MEASURING THE IMPACT OF TITLE IX FOR WOMEN OF COLOR: THE CASE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF AKRON

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ABSTRACT

Eighteen years after the passing of Title IX, gender equity continues to emerge as a serious issue for the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA). Colleges and universities comply with Title IX by using the three-prong test, including 1) proportionality, 2) continuing history and expansion, and 3) interests and abilities. Using the University of Akron as a case study, the purpose of this research was to examine university compliance in relation to the three-prong test, to explore compliance in terms of the interests and abilities of students, and to measure the impact of Title IX for women of color. We argue that, in an attempt to comply with Title IX, colleges and universities traditionally add sport programs that are historically dominated by white women and systematically limit access and opportunities for women of color interested in sports.

An exploratory study was conducted at the University of Akron during the fall 2006 semester. The research population consisted of Akron students, ages 18 thru 25. Using the Assessment of Students Interests and Abilities developed by the National Center for Education Statistics to assess Title IX compliance, this study relied on a web-based survey to assess interests and abilities of the 3,219 students who responded. In addition to demographics, variables of interest included high school sports experience, current intercollegiate participation, interest in future participation, and sport ability.

Using chi-square to identify the relationship between the independent and dependent variables, the results show that there is a statistically significant relationship

between race and lack of participation among women. The data suggests that when compared to white female students, women of color do not participate in sports at the college level because they lack the time, have to work, and they view sports as being too competitive. Using logistic regression, we examined whether participation in college sports was dependent on high school sport participation at the varsity level, controlling for gender and race. We found that students who participate in high school sports are 10 times more likely to participate in sports at the college level. These results suggested that to ensure that women of color have an equal opportunity to participate in sports, grooming for a wide array of sports must occur early in the educational process. Colleges and universities can improve access and opportunities for students of color and women, specifically, if they create partnerships with elementary and secondary institutions to develop sport abilities for students.

In addition we show that there is a significant relationship between high school sport participation and men of color and there is a significant relationship between interest in high school sport participation, current participation, future participation, interests and abilities, and race and gender. A significant relationship was found in five sports when comparing women of color to white women. It was found that women of color were more likely to want to participate in outdoor track and field and basketball. White women were more likely to want to participate in softball, soccer, and swimming and diving.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the memory of my loving grandfather, McCullough A. Williams Jr., whose undying passion for life along with his love of education inspired me to be the best person I could be. Popsy was always the first person to tell people of his granddaughter working on her PhD and even though he is gone his encouraging words of wisdom, and his smile that could light up a room, will never be forgotten. He lived, he laughed, he loved, and now he is smiling down on me full of pride as I receive my doctorate degree. I will always love you Popsy, thank you for believing in me!

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND REVIEW OF TITLE IX LITERATURE

Introduction

Public policies are a very important component of American society. These policies provide the framework to identify controls in society, without them societal goals such as effectiveness, efficiency, accountability, individual rights, and social equity would conflict in such a way that their would be chaos in society. The major components of a policy are the values and choices used to determine the needs and wants of a society in an effort to make the society a more functional place. Policy can be examined by discourse concerning values and beliefs with the choices of policies being determined in order to meet these objectives (Dallas, 2005).

The concerns of the policy sciences are based on the knowledge and the decision process of the public and civil order. The major idea behind policy analysis is that it focuses on policy making, therefore anyone that is involved in the collection of evidence to make an alternative policy option is involved in policy analysis (Ukeles, 1977). Thus, this study seeks to measure the impact of Title IX on women of color at the University of Akron. In 1972, Title IX was enacted to provide a legal framework for eliminating gender discrimination in all educational institutions receiving federal funding.

Policymaking is essential in order for governments to commit resources and define the priorities of governmental action (Simmons, Davis, Chapman & Sager, 1974). "The process of public policymaking includes the manner in which problems get conceptualized and brought to the government for solution; governmental institutions formulate alternatives and select policy solutions; and those solutions get implemented, evaluated, and revised (Sabatier, 1999, p.3). According to Gupta (2001) policy makers base policies on the notion of upholding an individual's rights. The government determines which policies to implement using several factors including the norms of the nation, values, culture, traditions, constitution, history, and interest groups. Together these factors form the environment where public policies are developed (Gupta, 2001).

Public policymaking also shapes the way that American government operates. There are numerous definitions as to what formulates a public policy. According to Anderson (2000) public policy is viewed as the relationship between the government and its environment. In the United States it is the responsibility of the government, at all levels, to take an active role in the development, implementation, and enforcement of public policies. It is also the responsibility of government and government officials to develop these policies. Kingdon (1995) argues that conditions become defined as problems when society feels that something should be done and social protests begin. National movements often begin as an "idea whose time has come" and social issues quickly develop national momentum when citizens, politicians, and community leaders rally to demand government action.

Historically, policy development has not followed a specific pattern. However, social protest movements are one way which policies are transformed in America.

Critchlow (1998) explains the impact and importance of the role that female activists played in shaping public policy during the Women's Movement in conjunction with the impact that the Civil Rights protest produced. For example, the Civil Rights movement radically influenced race relations and civil rights laws in America. Historians that have studied policy history, examined the role of social movements in order to gain a profound understanding of the importance of the historical components used to bring about changes in public policy, law, programs, and general social relations between government and society.

However, Schneider & Ingram (1997), viewed public policies as the mechanisms in which values are assigned for society. Policies are revealed using text, practices, and discourses that often define and deliver societal values. Societal values include goods and services, along with government regulations, income, social status, and any other attribute valued, positively or negatively. Policy design refers to the content of the particular policy and can be observed in certain statutes and administrative guidelines.

Further examination of public policy revealed that some policies originate in administrative agencies. The importance of policy making is that it has a huge influence on policy ideas, choices, and actions. This notion of policy setting overlaps with legislative policy. Administrative, legislative, and judicial processes create policies. For example, administrative policies are determined by the ideas, norms, and routines of non-elected public officials, legislative elected officials determine policies, and the courts create judicial policies. (Moody, 1989).

The development of public policies is important to society as well. One reason is because policies can provide Americans with respect and confidence in their government

and the system of democracy. For democracy and the government to function citizens need to believe that they are influencing their government in meaningful ways. In fact, Moody (1989, p.141) stated "A bureaucracy that appears to be impenetrable and that is perceived to write regulations through incomprehensible procedures will breed contempt and disrespect no matter how wise its decisions."

Another important issue when discussing policies is that numerous scholars in today's society have discovered recently that public policy is developed and evaluated inside specialized networks. Skok (1995) argues that the public policy process is being fundamentally restructured and all policies can be reexamined or changed if the need is shown. With the implementation of public policies and the decisions that some need to be redefined, policy analysis has emerged as a key component in the policy making process to achieve and evaluate the impact of important societal goals. Ukeles (1977) defines policy analysis as a systematic examination of other policy options. Nagel & Bievenue (1992) defines policy analysis as determining an alternative public or governmental policy that will best achieve a particular set of goals. Applying either definition, policy analysis looks at an alternative option to the current policy in place. Historically, the activities identified with policy analysis have been associated with policy making. However, it has not been until recently that the analysis has been formally used in the decision making process (Ukeles, 1977).

Even though there are exceptions to how policies are developed, it is often times the views of political scientists that policy occurs in incremental stages. It is the influence of political scientists that cause policies to be developed in incremental stages (Critchlow, 1998). The process begins with innovation, design, and enactment, and

continues on through implementation, to the final stage, which is program evaluation and feedback. As a result, policy is a world of unintended consequences that sometimes alter policies or even undermine them (Critchlow, 1998). There are numerous policies that can be further examined in the area of social policy; however, the present study is focusing mainly on policies that prevent discrimination based on gender and are implemented to expand opportunities for women and people of color.

A Brief Look at Previous Policies

There have been numerous policies developed in order to alleviate racial and gender discrimination in America. Affirmative action is an excellent example of a policy that was developed to deter discrimination. President John F. Kennedy, who required that all agencies receiving federal funds make a conscious effort in order to be non-discriminatory in their hiring practices, brought about affirmative action in 1961. Affirmative action as it applies to higher education was designed to take an applicant's race, ethnicity, and gender into consideration when selecting future students for enrollment. Recently affirmative action has been highly debated and even eliminated in some places, but during the time it was implemented affirmative action was successful in increasing the number of women and minorities who attended colleges and universities (Moses, 2002).

Affirmative action was monumental in addressing social equality because it was a means to include minorities in the hiring process and in higher education. Before affirmative action there was blatant discrimination that kept people of color and women out of the employment and educational institutions. Broadnax (2000) points out that prior to affirmative action, individuals that were qualified for employment or educational

opportunities were unable to compete for these opportunities because they were left out of the recruiting process. Affirmative action was aimed at redirecting the recruiting process to include everyone. Discrimination is not the only thing that prevents individuals from gaining college access. Financial aid is also extremely important to many individual that desire to attend college. Regardless if an individual is qualified to pursue higher education, college is unattainable without the means to afford it.

For numerous years policymakers have been concerned that the rising costs of higher education may create a barrier for students that want to attend college. The reason behind this argument is that the opportunity for higher education depends largely on the economic status of the individual trying to gain college access, denying millions of young people the opportunity to better themselves and live up to their potential (Heller, 1999).

The first substantial attempt made by the government in providing financial aid for higher education began in 1944 when Congress passed the serviceman's readjustment act, also referred to as the GI Bill. The GI Bill provided financial aid for nearly 8 million men and women who served in WWII (The sharp decline, 1999).

A majority of the social and political issues pertaining to higher education depends upon who has access. The availability of spaces along with the cost is a major issue when determining college access. One examples of what individuals value when choosing a university is the perceived value of education versus the cost (Balderston, 1997). In 1965, the Higher Education Act was passed in an effort to make colleges more accessible to middle and low income students. The passing of the Higher Education Act also brought about many other provisions. For instance Title IV provided funding for grants, loans, and work-study programs for at need college students. These programs

provided opportunities for “non-traditional” students to gain access to college. In 2004, the majority of college students were female and about 25% of college students were from racial and ethnic minorities showing tremendous progress from forty years earlier (Woodbury, 2004-05).

