen until she tendered her resignation in June of 1971.<sup>3</sup>

The Games Committee of the United States Olympic Committee for Women's Basketball has jurisdiction over all aspects of competition in the Pan-American and Olympic Games.<sup>4</sup> Currently, the Committee regulates only Pan-American competition, since women's basketball is not an Olympic event. However, with the 1972 Olympic Games in mind, the Committee began plans in 1966 to propose that women's basketball be considered by the International Olympic Committee as a worthy addition to the Games.<sup>5</sup> The original plans included a six year long-range development

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<sup>1</sup>Women's National Amateur Athletic Basketball Committee Minutes, December, 1964.

<sup>2</sup>Personal letter to Margaret Downing, Secretary of United States Women's Olympic Basketball Committee, from Laurine Mickelsen, January 15, 1967.

<sup>3</sup>Amateur Athletic Union--Women's Basketball Bulletin, January 16, 1968, p. 1.

<sup>4</sup>United States Olympic Committee, Constitution, By-Laws and General Rules (New York: Olympic House, 1969), p. 10.

<sup>5</sup>United States Olympic Committee Minutes, Kansas City, Missouri, September 10, 1966, pp. 1-3.

program geared toward the training of the youth of the United States in women's basketball.

The Influence of the Olympic  
Development Camps

The original plans for the six year Olympic development program indicated that two week camps would be held in a different region throughout the United States each year. Specifically, the time table established the following sites: 1967, Missouri; 1968, New Mexico; 1969, Michigan; 1970, Tennessee; 1971, open (East); 1972, dependent upon where the 1972 Olympic Games would be held.<sup>1</sup> The Committee anticipated that women's basketball would be included in the 1972 Olympic Games.

Actually, the only camp that materialized as scheduled was the first one in 1967 at Blue Eye, Missouri. The planned operation of the development camps was dependent upon a benefactor for one-half of the expenses. The other half was provided by the Olympic Committee. The committee soon found it necessary to hold the development sessions where a donor could be found to pledge support. Hence, the 1968 camp was held in Sulphur, Oklahoma, partially sponsored by Mr. Ross Duckett;<sup>2</sup> the 1969 camp was held at Ouachita

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 2.

<sup>2</sup>Letter from Laurine Mickelsen, Chairman USOCWB, May 16, 1968.

Baptist University, Arkadelphia, Arkansas, sponsored by that institution; the 1970 camp was held at Wooster College in Wooster, Ohio, sponsored by that college; the 1971 camp was held at Wayland College in Plainview, Texas, prior to the Pan-American Games, and partially sponsored by that institution; and the 1972 camp was cancelled because of the lack of funds from the Olympic Development Committee. Since 1972 was an Olympic year, all funds were used toward financing the United States teams in Munich, Germany.<sup>1</sup>

Except for the 1971 camp, the nucleus of the coaching staff has remained the same--Miss Alberta Cox of Raytown, Missouri, served as head coach from 1967 through 1969. In 1971, the committee elected Harley Redin as the coach for the Pan-American Games and the training camp.<sup>2</sup>

The camps were instituted to provide a nucleus each year for a national team to represent the United States in international competition. It was the method initiated by the USOCWB to attempt to offset the United States decline as a power in international women's basketball.<sup>3</sup> Prior to the establishment of the development camps the procedure

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<sup>1</sup>Letter to USOC Committee Members from Margaret Downing, Chairman, May, 1972.

<sup>2</sup>United States Olympic Committee for Women's Basketball Minutes, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, April 25, 1971, p. 2.

<sup>3</sup>United States Olympic Committee for Women's Basketball Minutes, Washington, D. C., November 29, 1965, pp. 1-2.

had been to select a nucleus of approximately six women from the team that won the AAU National Tournament and complete the squad with outstanding players from other teams.<sup>1</sup>

The prominent coaches who had utilized this method, John Head and Harley Redin, were not receptive to the development camp concept. For one reason, they felt the women who were dependent upon their jobs could not afford to take two weeks off for training and another week or so for an international tour without putting their livelihood in jeopardy.<sup>2</sup> Thus, the development camp would obviously eliminate, as it did in 1967, many of the better, more experienced basketball players in the United States. The committee's intent, however, was not for immediate results, but for the future. There was considerable hope that women's basketball would be included in the 1972 Olympics. With that as their objective, the committee realized that the older, more experienced players of 1967 would probably not be the best players in 1972, and that the hope for the return of the United States to a world power in women's basketball depended upon the youth of this country.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Letter to Senator Ross Bass of Tennessee from Miss Tennie McGhee, Member of the AAU Board of Governors, August 9, 1965, p. 1.

<sup>2</sup>Letter to Margaret Downing, Secretary of USOCWB, from John Head, Committee Member, Nashville, Tennessee, June 23, 1967.

<sup>3</sup>Managers' Report of 1967 Olympic Development Camp and Women's World Tournament, May, 1967.