One of the critiques of the financial aid system is that more of the funds are being directed toward middle income students with less financial aid going to lower income students, a very large number of which happen to be African American. This means that there is less money available for at need students. In the late 1970’s, Pell Grants, a federal grant that provides funding based on a students financial need and are not required to be repaid, covered almost 35 percent of the average cost of a college education. Historically, this averaged has decreased and by 1997 Pell Grants covered 13 percent of the average cost of college education. African Americans in general have incomes on average that are only three-fifths the incomes of whites and the average wealth of a African American family is only one tenth that of a White family. African Americans are more likely to require need based financial aid, especially since the pool of African American students enrolling in college each year is increasing but the amount of need based financial aid is decreasing (The sharp decline, 1999).

Kim (2004) argued that the central objective of financial aid is to provide equal opportunities in college participation and access for all students. This can only be achieved when an institution provides equal opportunities for financial aid. However, throughout the history of the United States people of color are more likely to be underrepresented at 4-year colleges and universities. Research has shown that students of

color have different views on financial aid than their white counterparts. Student of color are more likely to avoid loans as a choice for financial aid if possible (Kim, 2004).

Braunstein, McGrath, and Pescatrice (1999) found that all forms of financial aid positively impacted enrollment and that financial aid has impacted student enrollment decisions more often than tuition. The study also showed that middle and low-income students were more responsive to grants than they were loans or other work-study programs and that the minority enrollment rates have dropped when the focus of financial aid shifts from grants to loans with tuition rising. Finally, scholarships attract more students requiring financial aid but the scholarships need to be distributed evenly to deserving students as a way to provide successful long-term enrollment (Braunstein et al, 1999).

The United States invests in student financial aid as a way to try to make sure that the opportunity to attend college does not depend on family income. Nevertheless, the financial barriers to obtain a college education have risen greatly due mainly to shifts in policies and priorities at the federal and state level, which resulted in a shortage of student aid (Ficklen & Stone, 2002). The Affirmative Action and the Higher Education Acts are two policies that had a tremendous impact on college participation and college access. Higher education is important for numerous reasons but most notably is the idea that higher education has been known to develop critical thinkers and shape students attitudes and values (Meader, 1998).

As shown by the research, affirmative action is a practice that affects education at all levels by revamping the applicant pool to include all groups and not just a select few (Feinberg, 1996). Along with the Higher Education Act of 1965, Congress later passed

the Educational Amendment act of 1972, Title IX. Title IX has had many implications over the years. The passing of Title IX came during the era which the Women's Movement and the Civil Rights movement were having the largest impact on society (Coakley, 2004). America's long history of discrimination was being challenged in every direction from gender discrimination to racial inequalities. The government felt pressure to change and Title IX was a policy to help facilitate the process. Title IX made it illegal to discriminate based on gender in any educational setting from kindergarten all the way to higher education. Schools in violation of Title IX could lose their federal funding if they continued with practices deemed to be discriminatory based on gender.

Historical Background of Title IX and Sport in Society

Title IX of the Educational Amendment Act of 1972 was legislation passed to forbid gender discrimination in any educational setting that receives federal funding: Title IX states:

> "No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any educational program or activity receiving federal financial assistance (Title 20 U.S.C.)."

Title IX originated from the 1965 presidential executive order, this order prohibited federal contractors from discrimination in employment on the basis of race, color, religion, or national origin (Valentin, 1997). The executive order was originally amended by President Johnson to include discrimination based on sex as a provision of the amendment to Title VI of the Civil Rights Act. African American leaders were against amending Title VI, arguing that an amendment to the act including gender would

diminish its coverage. In response to these concerns Title IX was developed as a new and separate act. Title IX was accepted by Congress and passed as a bill on June 8, 1972. President Nixon signed Title IX into law on June 23, 1972 and the law became effective as of July 1, 1972 (Valentin, 1997).

The coverage of Title IX expands over every area of an educational institution. After Title IX was passed educational institutions were no longer allowed to hold discriminatory practices in areas pertaining to the admission of students, the recruitment of students, course offerings, counseling, financial aid, housing, scholarships or any other service that was provided to students by the institution, including athletics (Gavora, 2002). Title IX applies to every school receiving federal funds through grants, scholarships, or any other type of support given to students for extracurricular programs, research, and/or academics, directly or indirectly. If an institution, public or private is found to have discriminated against either gender in the realm of curriculum, counseling, academic support, or educational opportunities in general, federal funds can be withdrawn from that institution (Coakley, 2004). Title IX has drawn the most attention in relation to its coverage of college athletics. One reason athletics has received more scrutiny than other departments is because the largest amount of disparity is often found in athletic departments.

There is an array of literature that pertains to the impact of Title IX on female athletics. According to the National Federation of State High School Association, prior to the passage of Title IX in 1971 there were 3.7 million young men participating in sports as compared to 294,000 young women. The year after Title IX was passed into law the number of women participating in sports increased to 817,073, and by 1977-78 the

number of young women between the ages of 5-18 participating in sports had increased to over 2 million (Whisenant, 2003).

Although Title IX was intended to eliminate gender discrimination from any educational institution receiving federal funding, it has received increasing amounts of attention from colleges and universities all across the nation (Carpenter & Acosta, 2004). Speculation for this extra attention is that over the past thirty-two years, Title IX has required numerous changes in athletic programs at both the high school and collegiate level. Title IX made it illegal for sport programs to continue on with male privilege and demanded that changes be put in place in order to make athletic programs equitable to all. Individuals in support of Title IX maintain the claim that the changes brought about by the enforcement of the law have improved conditions for everyone involved in athletics; on the other hand individuals who oppose Title IX claim that the law has done more damage than good by singling out and impairing particular groups of people, mainly male athletes.

Research has proven that Title IX has benefited an enormous number of female athletes, women who grew up before Title IX did not have very many opportunities to participate in different sports but women today are finding that opportunities to participate in sports have increased for young women and there are more opportunities and better conditions in collegiate sports than before. A number of studies have found, when examining the impact of Title IX, the amount of progress occurring pertaining to the rate and quality of women's participation is remarkable. Women athletes now have options from better facilities to practice and play in, as well as enhanced travel accommodations when out on the road (Miller, Heinrich, & Baker, 2000).

The criticism of Title IX does not dispute that there has been progress when it comes to women in sport. The critics agree that women have been able to accomplish a great deal after the passing of Title IX but they feel that these strides have come at the expense of men by eliminating their athletic opportunities. For example, in recent years a number of collegiate athletic programs have decided to eliminate what they consider to be "minor" men's sports, such as wrestling, men's tennis, men's soccer, and men's track and field as a way to meet Title IX compliance and have their sport programs gender equitable. College and university Presidents along with Athletic Directors have decided it is more practical to discontinue sports like wrestling, men's tennis, men's soccer, and men's track and field in order to reduce the amount of spending on men's sports to make it comparable to the amount of spending on women's sport rather than reduce athletic scholarships and budgets in men's sports that are considered "major" sports such as football, basketball and hockey (McBride, Worcester, & Tennyson, 1999). Eliminating or dropping certain men's sports is viewed as a way to reduce the disparity between men and women athletic opportunities. Men's loss of opportunities in wrestling and other sports have caused sports participants, along with fans, to challenge Title IX, arguing that compliance results in discrimination against men (McBride, Worcester, & Tennyson, 1999).

According to Eitzen and Sage (2003), before the passing of Title IX college athletic departments were comprised of only 15% women. Furthermore, for colleges that had a female undergraduate population almost equal or more to that of the male undergraduate population, women's intercollegiate athletic budgets only made up 2% of the entire athletic budget (Eitzen & Sage, 2003). It was reported that the women's athletic

teams at one university in the Big Ten conference school received $40,000 out of an athletic budget that totaled $6 million, and at an even larger southwestern university ten varsity women's sport teams had to split a budget of $200 amongst them (Sigelman & Wahlbeck, 1999). The disparities in these two particular cases along with the numerous other similar situations forced policymakers to understand and develop an amendment such as Title IX to try to alleviate this blatant gender discrimination.

Although Title IX was passed in 1972, equality in women's sports did not come about instantaneously. After Title IX was passed into law, colleges and universities had a three-year grace period in which to comply because there was no formal enforcement by Congress during that time. Instead those three years were used to develop guidelines, hold discussions and meetings, and come to a consensus on a criteria for Title IX enforcement in athletic departments nationwide. When the final guidelines pertaining to Title IX were finally published in 1975 the government enacted another three-year grace period for colleges and universities to comply (Thelin, 2000).

In June of 1974, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare released the proposed regulations that colleges and university athletic departments were to use in order to implement Title IX. The released regulations were very comprehensive and covered every aspect of the educational process (Fishel, 1976). The Department of Health, Education, and Welfare requested comments from various organizations and these comments provided an opportunity to get an idea about the positions of a variety of groups on issues pertaining to gender discrimination in education. According to Fishel (1976), the positions that were taken regarding sex discrimination received accurately reflected the positions taken by the public in regards to gender discrimination.

The Department of Health, Education and Welfare translated Title IX into specific regulations on May 27,1975. According to these regulations, school systems or other educational institutions receiving federal funds were required to designate at least one employee to work as the Title IX Coordinator (Valentin, 1997). The Title IX coordinators main responsibilities included keeping the institution in compliance with Title IX and investigating claims of sexual harassment. Every student and employee was to be made aware of the names, office addresses, and phone numbers of the Title IX coordinator. Title IX was established as a public policy in order to deal with any grievances pertaining to discrimination in the realm of education including sports. Educational institutions receiving federal funding are required to perform a one-time self-evaluation in order to eliminate any practices not in compliance with Title IX (Valentin, 1997). The final required regulation was that educational institutions were to take steps to increase participation in activities where discrimination had occurred.

The current research and literature has shown that the impact of Title IX was intense. Acosta & Carpenter (2004) reported that a few years before Title IX there were about 16,000 college female athletes that participated on varsity teams. These females did not receive athletic scholarships and there was not enough funding available for coaches, travel, or medical assistance. In 1971, the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW) was established. After Title IX was first enacted there was a huge increase for women in athletic participation by women, but leadership positions held previously by women such as coaches, administrators, and officials became male dominated (Acosta & Carpenter, 2004).

From 1971 to 2002, the number of girls participating in high school sports rose 1,000 percent and the number of women playing intercollegiate sports increased 500 percent (Coakley, 2004). When Title IX was passed it was not nearly as controversial in the early 1970's as it is today. The debate about Title IX did not start immediately, the impact of the Women's Movement along with the Civil Rights Movement left the majority of people with the impression that women and minorities deserved the same educational opportunities as men and white people; however when certain individuals who had already developed ideologies of who should and should not participate in sports realized that Title IX could be applied to male dominated sport programs the Title IX controversies began (Coakley, 2004).

Mertz (2002) argued that Title IX continues to be one of the most publicly debated pieces of legislation. Around the time that Title IX was passed the majority of Americans felt that young women should be afforded the same opportunities as young men but when people realized that Title IX could be associated with interscholastic sports many began to object and raise questions about the purpose of Title IX. The majority of society agreed that when it came to an educational classroom setting, gender equity was highly valued; however in the world of sports everything had been highly male dominated and organized around the interests of males, the idea of gender equity was thought to be radical, subversive, disruptive, and politically damaging (Coakley, 2004).

Title IX is a civil rights statute making the enforcement agency the Office of Civil Rights (OCR), the OCR also is responsible for enforcing the Women's Educational Equity Act (WEEA), which was passed in 1974 (Valentin, 1997). The purpose of WEEA was to provide women equitable education by offering incentives. WEEA is different

from Title IX in that Title IX provides sanctions for non-compliance and WEEA provides funding at all educational levels in an effort to overcome gender bias and provide educational equity for women (Valentin, 1997).

In 1979, the assistant secretary of the OCR sent out a letter for clarification of Title IX for intercollegiate athletics due to the numerous questions and controversies that were raised pertaining to the law. The letter stated that, institutions sponsoring an athletic program were required by law to provide equal athletic opportunities for the members of both genders. This letter also informed the institutions of their obligation to effectively accommodate the athletic interests and abilities of both genders using whatever means necessary in order to provide equal athletic opportunities (U.S. Department of Civil Rights the Assistant Secretary, 1979).

The OCR is responsible for the enforcement of the regulations encompassed in Title IX, including the specific context pertaining to college athletics. Colleges are required to provide equal athletic opportunity for members of each gender such as scholarships and grant-in-aid (Shaw, 1995). According to the OCR, Title IX applies to state and local agencies that receive educational funds including around 16,000 local school districts, 3,200 colleges and universities, along with 5,000 for-profit schools including libraries and museums (U.S. Department of Education, 1998). If these programs are found to operate in a discriminatory manner and violate Title IX, then the OCR would receive any complaints and take the necessary steps to enforce the law, by either going through the court systems or in some instances the Supreme Court.

There has been a vast amount of research pertaining to racial discrimination, gender discrimination and Title IX. Studies have examined the roles that race and gender

play in society along with Title IX as it pertains to policy. This research shapes the studies and information already contributing to the existing knowledge base. The suggestion that Title IX has become synonymous with college athletics makes it imperative for one to understand the impact that sport has on society. "Sport and politics always have been institutional partners…particularly where a society's reputation or national pride are at stake. Although in the United States the separation of sport and politics may be viewed as the appropriate relationship, it is not the practiced one (Sage, 1998, p.101)."

It has been argued by many that sport is a microcosm of the larger society (Sage, 1998). The ideologies and views that are held in society are replicated in sports. Sports are seen as an institution that is able to transmit the ideologies of the elite group in an effort to help ensure the maintenance of domination and control over sources of wealth, power, and influence. The perceived image of sport is often exerted in practices, values, and attitudes. This is achieved because sports can contribute to social and political norms from gender relations to attitudes toward homosexuality (Yiannakis & Melnick, 2001).

Sports are viewed in society as a way for people to learn values that are looked upon favorably in society such as self discipline, sportsmanship, hard work, competitiveness and, goal attainment (Frey & Eitzen,1991). Many Americans invest enormous amounts of time, energy, and emotions in sports. The media alone spends thousands of hours covering sports each year and newspapers dedicate entire sections to sports coverage (Sage, 2000). Research pertaining to sport and society became prevalent around 1963. Researchers have spent great amounts of energy developing and discussing the relationship between sport and the American culture. The research has shown that sports

are intertwined in society. Sports have been linked to institutions such as religion, military, politics, the economy, education, culture, heroes, and everyday language. It has also been argued that one can examine sports and find cultural values as a way to maintain the status quo (Yiannakis & Melnick, 2001). Frey & Eitzen (1991) have suggested that sports are a prominent social institution in almost every society because it combines the characteristics found in any institution with a unique appeal only duplicated by religion. Recently, it has been argued that participation in sports is a way to provide the same benefits to both men and women involved in high priority activities (Kelinske, Mayer, & Chen, 2000). However, Title IX, a law that was designed to provide equal benefits, has caused more controversy for collegiate athletics than any other law in the history of non-professional sports in America (Lords, 1999).

Historical and Legal Foundation of Title IX

Once Title IX was enacted the OCR received numerous complaints alleging non-compliance with Title IX. These complaints could not always be resolved amicably and the parties were forced into court to make their claims. There were three landmark cases that affected the way Title IX was handled. One of the most talked about and influential court cases where students sought to have Title IX enforced was Grove City College (Pennsylvania) versus Bell, 1984. This case was important due to the fact that ruling of this case would affect what type of universities, private, public, or both were found under Title IX's jurisdiction (Agthe & Billings, 2000). Grove City College claimed that since they were a private college and their athletic program did not receive federal funds directly they should not be under the jurisdiction of Title IX in regards to athletics. In 1984 the Supreme Court ruled in favor of Grove City College, that college athletic aid

was not under Title IX jurisdiction because the government did not provide the funding directly. With this ruling the Supreme Court suggested that the tenets of Title IX applied only to programs that received federal funds directly. The majority of athletic departments do not receive federal funds directly, so with this ruling the Supreme Court determined that collegiate athletic programs did not have to comply with Title IX legislation. For three years institutions not receiving direct federal funds did not have to comply with Title IX until this ruling was again challenged.

Title IX supporters felt that the Grove City v. Bell ruling was unfair and that gender discrimination should not be tolerated in any college or university's athletic program. The court agreed and in 1987 the Civil Rights Restoration Act was passed. This Act was passed as an attempt to encourage institutions to comply with Title IX by stating that if any part of the institution was receiving any federal funds, directly or indirectly that institution must then comply with Title IX (Agthe & Billings, 2000). Therefore, an educational institution as a whole must comply with Title IX as long as any part of the institution received federal funds. If a public or private institution enrolled students who receive federal funds for any educational purposes, that institution is prohibited from gender discrimination under Title IX, including students receiving Pell Grants (Pieronek, 2000).

Another case that looked at how Title IX was interpreted dealt with measuring the interests of the under represented gender. In Cohen v. Brown University, female students brought suit against Brown University to maintain varsity status for women's gymnastics and volleyball programs. According to Shaw (1995), Brown University claimed that it needed to drop four sport programs for financial reasons, men's water polo and golf

along with the women's gymnastics and volleyball. Members of the university's women's volleyball and gymnastic team sued under Title IX claiming that by dropping the two women sports the university was not meeting the interests or abilities of the female students. The district court ordered Brown University to submit a plan to demonstrate how they could be compliant with Title IX if they eliminated the women's programs. The court reviewed the plan that Brown University submitted and rejected the plan claiming it did not meet the requirements of Title IX. Brown University was ordered by the court to maintain the women's programs at varsity status. In the court's opinion, "an institution violates Title IX if it ineffectively accommodates its students' interests and abilities in athletics" (Pieronek, 2000).

Franklin v. Gwinnett was very instrumental in the enforcement of Title IX because this case was the first time that any monetary damages were awarded to the plaintiff in a Title IX case. Franklin v Gwinnett was not a Title IX case pertaining to athletics but it involved sexual harassment. The plaintiffs in this case fought all the way to the Supreme Court in an effort to find out the availability of monetary damages. Franklin, a high school sophomore in 1986, alleged that she was sexually harassed by one of her teachers. Franklin filed a lawsuit with OCR and it was found that the school district was in violation of Title IX but with the assurance of school officials that no similar incidents in the future would take place the investigation was closed. Franklin filed for damages in a trial court but her case was dismissed (Russo, 2001).

According to Cullers (1995), the court dismissed Franklin's complaint on the basis that monetary awards were not available under Title IX. When taken to the Supreme Court the ruling was reversed and it was found that Title IX does support the

right for damages to be awarded. Carpenter and Acosta (2004) suggested that the 1992 Franklin v Gwinnett decision was an important victory for Title IX supporters because before this case plaintiffs could not receive punitive and compensatory damages. Universities now had an even larger incentive to enforce Title IX because if they were found non compliant and sued they would have to pay the plaintiffs monetary damages.

In an effort to eliminate gender discrimination from schools several bills were passed, including the Improving America's Schools Act (H.R.6). President Clinton signed this bill into law on October 4, 1994. This bill authorized the awarding of grants in an effort to conduct activities at all educational levels in order to help those institutions become compliant with Title IX (U.S Department of Education, 1994). The counterpart to this bill was the Equity in Athletics Disclosure Act (EADA) the passing of this Act was seen as a much needed change for Title IX supporters. The EADA requires all colleges with male and female students enrolled, that participates in federal student aid programs, and sponsor intercollegiate athletic programs to make available an annual report available to the general public. The report must include for each varsity team the number of participants, total operating expenses, gender of the head coach of each team, number of assistant coaches and gender, amount of money spent on athletic aid, total recruiting expenses, total revenues produced by all male and female teams, and the annual salaries of all head coaches. This information is to be collected and reported yearly and disclosed to students and the public on an annual basis (U.S Department of Education, 1994).