The Committee followed the customary procedure for the selection of personnel to attend the 1971 camp just prior to the Pan-American Games. Names were submitted by all Committee members of outstanding players throughout the United States. That particular year, however, the USOCWB had been without a chairman because of the resignation of Maria Sexton; therefore, a member of the administrative staff of the USOC, Joe Henson, had been sent to the April meeting in Oklahoma City to expedite the business of an election of a new chairman, selection of a coach, and selection of team personnel.<sup>1</sup> Because the committee was without leadership for a period of time and therefore not functioning, and because of the pressures from Olympic House to select and name a team at the earliest possible time, the Committee approved the selection of nine players by the coach at that meeting. Three places were held open until after the try-out camp at Wayland College June 13-19.<sup>2</sup>

Olympic House personnel continued to emphasize to the chairman of the USOCWB and Pan-American team coach that 1971 was not a development year; rather it was a try-out and

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<sup>1</sup>United States Olympic Committee for Women's Basketball, op. cit., p. 2.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 3.

training year for international competition and the camp should be administered toward that end.<sup>1</sup>

A member of the staff of the previous camp lamented the fact that if international competition was to follow the camp session, that attempting to select twelve women from thirty-five contestants in a matter of ten days to two weeks and leave time for training the twelve was an impossible task. Assistant coach Carolyn Moffatt, of the 1969 development camp staff, recommended that when international competition followed the camp, the emphasis during the session should be placed upon the training of the actual participants who would be involved in the competition.<sup>2</sup>

Out of necessity, the 1971 Olympic Committee for Women's Basketball approved a nucleus of nine players for the 1971 Pan-American Team. Three of the nine players selected declined the invitation because of a disagreement with the method which the Committee utilized for the selection of the players.<sup>3</sup> The same three players

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<sup>1</sup>Telephone Conversation between Richard Dunham, USOC Staff Coordinator, and Margaret Downing, Chairman of the United States Olympic Committee for Women's Basketball, April 28, 1971.

<sup>2</sup>Carolyn Moffatt, Report of 1969 Women's Basketball Training Camp and South American Tour, September 30, 1969, p. 1.

<sup>3</sup>Letters from Myrna DeBerry of Raytown, Missouri Team, May 7, 1971; Pat Ramsey of Raytown, Missouri Team, May 7, 1971; and Ellen Mosher of Allison, Iowa, June 10, 1971.

emphasized in their communiques that experienced players were important in competing at the international level--two of the players had attended the camp since its origin, and one had attended for the three previous summers. Consequently, their decline of the invitation placed three inexperienced players on the team.<sup>1</sup>

In summary, the USOCWB established the Olympic Development Camp program in 1967 to train a nucleus of young players for international competition and to serve as a core for a national team. Prominent AAU coaches did not fully support the program because they favored previous procedures of acquiring a national representative--a nucleus of six players from the AAU National Championship Team--supported by other outstanding players from other teams. In 1971, the Pan-American Team selection procedures utilized by the USOCWB differed from previous procedures because the Committee had been without a chairman for several months and the meeting was held late in the year. Nine players were selected for the Pan-American Team and three positions were left open until after the try-out camp. Three of the nine selected declined the invitation because of the Committee's selection procedures. Consequently, the team was finally composed of six Wayland College players and six from various other teams.

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<sup>1</sup>Letter from Coach Harley Redin, May 31, 1971.

This aspect of women's basketball has traveled also in a full circle. Out of necessity for expediting the team selection procedures for the 1971 Pan-American Team, the nucleus of the team was formed by the championship team from the National AAU Tournament. This does not differ greatly from the outcomes of selections made after a regular development camp session. Teams for international competition are often composed of a nucleus of players from the regular teams of the coaching staff.<sup>1</sup> The United States dropped to second place in the 1967 Pan-American Games after the first group of internationally inexperienced Olympic development camp graduates represented this country in the Championship. In 1971, this country retained the second place ranking in the same championship with a team composed of a group of determined, inexperienced players-- some of whom had been to previous development camps and some had not.

From the standpoint of progress in development it would appear that the United States Olympic Committee must devise an additional program to provide talent for international teams, or a completely new system for training their women basketball teams for international competition. It appears, further, that the nation is running very hard in order to stay in one place. The Olympic Games Committee

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<sup>1</sup>Alberta Cox, Head Coach's Report of the 1970 South American Tour, August 15, 1970.

has exerted a tremendous amount of influence upon the ascension of women's basketball toward advanced competition through the Olympic development camps. The structures of the camps provided the opportunity for up to fifty of the nation's top women basketball players to receive exposure to international level coaching and game experience. Each girl, in turn, is expected to share with her own team the new learning experiences which were encountered.

#### The Influence of the National Institute on Girls Sports

As stated in Chapter V of this study, the National Institutes on Girls Sports are co-sponsored by the DGWS of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation and the Women's Board of the United States Olympic Development Committee.<sup>1</sup> Although the first institute was held in 1963 at Oklahoma State University, it was not until the Fourth<sup>2</sup> and Fifth<sup>3</sup> Institutes that basketball was added as an activity.

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<sup>1</sup>Sara Staff Jernigan, "Two New Institutes on Girls Sports," Journal of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, XXXVI (September, 1965), 40.

<sup>2</sup>Proceeding: Fourth National Institute on Girls Sports (Washington, D. C.: American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, 1968), p. v.

<sup>3</sup>Sara Staff Jernigan, "Highlights of the Fifth National Institute on Girls Sports," Journal of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, XL (April, 1969), 81.