In the 1980's there were many changes made because of Title IX. For example, the demise of the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW) due to the

larger governing body of the NCAA decision's to govern women's college sports in 1981 and the effects of lawsuits and legislation pertaining to the application of Title IX (Carpenter & Acosta, 2004). The case law established in the 1980's helped define how far the jurisdiction of Title IX went and by 1980 the number of varsity teams for females on college campuses increased significantly. Additional research found that lawsuits brought under Title IX provided more knowledge and ways to effectively become in compliance with Title IX by focusing more on enforcement and not just jurisdiction (Carpenter & Acosta, 2004).

Theoretical Implications

Despite the idea that America is a melting pot, the American identity is linked to one of privilege (Anderson, 1995). The term gender is a basic principle involving unequal economic and social power dominated by men (Akers, 2006). Gender is socially constructed, diverse, and historically changes over time. Along with gender, race is a term that has been socially and politically constructed around the color of one's skin and other physical characteristics. Race, like gender almost always involves inequalities pertaining to power and resources resulting from domination, exclusion, and exploitation (Akers, 2006). Rothenburg (2004) suggests that in the United States both race and gender differences are constructed based on a hierarchy, making it so that women are not only defined as being different from men, but these differences make them inferior. The same concept holds true for race, people of color aren't just different from white people, but that difference is seen as deviant and inferior (Rothenburg, 2004).

Chafe (2004) describes an analogy in which the experiences of women and blacks are determined by other individuals of power who have kept them in "their place" by

preventing them from changing and forcing them to adhere to the status quo. The analogy approach provides for greater flexibility in examining how the experiences of one group can influence the study of another. It also helps to develop insight into the big picture from which racist and sexist ideologies are passed from one generation to the next. For example, forms of social control such as Jim Crow laws, humiliation, and anger (to name a few tactics) were and sometimes still are used as ways to discriminate against and prevent people of color and women from feeling accepted into the larger society (Chafe, 2004).

Due to the racist and sexist ideologies mentioned above it is clear that social equity is not being achieved in the United States. The premise of equality is that all men and women are created equal and therefore should be provided equal access in all facets of life. Past research has established that the western culture uses equity and equality as terms of allocation (Kahn et al, 1982). Equity and equality have two different meanings and need to be clarified in their use. Equality implies that everyone receives the same reward regardless of merit, whereas, equity means that the reward is distributed based on a measure of contribution (Messick & Cook, 1983).

Racism and sexism prevent everyone from being treated fairly, the social equity theory is going to be the framework for this research. Social equity focuses on equality in government services, responsibility for decisions and program implementation, changes in public management, responsiveness to the needs of citizens, and emphasizes an approach to the study of education for public administration (Fredrickson, 1990). Rice (2004) defines social equity as the fair, just, and equitable management of all institutions serving the public with the commitment to promote fairness, justice, and equity through

public policies. This theory is the basis of this research because equity theorists are concerned with identifying the principles of distributive justice evolving under social conditions. This theory is concerned with investigating inequitable treatment and its consequences on the social system (Messick & Cook, 1983). The primary goal of this study is to investigate the impact that Title IX has made as a public policy. This is important to examine because Title IX is a gender-based policy that does not take race into account. This leads to the assumption that white women and women of color are on equal playing fields. Research has suggested that this is not true and this study wants to examine Title IX on a deeper level in an effort to see if all women are benefiting under the notion of social equity.

Social Equity & Three Prong Test

Even though Title IX was passed more than thirty years ago, compliance issues still remain. Public pressure along with the Supreme Court rulings supported enforcement of Title IX. Neither University athletic departments nor the NCAA started their efforts to comply with Title IX in 1972 when it was first enacted. Thelin (2000) suggested that the reason institutions did not move quickly to promote gender equity was because they were opposed to the law and were silently protesting congressional intent. Another possible reason for the delay in enforcement could be because federal agencies were trying to agree on a criterion to hold colleges and universities accountable. Additionally, the NCAA did not incorporate women's sports into their jurisdiction until 1981, resulting in a delay in implementation.

Eitzen and Sage (2003) suggested that delay in enforcement has been a major obstacle when dealing with Title IX. Some of these obstacles included legal challenges

staged by various groups along with the NCAA being resistant when it comes to compliance. The NCAA did not form the gender equity task force until 1992 to examine problems of compliance at colleges and universities (NCAA, 1993). The lack of compliance over the past thirty years has resulted in many of the current issues such as budgetary constraints, the elimination of women administrators and men's sports, gender equity and race.

Title IX does not require schools and universities to treat men and women's sports as equal, but it does mandate that benefits should be comparable for both (Greenlee, 1997). There are three main criteria a University must meet in order to be in compliance with Title IX, which is commonly referred to as the three-prong test. Gavora (2002) reported that the three-prong test was first introduced in the Athletics Policy Interpretation (API) of 1979 as an instrument used to measure compliance in athletic participation. According to Gavora (2002) the OCR used this test in stages because if a school is unable to comply under the first section it may do so under the second part, and if they still do not comply they have one final opportunity to comply under the third section.

The first prong is proportionality, which means that the proportion of women competing on sports teams must be in proportion with the institution's undergraduate population. The API says that in order for a school to be in compliance with part one, they must provide reasonable participation opportunities and provide comparable award opportunities for the members of each sex. For example, if a school has an undergraduate population that is 48 percent male and 52 percent female then approximately 52 percent of the athletic budget should be allocated to female athletics

(Suggs, 2003 Feb.). Along with the first part the OCR stressed that the equitable assignment of a colleges athletic scholarship should be made available for men's and women's programs in a way that is substantially proportionate to participation rates of male and female athletes (O'Shea & Cantu, 1998).

The second prong of the three-prong test is a continuing history of providing opportunities by the athletic department being evaluated. Colleges and universities must show a continuing practice of program expansion for the underrepresented gender, which in the majority of cases are women. However, no set standards of continuing expansion exist (Suggs, 2003 Feb). The third prong of the test is the interests and abilities section. The school must show a good faith effort that they are fully and effectively accommodating the interests and abilities of the underrepresented gender attending the University (Suggs, 2003). If an institution does not have women's sports, then, in theory, the institution must show that none of the women enrolled in that institution are interested in participating in athletics. An institution can also use this part if they offer a few women's sports and the institution believes that there are no other varsity sports in which women want to participate in. However, if there are club sports in existence requesting varsity status this part cannot be used. If an institution has a club sport with enough members to promote it to a varsity sport, that institution is unable to use the interests and abilities part (Suggs, 2003 Mar.).

Gavora (2002) believes that the three-prong test is regressive and is not the best way to measure compliance with Title IX. If non-compliance is found under part one then the second part is measured as a way to support the first. The problem with using the second part, which requires colleges and universities to show proof of a continuing

history of program expansion, is that it does not specify how long institutions must demonstrate program expansion. The third test of interest and abilities has been found by some to be unreliable. Gavora (2002) argued that this is because the OCR has provided limited guidance for institutions and many critics of the law argue that the three-prong test is really a one-part test of proportionality. The reason behind this logic is the continuing history of expansion and interests and ability prongs are ways in which a university can encourage more female athletic participation and bring the numbers up to meet proportionality, which is part one.

Criticism of the three-prong test has put pressure on the Secretary's Commission on Opportunities in Athletics to recommend several changes in the three-prong test. According to Suggs (2003 Mar.), several proponents of the proportionality test recommended that the OCR allow institutions to survey the sports interests of their students to demonstrate compliance with the three-part test and to supply specific criteria in order to conduct such a survey in a clearer manner. It was also recommended that OCR clarify the meaning of "substantially proportionate" and allow reasonable differences in the ratios of athletic participation, if institutions are adhering to the non-discriminatory tenets of Title IX. Lastly, it was recommended that OCR consider other ways in which to measure Title IX compliance beyond the three-prong test. The API was developed due to the enormous amount of complaints alleging discrimination in athletics at nearly 50 institutions. Subsequently, further clarification was needed in order to specify what was deemed compliance with the law. The API was designed in order to provide a framework to guide institutions in resolving complaints (Cantu, 1995). The Athletics Policy Interpretation was designed specifically for the evaluation of intercollegiate athletic

programs, but general concepts are applicable to a club, intramural, or interscholastic athletic programs as well. The API is to be used as a guide for administrators of these programs and applies to both public and private institutions and any person that operates a program receiving federal financial assistance (Cantu, 1995).

Previous Studies

There have been numerous studies pertaining to Title IX, African American's in sport and women. Miller, Heinrich, and Baker (2000) conducted a study in an effort to see if the sport opportunities offered by the college and universities met the interests of the female students. The study also found that the respondents who participated in the study were content that the sport programs offered met their interests. The study explained that one reason for this could be because the lack of opportunities in sport contributes to the smaller amount of women participating in sport. Therefore, women are likely to be content in the sports programs offered because they never had the opportunity to participate in any other sport programs. The study found that although women are not participating largely in club or intramural sports they are participating in other types of clubs and fitness activities (Miller et al, 2000). This implies that although women may not have reported having an interest to participate in sports, they had the ability.

Sigelman & Wahlbeck (1999) conducted a study on 304 Division I athletic programs to find what needed to be done in order to ensure Title IX compliance. This study found that most schools, especially schools with football are far from reaching compliance with Title IX in athletics. The results also showed that compliance would be easier for schools with a smaller percentage of female students, smaller athletic programs, and no football programs. This study discussed that cutting rosters on the football

programs would bring Division I schools closer to compliance under part one, proportionality. Finally, this study concluded that Division I schools, especially those schools with football programs are the furthest from compliance. These schools have a great deal of work to do to achieve gender equity.