The purpose of the National Institute on Girls Sports was to provide and meet the growing needs of girls and women's sports through an expanded and varied experience in sports. This was accomplished through the provision for intensive one-week training programs for teachers in a particular sport to strengthen their coaching skills. By providing some of the most outstanding leaders in women's basketball as clinicians to teach all phases of the activity from basic fundamentals to techniques of officiating, interested teachers across the United States were afforded an opportunity to strengthen their skills and gain new understandings of methodology on how to coach the girl who excels.<sup>1</sup>

The National Institute staff was composed of names familiar in the realm of high-level competition in women's basketball. Prominent members of the staff were: Alberta Cox, Rita Horkey, Olan Ruble, and Frances Becker Koenig. Miss Cox was coach of the Raytown Piperettes AAU Basketball Team and most United States Women's Basketball Teams involved in international competition between 1967 and 1970. Miss Cox has served also as past chairman of the AAU Rules and National Women's Basketball Committee. Other prominent instructors were Miss Rita Horkey, who has served on all of the aforementioned committees in addition to serving as

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 82.

rules interpreter. Miss Horkey played competitive basketball at Iowa Wesleyan and for the powerful Nashville Business College. She was a former All-American and a member of the Helms Hall of Fame for Women's Basketball.<sup>1</sup> Mr. Olan Ruble, chairman of the Department of Physical Education at Iowa Wesleyan College, has served in a coaching capacity for various international competitions. Mr. Ruble has served also on the USOCWB, AAU Women's National Basketball Committee, and has served as chairman of the Joint AAU-DGWS Rules Committee.<sup>2</sup> Mrs. Frances Becker Koenig, who handled the officiating duties for the Institutes, served as the DGWS representative to the AAU Women's National Basketball and Olympic Committees. She was one of two women to play an historical role in women's basketball by officiating in the 1964 National AAU Tournament.<sup>3</sup> This represented the Union's first attempt to use women officials in their national tournament.

The influence of the Institute has been manifest in a greater concern by women physical educators for the girl who excels in basketball. As teachers have gone back to their individual states and shared their new knowledge

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<sup>1</sup>Amateur Athletic Union Minutes, March, 1967, p. 1.

<sup>2</sup>Highlights of Fifth National Institute on Girls Sports, op. cit., p. 83.

<sup>3</sup>Liaison Report of DGWS, March 16, 1964, p. 1.

through workshops and clinics, there has been a greater demand at state and national levels to create organizations to direct advanced competition for the co-ed amateur athlete.<sup>1</sup>

The Commission on Intercollegiate  
Athlete's for Women

The CIAW was first proposed at a study conference of DGWS in 1965. By 1966 the Commission had gained the approval of the AAHPER Board of Directors, and in September, 1967 was declared an active extension of DGWS.<sup>2</sup>

Women physical educators, through the DGWS, recognized the needs of young women to continue the development of their sports skills. CIAW was formed to regulate all closed intercollegiate competition for women. Specifically, the Commission was formed to organize, regulate and sanction all local, state, regional and national competitions for college women.<sup>3</sup>

In 1971, the CIAW underwent a name change and became the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for

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<sup>1</sup>Procedures for Intercollegiate Athletic Events (Washington, D. C.: American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, 1968), p. 1.

<sup>2</sup>"DGWS: National Intercollegiate Championships for Women," Journal of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, XXXIX (February, 1968), 24.

<sup>3</sup>Procedures for Intercollegiate Athletic Events, op. cit., p. 2.

Women (AIAW). Under the new structure, the organization ascribes to "provide a governing body and leadership for initiating and maintaining standards of excellence in women's intercollegiate athletic programs."<sup>1</sup> The word athletics alone in connection with women students would have been enough to give a college administrator concern a few years ago.

Although National Invitational Tournaments were held as early as 1968, the first DGWS National Intercollegiate Basketball Championship was held at Illinois State University March 17-19, 1972.<sup>2</sup> The decision by AIAW to move toward sponsoring the championship was prompted by the AAU's plan to commence a collegiate branch of their National Tournament in 1970. The DGWS representative to the National AAU Committee suggested that the DGWS assume the responsibility of a National Intercollegiate Tournament as early as was possible.<sup>3</sup>

Although the AIAW (CIAW) is a young organization, its power structure and functions parallel the AAU format closely. The women physical educators finally appear ready to assume the responsibility of regulating their own sports

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<sup>1</sup>AIAW Handbook (Washington, D. C.: American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, 1971), p. 5.

<sup>2</sup>Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics for Women Bulletin, September, 1971.

<sup>3</sup>DGWS Liaison Report, Margaret Downing, DGWS Representative, December 5, 1968, p. 1.

programs at the national level. Certainly the present profile of this infant organization resembles their NCAA, NAIA counterparts.

### Summary

From the standpoint of advanced competition, the long years of philosophical feuds between the two major influences upon women's basketball in this country, the DGWS and AAU, apparently stifled its growth for approximately four decades. Records of both organizations indicated that when the two major powers began to cooperate rather than combat each other, advanced competition in the sport did accelerate.

A prime factor which influenced a change of policy between the AAU and DGWS was the change in philosophy caused by a more liberal attitude toward woman's role in society. Such a change of attitude did not evolve easily, but primarily as a result of the Second World War.

World War II dictated a new life style through all phases of existence for citizens of the United States. For the first time, women joined various branches of the armed forces to release men for active military duty overseas and took over their jobs at home. Because of the problems involved with transportation much of the basketball competition during the 1940's was confined to local industrial leagues. With the end of the war travel situations eased

and college competition quickly returned to the play day-sports day form of events. Thus, the changes in societal attitudes toward what women could do during World War II and the immediate post war years served as a foundation for change in women's basketball throughout the United States. Changes in attitudes and social customs regarding women during the time of crisis established a fertile environment for the 1960's and the acceleration period. Political undertones began to surface in competitive sports during World War II and for that reason women physical educators may have been less inclined to accept a full-scale program of intercollegiate athletics.

The tentacular aspects of politics are not usually associated with amateur or professional sports, yet politics are very present in international athletics. Adolf Hitler attempted to utilize the 1936 Olympic Games as a means of convincing the outside world that there was no persecution of races and that the churches in Germany were still open to everyone.

Political pressure has become apparent in United States women's basketball at the international level in recent years. In 1964 a DGWS liaison representative report indicated the displeasure of the State Department regarding this nation's fourth place finish behind Russia, Czechoslovakia, and Bulgaria in the 1964 World Tournament.

Reaction by the State Department to the United States losses in the World Tournaments has caused a re-evaluation and an accelerated effort by the USOCWB, WNBC and apparently the DGWS to produce a more competitive national team.

The selected athletic organizations presented in this study have exerted influence, some apparently greater than others, upon the ascension of women's basketball in the United States toward advanced competition. The powerful AAU Women's National Basketball Committee and United States Olympic Committee for Women's Basketball have, through their close working alliances with DGWS, virtually shaped this country's competitive program into its present state.

The Joint AAU-DGWS Rules Committee has played a major role in the sports advancement by changing the structure of the game from a static to a mobile activity and thereby changing its appeal to players, coaches, and spectators. The NGBL through the influence of its prominent coaches has been most influential in initiating rule changes by their constant insistence that rules utilized in the United States place this nation's teams in a position of disadvantage in international competition. Although the NGBL was a subsidiary organization of the AAU, and although its leaders attempted to instigate rule changes at every opportunity, the parent organization (AAU) refused to take

any action that could be misconstrued by DGWS as being uncooperative until the United States had begun to lose international prestige.

The Olympic development camp has been this nation's attempt to provide a nucleus for a national team. Although such camps have served to expose more young women to international competition and thereby improve the caliber of a larger group of players, it appears doubtful that they will produce a level of skill comparable to that developed by other countries who emphasize playing the sport ten months out of the year and who subsidize their women's basketball programs.

The National Institutes on Girls Sports and the CIAW have contributed to the upgrading of coaching techniques and knowledges of the women physical educators who are charged with the execution and regulatory duties of advanced competitive programs for girls in the United States. Because of the subtle approach of these two groups, their contributions to the sport are not as apparent as some of the aforementioned organizations; however, the number of leaders they have and will reach, and influence, will aid the conduct of women's basketball programs for years to come.

## CHAPTER VII

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

#### Summary

The investigation entailed the collection and organization of data related to selected athletic organizations which influenced the ascension of women's basketball in the United States toward advanced competition. For clarity, the presentation of the data was organized into three separate chapters: (1) a historical review of women's basketball in the United States; (2) the structural composition of selected athletic organizations in women's basketball; and (3) the ascension of basketball for women in the United States toward advanced competition.

Basketball was born as a game of diversion, or recreation, to fill the idle evenings during the long winter months at the conclusion of football season. Unlike many other sports whose true origins remain a mystery to historians, basketball originated in the United States during the latter part of the nineteenth century without the influence of an European model. The simplicity of the sport, which made it so popular, was apparent in the minimum

of thirteen original rules that still serve as the nucleus of the game of today.

Basketball for women was initiated at Smith College as an activity to stimulate enthusiasm for a lagging physical education program which was on the verge of being excluded from the curriculum. In the spring of 1892, the first basketball contest for women at the college level was held at that institution in the form of intramural competition. This appeared to be the onset of the popularity of the sport among women's groups throughout the country. Basketball quickly became a nationally favorite sport of women and was considered "a wonderful boon" by physical directors to their sagging exercise programs of dumb-bells and rowing machines.

In the opinions of some leaders involved at that time, the rules as originally written by Naismith for his men's teams proved to possess undesirable characteristics for women. Roughness began to creep into the women's game and it became necessary to eliminate the following aspects of the men's rules: batting or snatching of the ball; excessive bouncing of the ball; and holding the ball more than three seconds.

There were a number of controversial factors during the early developmental period of basketball which forced modification of the playing rules among college women. It was believed that competitive athletic events for the female

placed an unacceptable emotional strain on the participants. Another popular belief was that the physiological limitations of women were overstressed during highly competitive events. Further, the restriction of movement caused by the costumes worn during the primary years of the sport made participation difficult and reemphasized the professed psychological and physiological problems.

Rules soon became a primary source of disagreement among leaders responsible for women's basketball programs. Between the onset of the game and the early 1920's, each normal school began printing its own version of women's basketball rules, which virtually prevented interschool competition. The difficulties encountered by this divergence of rules among schools led to the acceptance of a standard modification known as Spalding Rules. In 1921 a majority of the leaders of physical education had accepted the Spalding Rules.

In 1923, the Women's Division of the National Amateur Athletic Federation was formed to establish standards and policies in women's sports. The play day, and eventually the sports day, became popular as physical and social outlets for women from the 1920's until after World War II. By 1947, intercollegiate basketball was gaining some acceptance, but even as late as 1950 few professionally trained women advocated a competitive program patterned after the men's schedule.