Agthe and Billings (2000) researched the relationship between football profits earned by the NCAA Division IA institutions and their success in meeting part one of Title IX, athletic related student aid. The study found that football profitability was useful to meet the athletic aid standards for gender equity. It addition it showed that being a member of a conference is important for having success in financial aid. The authors concluded that football profits, having a large endowment, and being a state related institution were positive factors to meet gender equity in athletic aid. The efforts to share revenue among teams are focused at the conference level and there is no procedure to share the revenue among conferences (Agthe and Billing, 2000). This study suggests that future research needs to be conducted in order to examine compliance in relation to football profits generated.

Stafford (2004) examined the factors that determine if an intercollegiate athletic program is in compliance with Title IX. The empirical analysis in this article found that the current enforcement mechanisms used for Title IX were relatively ineffective at increasing Title IX compliance. This study found a correlation between the size of the number of female undergraduates attending a college or university and the larger the enrollment size of the institution the smaller the percentage of female undergraduates. This could help the college or university when looking at Title IX compliance because the institution would be more likely to comply under the first prong. Stafford (2004) also

argues that institutions differ significantly and enforcing Title IX the same for all schools puts some institutions at a disadvantage.

Carpenter and Acosta (2004) conducted a longitudinal study of women in intercollegiate sports from 1977-2004. They found that there are more athletic teams available to women than ever before, the average number of women sports teams offered per school was 8.32. Furthermore, between 2002-2004 two hundred and seventy new women's teams were added, soccer was the fastest growing women's sport, and women's sports and Division III[1] colleges and universities are the most likely to have female coaches. It was also concluded that due to several lawsuits enforcement of Title IX would be much stronger, making it a priority for colleges and universities to comply.

Greller, Cochran, and Taylor (1995) conducted a self-assessment of the University of Wyoming in order to see how it addressed the sport interests and needs of the women students. Results revealed that there is a significant difference in the interests women express in competitive and recreational sports. The authors suggest that just because women expressed less interest in sports that does not have any impact on Title IX. Greller, Cochran, and Taylor (1995) argue that the lack of interest in sports proves that the educational system has failed females by not allowing them opportunities to become interested in sports.

Sabo (1998), as a way of analyzing the elimination of men's sport teams, determined whether or not women's progress under Title IX caused removal of men's

[1] Division III institutions are required to sponsor at least five sports for men and five for women, with two team sports for each gender, and each playing season represented by each gender. Division III athletics features student-athletes who receive no financial aid related to their athletic ability and athletic departments are staffed and funded like any other department in the university. (http://www.ncaa.org/about/div_criteria.html)

sport teams. Sabo found that there is no evidence to support the claim that the growth of women's sport opportunities was accompanied by the elimination of men's sports. This study showed that between 1992 and 1997 the increase in men's athletic budgets were larger than the entire costs of women's athletic programs. It was concluded that there needs to be more research in order to understand why administrators feel the need to eliminate men's non-revenue sports because Title IX compliance is not a valid reason.

Hallinan and Snyder (1990) examined whether the values that physical educators had toward female sport participation were different than the values they held for male sport participation in those same sports. It was determined that the subjects of this study, male and females, agreed that sport opportunities for females should come from "female" sports. This study concluded that previous research that found sports for females are based upon levels of acceptability in society still hold true today. It also concluded that women sports that involve pain are held to a lower standard in society because society feels that men are stronger and women should not participate in such sports (Hallinan and Snyer, 1990).

Kelinkse, Mayer and Chen (2001) investigated perceptions of participation. The purpose of the study was to see if participation in sports could provide the same benefits to both men and women. Very few differences between the perceived benefits of males and females from participating in sports were found. This study concluded that behaviors are less likely to have stereotypes when men and women occupy the same role. Women who play sports perceive themselves as having the same advantages as men and sports may be one way to alleviate gender stereotypes (Kelinkse, Mayer and Chen, 2001).

Butler and Lopiano (2003) found that if African American female athletes were only discriminated based off of race their participation rate would increase by 4.4 percent. Lawrence (2005) conducted a study in order to investigate African American athlete's experiences of race in regard to specific incidents during their athletic careers. The study found that race plays a key role in the lives of African American athletes but not in the lives of white athletes. It was also found in this study that the participants experienced racial slurs and physical acts of abuse in their experiences.

Sellers Kuperminc, and Dumas (1997) provided a descriptive analysis of African American females' college life experience. The study found that African American women student athletes are performing well considering the time demands of their sport along with being less prepared for college. The study also found that most African American females perform above the minimal requirements for having good academic standing. Policy makers who want to improve the academic performance of student athletes need to focus on the college life experiences of these athletes in an effort to make it a less hostile environment

CHAPTER II

IMPLEMENTATION OF TITLE IX IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Introduction

Once Title IX enforcement is underway universities must decide how they will comply (i.e. the elimination of men's sports or the addition of women's teams). Universities may also choose to use the interests and abilities prong as a way to meet compliance. As schools examine the advantages and disadvantages of the financial costs of adding athletic opportunities for women against reducing those for men the heated debate over the impact of Title IX emerges (Sigleman & Wahlbeck, 1999).

Proponents of Title IX argue that Title IX has nothing to do with the elimination of men's athletic programs on the college level and suggest that the millions of dollars being spent on men's basketball and football cause the overspending on men's athletics (Boundurant & Kleiner, 2003). The enforcement of Title IX is suppose to provide greater opportunities for women in athletics but often times women athletes of color are disproportionately excluded from the scholarship opportunities due to reform legislation or lack of opportunities (Sellers et al, 1997). One example of the lack of opportunities is the type of female sports being offered.

Often times to meet part two of Title IX, continuing history of expansion, colleges and universities will add women's athletic programs (Mertz, 2002). Suggs (2001) suggested that the majority if not all of the women's sport teams that universities have

added over the last decade attract a large number of suburban White females and very few others. There is some research suggesting that the NCAA promotes sports that people of color are less likely to participate in (Suggs, 2001). According to Suggs (2001) since the NCAA started enforcing Title IX the fastest growing sports in the NCAA have included soccer, rowing, lacrosse, and golf. The numbers of basketball and track teams, which consist predominately of women of color, have only risen slightly even with the migration of other colleges joining the NCAA from the National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics (Suggs, 2001).

There are a number of reasons that African American female athletes do not participate in sports such as soccer, rowing, and lacrosse. Many times urban high schools do not have the type of space needed, such as fields for soccer or nearby golf courses to provide such sports. On top of that there is a lack of qualified individuals available to coach such sports taking away opportunities for youth of color to participate at the high school level (Suggs, 2001).

There have been numerous studies conducted looking at the impact of Title IX on intercollegiate athletics. There has also been a great deal of research pertaining to women in sports but there is insufficient research examining women of color and sports. Title IX is public policy that was designed to alleviate gender discrimination in educational settings. Some studies have suggested a high correlation between the number of women of color on a team and the cultural expression that makes it hard for the few women of color participating in sports such as soccer or crew to adjust to being the one of the few or the only minority on the team (Suggs, 2001). Studies pertaining to the life experiences of women of color female athletes are practically non-existent (Sellers et al,

1997). This calls for more research to be done in this area to help add to the knowledge base on this important topic.

One way in which schools are held accountable is the Equity in Disclosure Act. The Equity in Disclosure Act requires that institutions of higher education publish their participation rates for male and female athletes, operating expenses, coaches' salaries, scholarship budgets and more. This information is provided by the U.S. Department of Education to help give prospective students and their families a way to gain valuable information on schools of interest to prospective applicants. The Secretary of Education collects financial and statistical information on men's and women's college sports (http://ope.ed.gov/athletics/index.asp). Suggs (1999) found that the U.S. Department of Education require colleges and universities to provide additional information about the money spent on men and women's sport teams to help alleviate any argument about discrepancies in spending on athletics.

Another example of inequality was found in the year 2000 where women at Division I universities made up approximately 53 percent of the undergraduate population, around 42 percent of the student-athlete population but only received 30 percent of the total operating expenses at the universities. This was explained because women's college sports have always been funded at the expense of men's football and basketball (Black Colleges, 1997). While football programs typically command a larger portion of the athletic budget, they also have a large number of players on the roster. Compared with the number of women participating in sports program, some argue that compliance and equity is very difficult to achieve for institutions that have football teams.

This is just one example of some of the budgetary and compliance issues that universities are faced with when complying with Title IX.

Suggs (2002a) suggests that many times athletic directors spend the majority of the athletic budget on the larger sports of football and men's basketball in an attempt to bring in money to the college or university. Athletic directors also have an incentive to support women's sports so that they will not be sued under Title IX, which means that the smaller men's sports get whatever money is left over, often times leading to men's sport teams being eliminated due to a lack of resources.

The dilemma when it pertains to college athletics is that college sports are suppose to be an educational venture, making them covered under Title IX. However, most college athletic departments are operated as a "big business". This puts pressure on colleges and universities to overlook the law of Title IX and follow their checkbook. Almost all of the other departments at colleges and universities were able to adapt to Title IX without any major debate proving that if college sports were truly educational venture, the idea that equitable opportunities should not be afforded to males and females would be considered absurd, but since schools are making a profit from college sports, equity is disregarded as the mitigating factor and opportunities are provided to whatever sports are bringing in the most money (Suggs, 2002b).

According to Suggs (2002b) the debate pertaining to Title IX is unfolding in a society where a $30 million sports budget is considered normal. Men's sports such as track and wrestling have coaches who want Congress to change Title IX so that colleges won't cut men's teams simply to comply with the law. Women's advocates of Title IX want athletic directors to decrease the escalating expenses in football and athletic

directors just want to keep lawyers and civil-rights investigators out of their offices (Suggs, 2002b, p. A38).

Challenges for the Title IX Specialist

Title IX was passed as a public policy in 1972. In 1979, the Policy Interpretation of Title IX was published in an effort to clarify how to comply with Title IX when dealing with athletics. This explained many things pertaining to Title IX and included three measures, which an institution can use in order to demonstrate compliance with the interests and abilities factor used for determining equivalence in athletic benefits and opportunities called the "three prong test." The three prongs are proportionality, continuing history of expansion, and interests and abilities (U.S Department of Education, 2005).