A brief review of the operational structures of selected athletic organizations was presented in this study to clarify the overlapping and dependencies among the various groups. Athletic organizations considered were: United States Olympic Committee for Women's Basketball, Women's National Basketball Committee, National Institute on Girls Sports, AAU-DGWS Joint Rules Committee, Olympic Development Camp, and National Girls Basketball League. Specifically, the following were discussed regarding each of the aforementioned organizations: origin, purpose, membership, meetings, power and duties, and finance.

From the standpoint of advanced competition, the long years of philosophical feuds between the two major influences upon women's basketball in this country, the Division for Girls and Women's Sports and the Amateur Athletic Union, apparently stifled the growth of basketball for women for approximately four decades. Records of both organizations indicated that when the two major powers began to cooperate rather than combat each other, advanced competition in the sport did accelerate.

A prime factor which influenced a change of policy between the AAU and DGWS was the change in philosophy caused by a more liberal attitude toward woman's role in society. Such a change of attitude did not evolve easily, but can be traced back to the Second World War when women had to assume positions previously considered the province

of men. World War II and the immediate post war years served as a foundation for change in women's basketball throughout the United States.

The tentacular aspects of politics are not usually associated with amateur or professional sports. Adolf Hitler utilized the 1936 Olympic Games as a spectacular means of convincing the outside world that there was no persecution of races and that churches were still open to everyone.

Political pressure has become apparent in United States women's basketball at the international level in recent years. In 1964 a DGWS liaison representative report indicated the displeasure of the State Department regarding this nation's fourth place finish behind Russia, Czechoslovakia, and Bulgaria in the 1964 World Tournament. Reaction by the State Department to the United States losses in the World Tournaments has caused a re-evaluation and an accelerated effort by the United States Olympic Committee for Women's Basketball, Women's National Basketball Committee, and apparently the Division for Girls and Women's Sports to produce a more competitive national team.

The Joint AAU-DGWS Rules Committee has played a major role in the sports advancement by changing the structure of the game from a static to a mobile activity and thereby changing its appeal to players, coaches, and spectators. The National Girls Basketball League through

the influence of its prominent coaches, and their positions within the AAU, DGWS, Olympic and Joint Rules Committees, has been most influential in initiating rule changes by their constant insistence that rules utilized in the United States place this nation's teams in a place of disadvantage in international competition. Although the NGBL was a subsidiary organization of the AAU, and even though its leaders attempted to instigate rule changes at every opportunity, the parent organization (AAU) refused to take any action that could be misconstrued by DGWS as being uncooperative until the United States had begun to lose international prestige in women's basketball.

The Olympic development camp has been this nation's sole attempt to provide a nucleus for a national team. Although such camps have served to expose more young women to international competition and thereby improve the caliber of a larger group of players, it appears doubtful that these camps are the answer to other countries emphasis on playing the sport ten months out of the year and their subsidization of women's basketball programs.

The National Institutes on Girls Sports and the Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (CIAW) have contributed to the upgrading of coaching techniques and knowledges of the women physical educations who are charged with the execution and regulatory duties of advanced competitive programs for girls in the United States. Because

of the less obvious contribution of these two groups, their value to the ascension of the sport is not as apparent as some of the aforementioned organizations; however, the number of leaders they have and will reach, and influence, has and will continue to aid the conduct of women's basketball programs for years to come.

#### Specific Findings of the Study

In reference to selected athletic organizations which influenced the ascension of women's basketball toward advanced competition in the United States, the investigation indicated the following findings:

1. The crisis years of World War II changed attitudes and social customs regarding women in the United States and, thereby, established a fertile environment for the acceleration period for women's basketball during the 1960's.

2. The aspect of political pressure has served as a catalyst among various athletic organizations in accelerating women's basketball programs in the United States toward advanced competition.

3. The philosophical feud between the two major influences upon women's basketball in this country, the DGWS and AAU, stifled its growth for four decades.

4. The ascension of women's basketball in this country commenced in the early 1960's when the DGWS and

AAU began cooperating by the establishment of a Joint Rules Committee.

5. Prominent NGBL coaches have served as the catalyst to prod the AAU and DGWS toward major rule changes which greatly affected participation at the international level.

6. The selection of a DGWS oriented woman as chairman to the powerful AAU National Women's Basketball Committee in 1964 increased the cooperation of the two groups and thereby aided the ascension period of women's basketball in the United States.

#### Conclusion to the Study

Based upon the findings of the study, it may be concluded that the crisis of World War II served as the prime factor which created a two-fold change of attitudes toward the role of women in the American society: (1) that of woman's attitude regarding her own capabilities; and (2) the attitude of society in general toward woman's new position in all facets of life outside the home environment. As social attitudes and customs have become more equal, opportunities for women in the United States to compete at advanced levels in basketball have also increased in comparison.

Recommendations for Further Studies

The following recommendations for further studies are suggested:

1. A history of the Women's National AAU Basketball Championships--1926-1971.
2. A survey of intercollegiate basketball tournaments in the United States.
3. A biographical study of Rachel E. Bryant--first DGWS Consultant.
4. A study of problems surrounding the National Federation of State High School Athletic Association's refusal to accept the DGWS rules for high school girls.
5. A biographical study of Nera White--All-American fifteen years.
6. Biographical studies of other prominent All-American and Helms Hall of Fame women basketball players.

APPENDIX

## CRITERIA FOR INTERVIEW INSTRUMENTS

Criteria for the interview instruments were established to measure the following: level of competition in women's basketball; length of time involved in women's basketball; comparison of different sets of rules upon participation at different levels of competition; financial support of competitive programs at various levels; the influence of international competition upon women's basketball in the United States; and persons who were most influential in the promotion of women's basketball programs in the United States.

## CRITERIA FOR SELECTION OF PERSONS INTERVIEWED

Criteria were established for the selection of persons to be interviewed. One or more of the following qualifications were considered essential as prerequisites for persons interviewed: participation at the regional level or above in women's basketball as a player, coach, or in other realms of team personnel; a term of service as a basketball committee member for a minimum of four years; a term of service as an officer of one or more of the various basketball organizations for women at the regional level or above.

PLAYER INTERVIEW INSTRUMENT

Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Team: \_\_\_\_\_ from \_\_\_\_\_  
(City and State)

Years played: from \_\_\_\_\_ to \_\_\_\_\_  
(Year) (Year)

---

1. Was your team a member of the National Girls Basketball League?
2. Did your team play other teams that were members of the National Girls Basketball League?
3. What were the championships in which your team competed?
4. Name the tournaments and years your team won championships.
5. Who was the coach of your team?
6. Did your team play two-court or full-court basketball rules?
7. Were you ever selected for a team involved in international competition?
8. What procedures were utilized for obtaining personnel for the United States teams to the Pan American Games and the World Tournaments at that time?
9. Once the team was selected, how long did teams have to prepare for Pan American and World Tournaments prior to departure for competition?

10. What presented the most difficulty in making the adjustment in game play from the use of rules used in the United States to those used in international competition?
11. What indications did your coach give that other nations were surpassing the United States efforts in women's basketball?
12. What solutions did your coach indicate would be necessary if the United States was to remain among the top teams in international competition?
13. Did you ever attend an Olympic development camp?
14. What year(s) did you attend the Olympic development camp?
15. As a former participant in women's basketball at the regional level or above, what do you think could be done to improve and upgrade the caliber of basketball played by women in this country?
16. What was the greatest disadvantage the United States teams faced in international competition?
17. If you were required to name three persons who have contributed most toward the advancement of women's basketball in the United States, who would you select and why? (Name in order of preference--i.e., the person who has contributed most to women's basketball first, etc.)
  - 1.
  - 2.
  - 3.
18. What rule changes would you like to see made in women's basketball in order to improve playing conditions for competitors at all skill levels?

COMMITTEE MEMBERS AND COACHES INTERVIEW INSTRUMENT

Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Team or Organization: \_\_\_\_\_

Address: \_\_\_\_\_

Years Involved: From \_\_\_\_\_ to \_\_\_\_\_  
(Year) (Year)

---

1. What level of competition is available to women in the United States in the area of women's basketball?
2. Has your organization kept pace with other organizations within the United States in providing advanced levels of competition for women?  
  
If no, why not?
3. What financial sources are utilized to train and administer the women's basketball programs at the most advanced level within your organization?
4. What are some of the problems involved in selecting team personnel and participants for international competition in women's basketball?
5. Within each quadrennial, how is the time period divided regarding development and actual training years for women's basketball camps?
6. What has been the greatest detriment in regards to women's basketball being added as an Olympic sport?

7. Who have been the three most influential persons in women's basketball in the United States during the past twenty years and what were their primary contributions to the sport?
  
8. What are the disadvantages United States women face in competing at the international level in basketball?
  
9. What rule changes should be enacted in women's basketball and how would such a rule change improve the sport?
  
10. What future steps should be taken in the area of development and training if the United States plans to compete at the international level?

## PERSONS INTERVIEWED

Personal Interview with Sue Gunter, August 5, 1972, Denton, Texas.

Personal Interview with John Head, March 5, 1969, Gallup, New Mexico.

Personal Interview with Carolyn Moffatt, April 2, 1971, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.

Personal Interview with Harley Redin, August 26, 1971, Miami, Florida.

Personal Interview with Mary Rekstad, December 29, 1971, Washington, D. C.

Personal Interview with Dixie Woodall, February 16, 1970, Magnolia, Arkansas.

Telephone Interview with Richard Dunham, April 28, 1971.

Telephone Interview with Rita Horky, April 10, 1970.

Telephone Interview with Marie Sexton, June 6, 1969.

December 10, 1970

Dr. Rachel E. Bryant  
American Association for Health,  
Physical Education and Recreation  
1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W.  
Washington, D. C. 20036

Dear Rachel:

I know this is a hectic and busy time for you; however, I suppose where your schedule is concerned, all days are sufficiently busy. I do hope all is going well for you in these pre-holiday weeks.

Rachel, I am in the preliminary planning stage for commencing work on my dissertation and thus completing the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree with a major sequence in Physical Education at the Texas Woman's University. I am fortunate to have received permission to undertake an historical study entitled: "Women's Basketball: An Historical Review of Selected Organizations Which Have Influenced the Advanced Levels of Competition in the United States." In order for such a study to be accurate, I would need permission from you or your executive board to examine pertinent records and reports of the Division for Girls and Women's Sports, the Joint Rules Committee, National Sports Institute, and the Committee for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women. If any or part of these organizational files come under your jurisdiction, I solicit your cooperation. If not, could you direct me to the proper authorities whereby I may obtain such information? The recent upsurge of participation within this sport for women dictates the necessity for such a study at this time.