Title IX specialist and administrators are in a peculiar situation, forced with the decision of considering the student's best interest rather than what is financially affordable for the institution. When Universities eliminate men's teams based on Title IX legislation, a hostile environment is created. The institutions place the disadvantaged male athlete who lost his sport up against the disadvantaged female athletes who don't have an opportunity to participate (Mosley, 1997). Sabo (1998) found that the frequent assumption opponents of Title IX make is that the progress that women have made under Title IX has required non-revenue sports to be eliminated.

Prior to passing of Title IX, in the early nineteenth century, formal education was limited exclusively to upper-class men; however it gradually grew to include women. The reason for this primarily was the assumption by the majority of society that higher education was detrimental to the physical and mental well being of women. Society felt

that women only needed to be educated as a way to prepare them to raise and nurture children (Kerbo, 2006). Kerbo (2006) also argued that gender ideologies were created in society as a way to cause structural constraints for women and in turn affect educational opportunities. The lack of educational opportunities is imperative to examine because the lack of these opportunities makes a significant difference when looking at educational attainment based on gender.

Kerbo (2006) conducted a study showing that from 1960-1999 the gap between men and women in educational attainment had narrowed significantly. The college completion rates have risen four times for women and doubled for men. Although there have been great accomplishments for women's education women still tend to be over represented in education, health, and English; they are underrepresented in science, math, and engineering.

Recent research has shown that while conditions for women in intercollegiate sports improved there are still inequalities. Acosta & Carpenter (2004) found that when Title IX came about in 1972 women coached 90 percent of women's teams, conversely in 2004 women only held 44 percent of the head coaching positions. Also men coach over half the number of women's teams but only 2 percent of men's teams are coached by women. Whisenant (2003) describes how women managing women's programs have also had a rapid decline since Title IX. Before Title IX women managed over 90 percent of women's teams but in 2002 that number dropped to under 20 percent. These changes can be attributed to the fact that Title IX does not apply to coaches and administrators so as athletic participation increased for women, management positions were eliminated (Eitzen & Sage, 2003).

In 1991, as a response to the public pressure of enforcing Title IX, the NCAA developed a gender equity questionnaire for all of the member institutions to complete. Shaw (1995) reported that the gender equity survey analyzed the participation rates and the funding of female athletes. Although overall enrollment of males and females surveyed in Division I institutions were nearly equal, the men's programs received almost 70 percent of the athletic scholarship funding, 77 percent of operating dollars, and 83 percent of the recruiting funds. The majority of these inequities resulted from men's football teams that had on average between 100-150 participants.

In 1992, a Gender Equity Task force was formed, which consisted of a 16-member panel that completed a gender equity survey and submitted the final report to the NCAA council in August 1993. Recommendations included that the NCAA should take an affirmative stance in an effort to ensure equality for women in intercollegiate athletics, and develop a firm definition of gender equity (Shaw, 1995).

The NCAA gender task force defined gender equity as follows:

- The Association asserts the values of equitable participation and treatment of men and women in intercollegiate athletics through its structure, programs, legislation and policies. It is the responsibility of the Association to act affirmatively to assure equity in the quantity and quality of participation in women's athletics.

- At an institutional level, gender equity in intercollegiate athletics describes an environment in which fair and equitable distribution of overall athletics opportunities benefits and resources is available to women and men and in which student-athletes, coaches and athletics administrators are not subject to gender-based discrimination.

- An athletics program can be considered gender equitable when the participants in both the men's and women's sports programs would accept as fair and equitable the overall program of the

> other gender. No individual should be discriminated against on the basis of gender, institutionally or nationally, in intercollegiate athletics (NCAA Gender-Equity Task Force Report, 1993, p.2).

The NCAA task force encouraged NCAA member institutions to support emerging sports for women and endorsed the three-prong test as an appropriate measure of equitable participation.

It has been reported that not all of the gender equity complaints under Title IX have come from women. According to Eitzen & Sage (2003) the majority of University Presidents and Athletic Directors have refused to cut back on the large amount of money spent on men's football and basketball resulting in a major crunch on athletic budgets. This has resulted in some men's teams being eliminated, which has led to complaints that Title IX compliance is hurting men's intercollegiate sports.

It cannot be denied that Title IX has in many ways increased opportunities for women participants in intercollegiate athletics. However, Carroll and Humphreys (2000) found it appears that in many cases this advancement has been at the expense of men by reducing men's athletic opportunities as opposed to expanding women's. Suggs (2002) found that even though the revenues and expenses increased for Division I institutions the majority of athletic departments do not make money from athletic program. Since, plaintiffs in Title IX cases can now receive punitive damages and lack of compliance can lead to a loss of federal funds, universities find themselves in a rush to comply.

Eitzen and Sage (2003) argued that the majority of advocates of Title IX do not support the elimination of men's sports in order accomplish that goal. Decisions to eliminate men's sports are made for numerous reasons, thus to blame Title IX is an unfair

assertion (Eitzen & Sage, 2003). Alternatives to eliminating men's sport teams do exist. For instance, an institution could raise new revenue, increase ticket prices, trim budgets in football and men's basketball, cut budget across a conference, pass new legislation, etc (Mosley, 1997).

The increasing attention received by Title IX along with the continued debates about the intent of the law has led to some suggestions for reform. Complaints from men's sport associations prompted Congress to hold a Title IX hearing to listen to complaints (Staurowsky, 1996). Suggs (2003) reported that the U.S. Secretary of Education has considered changes in the rules of Title IX that could in essence cost women between 10-30 percent of the participation opportunities that they currently enjoy at Division I universities along with millions of dollars in athletic scholarships. Male athletes have lost opportunities as colleges try to comply with Title IX and it was recommended that the Education Department come up with a new set of rules in order to help male gymnasts, wrestlers, and other non- revenue men sports from being eliminated (Suggs, 2003.).

Rhoades (2004) suggested that the objective of Title IX reform was not to eliminate the law but to provide athletic opportunities for both genders based on interests. Race is another issue that needs to be examined when discussing Title IX. Few research studies pertaining to race exist, but the current literature suggested that women of color are at a disadvantage under Title IX.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH QUESTION AND SUB-QUESTIONS

Statement of the Problem

Although research exists pertaining to the interests and abilities of female students under Title IX of the Education Amendments Act, very little research has been done examining the interests and abilities of female athletes of color. In athletics, colleges and universities that add programs traditionally dominated by white women, may systematically create barriers which lead to unequal access for women of color. Similar to affirmative action, this practice of program expansion has brought into question whether women of color can benefit from the promise of gender equity in sports under Title IX.

Definition of Terms

- *Women of color* - defined as female participants in the study that self-select an ethnic/racial identification under demographics other than White (i.e., black, Hispanic, American Indian, Asian/Pacific Islander, and Other).
- *Men of color* - defined as male participants in the study that self-select an ethnic/racial identification under demographics other than White (i.e., black, Hispanic, American Indian, Asian/Pacific Islander and Other).
- *NCAA* - National College Athletic Association, the governing body of intercollegiate athletics.

- *Three-Prong Test* – Also referred to as the three-part test, three ways in which colleges and universities measure compliance with Title IX:
- *Part 1* (Proportionality) - Male-female athletic participation that is proportional to the institution's undergraduate enrollment;
- *Part 2* (Program Expansion) - Continuing history of expansion of athletics programs for the under-represented gender;
- *Part 3* (Interests and Abilities) - Accommodating the interests and abilities of the under-represented gender (NCAA News, 2006).
- *NCAA Division I*- sponsor at least seven sports for men and seven for women (or six for men and eight for women) providing two team sports for each gender. Every playing season must be represented by each gender as well. There are contest and participant minimums for each sport, along with scheduling criteria. (http://www.ncaa.org/about/div_criteria.html).

Race and Gender

Sports have been undeniably seen as a microcosm of the larger society (Sage, 1998). As such racism is apparent in sports at all levels of participation. Historians agree that women of color have a different idea of femininity than their white counterparts. According to Birrell and Cole (1994) this difference can be attributed to the difference between women of color and white women's socioeconomic status. Women of color had lives that mandated hard physical labor and employers were unlikely to excuse black women from doing certain task because of their femininity. There was also a difference in the way that other people of color viewed black female athletes. For example, at Tuskegee University, a prestigious historical black college and university, Tuskegee

students did not view female athletes as “ugly” or “masculine.” The honor of “Miss Tuskegee” was regularly given to female athletes. Qualities such as personality, athleticism, and beauty were not seen as mutually exclusive (Birrell & Cole, 1994).

Butler and Lopiano (2003) found that many researchers suggested that female athletes of color have not gained as many opportunities under Title IX as their White counterparts. It has also been suggested that Title IX has hurt male athletes of color (Butler & Lopiano, 2003). This can be attributed to the current state of race relations in America along with the lack of reliable data on participation rates for people of color. Butler and Lopiano (2003) also argued that race and gender inequalities are intertwined by their very natures and when female athletes face discrimination because of their gender athletes of color are affected. When an athlete faces discrimination based on race, students of color are also affected. This puts female athletes of color at a double disadvantage facing the effects of gender and racial discrimination.

Corbett and Johnson (2000) describe some of the barriers that African American women face in intercollegiate athletics. For example, limited financial support, lack of administrative support, lack of African American sportswomen leaders, discrimination in hiring, and lack of African American coaches are just a few of the many barriers that make it harder for African American women in intercollegiate athletics.

Women of color in general have not benefited from Title IX due to the expansion of women’s athletics, which has involved sports that women of color participate in minimally (Greenlee, 1997). In fact, 97 percent of female athletes of color participate in basketball or track and field so the emerging sports such as gymnastics, swimming, and

crew are unlikely to attract females of color placing them at a disadvantage (Greenlee, 1997).

Smith (2000) argued that female athletes of color traditionally participate in tennis, basketball, as well as track and field because racial traditions and exclusion from mainstream America would not give them access to the mainstream sports structure. For example, in 1916 the American Tennis Association was formed because African Americans were not allowed to participate in the segregated United States Lawn Tennis Association. These barriers continue to create problems in society today because the majority of people of color, due to lack of resources, can only afford access to certain sports (Smith, 2000).