It is my intention to interview prominent persons in the area of women's basketball in order to supplement recorded data. Since your knowledge and views on this topic are invaluable, I sincerely hope you will consent to discuss this subject with me sometime in the near future.

If I may have permission to review records, minutes, and reports of the various organizations indicated, will these forms be available at the Washington offices? If so,

what dates will these offices be closed between December 18 and January 12?

The study would be most useful to the various organizations, teachers, coaches, and interested persons who are concerned with the numerous aspects of women's basketball. Rachel, I think you for your aid and assistance.

Yours truly,

Margaret R. Downing  
Assistant Professor of  
Physical Education

November 5, 1970

Mr. Jesse A. Pardue  
Attorney at Law  
363 San Jacinto Building  
Houston, Texas

Dear Mr. Pardue:

I know this is a hectic and busy time for you, but as President of the AAU I suppose all days are sufficiently busy. I do hope all is going well for you in these weeks prior to the National Convention.

Mr. Pardue, I am in the preliminary planning stage for commencing work on my dissertation and thus completing the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree with a major sequence in Physical Education at the Texas Woman's University. I am fortunate to have received permission to undertake an historical study entitled: "Women's Basketball: An Historical Review of Selected Organizations Which Have Influenced the Advanced Levels of Competition in the United States." In order for such a study to be accurate, I would need permission from you or your executive board to examine pertinent records and reports of the U. S. Women's Basketball Committee, the Joint Rules Committee, and the Olympic Development Camp. The recent upsurge of participation within this sport for women dictates the necessity for such a study at this time.

It is my intention to interview prominent persons in the area of women's basketball in order to supplement recorded data. Since your knowledge and views on this topic are invaluable, I sincerely hope you will consent to discuss this subject with me sometime in the near future.

The study would be most useful to the various organizations, teachers, coaches, and interested persons who are concerned with the numerous aspects of women's basketball. Mr. Pardue, I think you for your aid and assistance.

Yours truly,

Margaret R. Downing  
Assistant Professor of  
Physical Education

September 29, 1970

Mr. Clifford H. Buck  
43 South Ogden Street  
Denver, Colorado 80209

Dear Cliff:

I know this must be a hectic and busy time for you, but I suppose all days are sufficiently busy now that you are president of the U. S. Olympic Committee. I do hope that all is going well for you in these pre Pan-American Games months.

I am in the preliminary planning stage for commencing work on my dissertation and thus completing the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree with a major sequence in Physical Education at the Texas Woman's University. I am fortunate to have received permission to undertake an historical study entitled: "Women's Basketball: An Historical Review of Selected Organizations Which Have Influenced the Advanced Levels of Competition in the United States." In order for such a study to be accurate, I would need permission from you or your executive board to examine pertinent records and reports of the U. S. Women's Olympic Basketball Committee and the Olympic Development Committee. The recent upsurge of participation within this sport for women dictates the necessity for such a study at this time.

It is my intention to interview prominent persons in the area of women's basketball in order to supplement recorded data. Since your knowledge and views on this topic are invaluable, I sincerely hope that you will consent to discuss this subject with me sometime in the near future.

The study would be most useful to the various organizations, teachers, coaches, and interested persons who are concerned with the numerous aspects of women's basketball. Cliff, I think you for your aid and assistance.

Yours truly,

Margaret R. Downing  
Assistant Professor of  
Physical Education

LIST OF PARTICIPANTS EXTENDED INVITATIONS TO  
FIRST OLYMPIC DEVELOPMENT CAMP

1967 Training Camp--Blue Eye, Missouri

Participants

1. Jane Hughes--Women's Phy. Ed. Dept., Utah State University, Logan, Utah.
2. Cathy Benedetto--Women's Phy. Ed. Dept., Central Washington State College, Ellensburg, Washington
3. Rose Lefner--Women's Phy. Ed. Dept., Temple Junior College, Temple, Texas
4. Myrna DeBerry--Quachita Baptist College, Arkadelphia, Arkansas
5. Jean Rush--% Shirley Martin, 2040 W. Wisconsin Ave., Milwaukee, Wisconsin
6. Annette Rutt--Illinois State University, Normal, Illinois
7. Jannette Housteen--Catholic Indian Center, Gallup, New Mexico
8. Phyliss Landes--Southern State College, Magnolia, Arkansas
9. Jodie Brown--4731 Meredith, Lincoln, Nebraska
10. Rita Horky--Florida Junior College, Jacksonville, Florida
11. Sandra Fiete--1674 Avenue B #35, Yuma, Arizona
12. Mary Kreiger--Midwestern College, Denison, Iowa
13. Carolyn Miller--5631 Ricky, Houston, Texas
14. Carla Lowry--1445 Pech, Apt. 21, Houston, Texas
15. Dorothy Woodfin--5631 Ricky, Houston, Texas
16. Linda Puckett--Villa Monterrey, Apt. 136, 9150 Gulf Freeway, Houston, Texas