Lawrence (2005) suggested that a culture of racism is ingrained deeply in sports today but very few studies have been conducted addressing the feelings, attitudes, and experiences of athletes of color. Along with the issue of racism, female athletes of color are at the center of two important issues that face intercollegiate athletics, Title IX and the academic reform movement in the NCAA. The reform movement is an attempt to enhance the academic visibility of student athletes by raising the initial eligibility requirements. The problem with this movement is that athletes of color are disproportionately eliminated from athletic scholarship opportunities as a result of this act (Sellers, Kuperminc, & Damas, 1997).

The Racial and Gender Report Card (2004) found that NCAA member institutions improved their record for gender and hiring practices but did not improve when it came to hiring practices based on race (Lapchick, 2005). Work still needs to be done in order for equality to be met in intercollegiate athletics for both race and gender.

> Racism, then is a salient aspect of the structure of American society. The most important aspect of this form of stratification is that it excludes people of color from equal access to socially valued rewards and resources. They tend to have less wealth, power, and social prestige than do other Americans. Moreover, racism has built-in policies and practices that systematically discriminates against people in employment, housing, politics, education, health care and many other areas. These conditions result in fewer human resources and diminished life chances for African Americans (Sage, 2000, p.4)

Shortly after the development of slavery in the United States, a racist belief system that slaves were subhuman was formed, as a way to justify the owning of human beings as slaves (Kerbo, 2006). The Emancipation Proclamation freed the slaves, but this policy did not stop the ideologies or culture of individuals who still felt African Americans were inferior. “Jim Crow” legislation which legally segregated African Americans from others in society and denied them the right to vote and denied them access to court systems is another example of public policy gone awry (Kerbo, 2006). In 1910, the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) was founded as a way to organize protests and eliminate the unfair treatment that people of color experienced. In the 1950’s, the Civil Rights movement commenced in order to demand that African Americans be given the most basic rights promised by the Constitution such as life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness (Kerbo, 2006). African Americans were eventually given the right to vote and “Jim Crow” laws no longer existed but there are still other more subtle forms of discrimination taking place in society today.

Sage (2000) found that the economic gap between White and African American households has grown in past years and the poverty rate for African Americans is double that of their White counterparts. African Americans make up less than three percent of

senior management positions and African Americans own only two percent of 17 million business firms. Thus while people of color have made great strides in society there is still a long way to go before total equality is met.

Significance of the Study

Thirty years after implementation, Title IX calls into question the opportunities that female students of color have in America's college and universities. Due to the interpretation of the law, many colleges and universities are faced with challenges for demonstrating how they comply with Title IX. In addition, there has been very little guidance from the Office of Civil Rights when institutions attempt to bring their policies and practices into compliance. While the need to ensure progress in eliminating discrimination against women outweighs the disappointment with the progress of Title IX, research which focuses on describing the impact of the policy at the societal level is vital to progress in this country. As such, the purpose of this study is to assess whether sports programming at the University of Akron has promoted equity among women of color.

In order to comply with Title IX, institutions must utilize the test of compliance under three possible options:

1. *Male-female athletics participation that is proportional to the institution's undergraduate enrollment;*
2. *A continuing history of expansion of athletics programs for the under-represented gender; and*
3. *Accommodating the interests and abilities of the under-represented gender* (NCAA News, 2006).

While individually each of these tests are not ideal, collectively they represent a clear picture for gender equity in sports participation. Just recently, the Department of

Education developed a survey instrument, which can be used to measure the interests and abilities of female students. The U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics (2005) defines three means in which institutions can demonstrate compliance in order to determine equivalence in athletic benefits and opportunities. This is called the three-prong test and an institution can be found to be in compliance with Title IX if they meet any of the following regulations:

1. Demonstrate that intercollegiate level participation opportunities for male and female students are provided in numbers substantially proportionate to their respective enrollments; or
2. Where the members of one sex have been and are underrepresented among intercollegiate athletes, show history and continuing practice of program expansion which is demonstrably responsive to the developing interest and abilities of the members of that sex; or
3. Where the members of one sex are underrepresented among intercollegiate athletes, and the institution cannot show a continuing practice of program expansion such as that cited above (in part 2), demonstrate that the interests and abilities of the members of that sex have been fully an effectively accommodated by the present program (44 Fed. Reg. 71,418 Dec. 11, 1979).

In an effort to promote social equity the researcher is examining the way in which compliance is measured. Rice (2004) defines social equity as the fair, just and equitable management of all institutions serving the public along with the fair and just implementation of public policy and the commitment to promote fairness, justice, and equity in the formation of a public policy.

The researcher argues that the best way to promote social equity is to look at the interests and abilities (part three) for compliance. Research has demonstrated that proportionality and continuing history are not the best ways in which to measure Title IX compliance. Part one, proportionality has been seen by some as a quota system. Gavora (2002) argues that schools have started to eliminate “minor” men’s sports such as golf,

wrestling, and men's swimming in an effort to balance the numbers and meet proportionality. For example, Providence College cut their men's baseball program the year after the team produced their season with the most wins. No new women's sport teams were added and the men lost their sport (Gavora, 2002). This has caused many to question the fairness of proportionality. Unequal sports participation does not necessarily mean that there is discrimination.

Gavora (2002) also argues that continuing history and expansion is not the most effective way to measure Title IX compliance. The Office of Civil rights does not specify an endpoint for this measurement. Institutions are therefore faced with the problem of determining how much continuing expansion is enough. There is also the argument that sport programs that are added are not sports that women of color historically participate in (Greenlee, 1997). An emerging sport is a sport recognized by the NCAA that is intended to provide additional athletic opportunities to female student-athletes. Institutions are allowed to use emerging sports to help meet the NCAA minimum sports-sponsorship requirements and also to meet the NCAA's minimum financial aid awards. The current "emerging sports" in the NCAA are archery, badminton, equestrian, rugby, squash, synchronized swimming, and team handball (http://www.ncaa.org). Social equity will be hard to achieve under this requirement.

To meet social equity the interests and abilities measurement is the most effective way. The interests and abilities requirement allows institutions to provide the sport programs that the student would like to participate in. If done correctly in an effort to meet social equity this requirement will allow an institution to provide opportunities to all students' requesting them. Interests and abilities (part three), therefore, would be the most

efficient way to determine discrimination under Title IX in athletics. The idea behind this part would allow for the individual students to inform the college or university that they are enrolled at what sport if any they would be interested in participating in. This part would also allow for the institutions to gather input on what the students perceive to be working and not working. Since Title IX complaints are filed by individuals to the Office of Civil Rights, it would be in the best interest for all parties involved to ensure that the individuals do not feel discriminated in athletics under Title IX.

Research Question

According to Title IX at Thirty Report Card (2002), when institutions of higher education have achieved equivalence in athletic benefits and opportunities, all students can expect the following outcomes:

- Equal athletic participation opportunities
- Proportional athletic scholarship funding
- Expanded opportunities for all student athletes
- Equality in the treatment and benefits provided to student athletes

The main purpose of this research is to explore the difference in the athletic opportunities of men and women by race and ethnicity. To examine the effectiveness of Title IX to all students, the researcher will explore this key question: "How do the athletic opportunities offered at The University of Akron match the interests and abilities of students by race and gender?"

Sub-Questions

In order to examine the main research question, the researcher will use the following sub-questions to guide this research:

1. Do women of color and white female students differ on their high school sports participation level?
2. Do men of color and white male students differ on their high school sports participation level?
3. Do women of color and white female students differ on their current participation level?
4. Do men of color and white male students differ on their current participation level?
5. Do women of color and white female students differ on their current level of interest in future participation?
6. Do men of color and white male students differ on their current level of interest in future participation?
7. Is there a difference between women of color and white females on their self-assessed ability to participate in sports they indicated an interest in?
8. Is there a difference between men of color and white males on their self-assessed ability to participate in sports they indicated an interest in?

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine how Title IX has impacted women of color at the University of Akron. Minimal research has been conducted pertaining to women in sport, Title IX, and/or race. The researcher aimed to explain if there were differences among what sport women of different races will participate in. The researcher also examined the model of compliance currently used by colleges and universities (the three-prong test) to see which prong, can measure accurately and effectively gender discrimination in college athletics.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire used in this study was developed by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) and adapted to fit this study. The NCES is the primary federal agency responsible for collecting, analyzing, and reporting data related to education in the United States (U.S. Department of Education, 2005). The questionnaire developed by the NCES is an online questionnaire that consists of several components. The questionnaire measures student perceptions and experiences about sports programming at the University of Akron. A copy of the questionnaire is included in Appendix A.

In an effort to ensure that only University of Akron students had access to the questionnaire the first component of the questionnaire consisted of a login screen. The login screen required that students provide their University of Akron net identification along with their password in order to access the questionnaire. The researcher did not have access to the student's passwords and the University of Akron net identification was only used to track responses not to identify students. The second component introduced the questionnaire and informed the respondents of the purpose of the study, along with providing a confidentiality statement and a detailed explanation of the structure of the instrument.

The third component informed students that for their willingness to participate in the questionnaire they would be entered into a drawing to receive a free I-Pod. This screen also required the students to give consent in order to participate in the questionnaire. The consent form informed the respondents that their participation was completely voluntary and that their answers would be kept confidential. Once consent was obtained respondents continued on to the next screen. If respondents did not give consent then they would exit the questionnaire.

Students that gave their consent and agreed to participate in the questionnaire were directed to the fourth component that requested demographic data. Students were asked age, gender, race/ethnicity, current year in school, student status, household income, and what types of classes they were taking. The fifth component asked the students to report information about athletic experience, current participation in athletic activities, interests in future participation and their athletic abilities. Students had the option to select one of two boxes, the first box stated that they wished to report

experience, current participation, interests in future participation or abilities and the second box stated that they had no athletic experience, current participation or interests in future participation.