17. Mrs. Katherine Washington Benson--7035 Bellfort,  
Apt. 203, Houston, Texas
18. Joan Joyce--222 Tudor Street, Waterbury, Connecticut
19. Lori Lindahl--3504 E. First St. #7, Long Beach,  
California
20. Nancy Ito--118 N. Hillcrest, Apt. 8, Inglewood,  
California
21. Deanna Grindle--523 Park Avenue, Omaha, Nebraska
22. Judy Lloyd--1505 Payton, Des Moines, Iowa
23. Glenda Rogers--658 18th Street, Apt. 15, Des Moines,  
Iowa
24. Barbara McAnnich--Wayland Baptist College, Plainview,  
Texas
25. Lois Finley--Wayland Baptist College, Plainview, Texas
26. Gail Nicholas--Wayland Baptist College, Plainview, Texas
27. Lola Ham--Wayland Baptist College, Plainview, Texas
28. Betty Courtney--Wayland Baptist College, Plainview, Texas
29. Dee Gregory--Wayland Baptist College, Plainview, Texas
30. Charlotte Kendrich--1710 Gibbs Street, Waycross, Georgia
31. Gail Griffith--308 Y.M.C.A. Bldg., Nashville, Tennessee
32. Loretta Smith--308 Y.M.C.A. Bldg., Nashville, Tennessee
33. Nera White--308 Y.M.C.A. Bldg., Nashville, Tennessee
34. Joan Crawford--308 Y.M.C.A. Bldg., Nashville, Tennessee
35. Teena Johnson--308 Y.M.C.A. Bldg., Nashville, Tennessee
36. Doris Rogers--308 Y.M.C.A. Bldg., Nashville, Tennessee
37. Mrs. Marie Rogers Thomas--308 Y.M.C.A. Bldg., Nashville,  
Tennessee
38. Ann Matlock--4044 Harrison, Apt. 5, Kansas City,  
Missouri

39. Barbara Sipes--4842 Brooklyn, Kansas City, Missouri
40. Dixie Woodall--3415 Paseo, Apt. 206, Kansas City,  
Missouri
41. Margaret Propst--9009 E. 66th Street, Raytown, Missouri
42. Mauriece Smith--7724 Lowell, Overland Park, Kansas
43. Mrs. Carole Phillips Aspedon, 5725 Blue Ridge Cut-off,  
Raytown, Missouri
44. Betty Gaule--8400 E. 85th Street, Raytown, Missouri
45. Becky Loveday--8400 E. 85th Street, Raytown, Missouri

Alternate List

1. Georgia VanSoyoc--1312 N. 40th, Omaha, Nebraska
2. Fern Gardner--Brigham City High School, Brigham City,  
Utah
3. Charlotte Lovell--Southern State College, Magnolia,  
Arkansas
4. Linda Hutcherson--Paris, Tennessee
5. Janice McGunn--534 Park Avenue, Omaha, Nebraska
6. Betty Ransom--Rt. 2, Claude, Texas
7. Mildred Endsley--8124 Magnolia Avenue, Apt. #9,
8. Judy Walleck--Route 1, Skidmore, Texas
9. Mrs. Lori Williams Wright--1501 Maple, Apt. 40E,  
Lisle, Illinois
10. Sunne Bea Thomas--224 S. Finley Road, Lombard, Illinois
11. Mary Parker--826 West State, Phoenix, Arizona
12. Joanne Richardson--2103 Granada Drive, Tempe, Arizona
13. Thelma Keith--2935 W. Townley Avenue, Phoenix, Arizona

LETTER SENT TO PARTICIPANTS OF FIRST  
OLYMPIC DEVELOPMENT CAMP

September 19, 1966

Miss Barbara Sipes  
4842 Brooklyn  
Kansas City, Missouri

Dear Barbara:

The United States Olympic Women's Basketball Committee and the Amateur Athletic Union Women's Basketball International Committee have outlined a developmental training program to take place each year from 1967 through 1972. The first of these will be held at Blue Eye, Missouri, March 20th through April 8th. At this camp the United States Women's Basketball Team will be selected and will compete in the World Tournament at Prague, Czechoslovakia, April 9th-23rd, 1967, and at the Pan American Games at Winnipeg, Canada, July 21st-August 7th, 1967.

It is my privilege to inform you that the United States Olympic Women's Basketball Committee has selected you to participate in this first developmental training camp. You will be responsible for your own transportation to and from the training camp site, but your living expenses will be paid while you are at the camp. It will be at this camp that the 1967 United States Women's Basketball squad will be chosen. Each year following 1967 the United States team will be selected at the developmental training camp.

We would expect you to answer our invitation within one month upon receiving your invitation. Deadline will be November 1, 1966.

The following stipulations have been made by the United States Olympic Women's Basketball Committee and the Amateur Athletic Union Women's Basketball International Committee:

1. That you are participating in an active basketball program during the 1966-67 season.

2. That you accept this invitation realizing that if you are chosen you will make the entire proposed schedule (enclosed).

3. That you answer this invitation, yes or no, within the limit of time set above or lose your chance of future invitations being given to you.

4. That you send to L. "Mickee" Mickelsen, Chairman, your full name, address and telephone number upon acceptance of this invitation.

This is truly a break through for women's basketball in the United States and you should feel honored to be one of the first women to be given an opportunity to participate.

Sincerely,

---

Laurine "Mickee" Mickelsen,  
Chairman

Enc.: 1  
LMM/bc

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