Respondents that chose the second box stating they had no experience or interests to report were taken to a screen asking what were the primary reasons they did not participate in sport programming at the University of Akron. After they responded to that question they were taken to another screen that asked them which of the following sport teams they would come to watch at the University of Akron and if there are any sports that they would watch that the University of Akron did not offer. They were then taken to the final component of the questionnaire.

Respondents that chose to report interests in participation were taken to the sixth component, which explained the next set of questions pertaining to athletic experience, participation, and ability. Respondent were given definitions for experience, current participation, interests in future participation, and ability. The seventh component allowed respondents who wanted to enter information pertaining to athletic experience, interests, and ability to select the sports that they wanted to provide information about. This component was continued onto the next screen and the respondents were asked to report interests in future participation and ability. If respondents decided to comment on more than one sport then they were taken back to the seventh component where they could comment on high school, current participation, future participation, and ability for up to fours sports. The eighth component provided the respondents with the opportunity to include comments and other feedback, required them to click a button to record

responses, and thanked them for their participation. This screen also allowed for them to enter their email address in order to be entered into the drawings.

The online questionnaire developed by the NCES was found to be simplistic, had an explicit explanation of reasons for the data collection, provided an explicit confidentiality statement, provided an opportunity for a no interest response, and had a non-prejudicial statement of terms. The survey instrument used to collect the quantitative data in this study focused on 1) the university's ability to match the sport interests of women attending the University of Akron as undergraduate students and 2) its ability to address women's interests in comparison to that of men. The 2-Way system was used to deliver the survey instrument.

The survey instrument was administered to students who attended the University of Akron in fall academic year 2006-07. The primary data used for analysis in this study was collected from responses generated from a web-based questionnaire. The web-based questionnaire was administered using the 2WAY interactive system. This system allows for researchers to design and modify questionnaires with ease, publish questionnaires to the web, and generate immediate data response reports (Berry, 2005).

Population

The sample for this study consisted of undergraduate University of Akron students between the ages of 18-25. The list of students along with electronic mail addresses (email) was obtained through the Vice President of Public Affairs and Development. The University of Akron is an NCAA Division I-A institution and the population for this study was full-time and part-time undergraduate students between the ages of 18-25 (N=14,698) who were enrolled at the University of Akron during the fall

2006 semester. Since the researcher was conducting the questionnaire online this further limited the population to students with an active e-mail account (N=14,012). There were 251 questionnaires returned with a message that they were undeliverable and twelve participants opted not to participate in the questionnaire. This made the final number of participants 13,752. There was no power analysis conducted because the study consisted of a population and not a sample.

Respondents

The respondents for this study were undergraduate students attending the University of Akron fall semester 2006. Since the unit of analysis for this study is individuals, university students are the most appropriate persons for determining whether the University of Akron has met their needs and interests with regard to sports programming. As was discussed earlier, compliance with Title IX is met by approximating proportionality by gender to undergraduate enrollment, continued expansion of programming, and by fully accommodating the athletic interests of all students.

The research population of this study consisted of University of Akron students who were between the ages of 18 and 25. The email addresses of these students were drawn from the master list of all students attending the University of Akron during the Fall 2006 semester. The list of emails was obtained through the Office of the Vice President of Public Affairs and Development at the University of Akron. After IRB approval was received the office of development pulled the email addresses of all undergraduate students in the subset attending the university in the 2006 fall semester. The researcher did not have direct access to the list of students in order to protect the

confidentiality of the participants in the study. The researcher composed an email message that contained the link of the questionnaire, concise instructions on how to proceed with the survey, and information on how to contact the researcher if they had any questions or concerns with the questionnaire.

The Office of the Vice President of Public Affairs and Development then administered the questionnaire via email to 13,752 students, which yielded a total of 3,219 respondents. The University of Akron generated the email but the return email address was that of the researcher. Any student that did not want to not participate in the survey had the option to delete the email and send a request to the researcher not to receive any further reminders. There were a total of four emails sent out. The first email explained the reason for the questionnaire, contained the link to the questionnaire, and gave directions on how to participate in the study. The second email was sent to help students who had problems logging onto the questionnaire and the email also contained the questionnaire link. The last two emails were reminders to students and asked them to complete the survey if they hadn't already done so.

Data Collection Procedures

The data collection procedures followed the guidelines for web-based research by Berry (2005). The following approach was followed when conducting this survey:

- A research team that included a web consultant was established
- A web application was utilized in order to create an attractive form survey
- The survey instrument was pre-tested in an online environment

- Clear instructions were provided to help users maneuver through the computer application
- The survey was published on a secure website
- Personalized emails were sent to notify the respondents selected to complete the survey
- University of Akron passwords were required to gain access to the survey
- During the follow up another copy of the survey in an e-mail and attached file were sent out
- The log of data was closely monitored in order to identify problems with web servers
- A troubleshooting procedure was developed to address potential problems that might occur

After the questionnaire was developed for the web environment, a small number of students were asked to test the questionnaire application using the 2Way technology. Students between the ages of 18-25 were sent personalized emails that informed them that a University of Akron current doctoral candidate was conducting a survey, explained the purpose of the survey, and provided clear instructions on how to respond to the questionnaire using the 2Way application (Berry, 2005).

The email directions instructed the students to double click on the URL address provided or to copy and paste the complete address into their web browsers in order to make the questionnaire appear (Berry, 2005). Informed consent was obtained after the students went to the online survey. After students logged on to take the survey the first

page gave a detailed explanation of the purpose of the research and participants had to acknowledge giving consent to participate in the study in order to continue onto the next screen. After one week the questionnaire was resent to those student who did not respond to the first questionnaire and then sent again to increase the survey response rate. Survey responses were tracked daily to ensure that the system was working properly and to analyze responses. The survey was taken down on Day 25 after both reminders were sent out and the response rates started to drop off once again.

Response Rates

As with any survey research it is important to make sure that you have an appropriate response rate to add to the validity of the study. In order to increase the response rate for this study, participants were entered into a drawing to win a free I-Pod. When the responses started to decline the researcher then informed students that another drawing was being held giving them a chance to win a $100 Visa gift card that could be used anywhere that Visa was accepted. The subject line for the last reminder email read "Be entered into a drawing to win a free I-Pod or $100 gift card. The student newspaper, The *"Buchtelite"*, also put a notice on the front page of the newspaper reminding students to log onto the website and complete the questionnaire. In addition, the reminder notice also confirmed that respondents would be entered into a free drawing to receive an I-Pod or $100 gift card. Table 1, demonstrates the day-by-day survey response rates of students who completed the questionnaire.

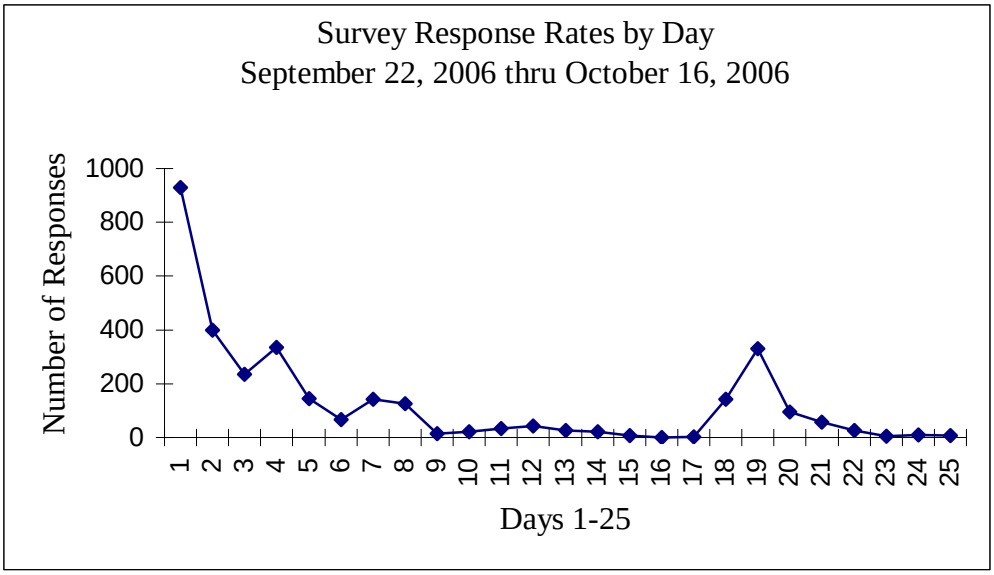

Figure 1: Online Survey Number of Responses by Day

As indicated by Figure 1, the largest number of students responded to the survey on Day 1. The response rate started to decrease significantly by Day 6 and then increased slightly on Day 7, after the first reminder was sent out. After another significant decline in responses on Day 17 the second and final reminder was sent out on Day 18. This reminder generated numerous responses helping the researcher reach an overall response rate of 23 percent.

Table 1
Frequency Distribution of University of Akron Students Compared to Study Population and Survey Respondents

	University of Akron*		Study Population**		Survey Respondents	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Race/Ethnicity						
Native American	76	0.3	41	0.3	12	0.4
Asian/Pacific Islander	442	1.9	294	2.0	68	2.1
African American	2811	11.9	1745	11.9	235	7.3
Hispanic	266	1.1	157	1.0	45	1.4
White	18285	77.7	12017	81.8	2794	86.8
Other	1659	7.1	444	3.0	65	2.0
Total	23539	100.0	14698	100.0	3219	100.0
Gender						
Male	11063	47.0	7411	50.4	1320	41.0
Female	12476	53.0	7287	49.6	1899	59.0
Total	23539	100.0	14698	100.0	3219	100.0

*Source: The University of Akron, Institutional Research, Quick Facts Site. Retrieved November 9, 2006, from www.uakron.edu/ir/QuickFacts.php.
**Source: The University of Akron, Institutional Research, A. Mahapatra (Personal Communication October 12, 2006.

As shown in Table 1 the results of the data collection process indicated that when comparing the University of Akron population with the study population it was found that the study population was very similar to the population at the University of Akron, however; whites were slightly overrepresented and the "other" race category was underrepresented. Survey respondents closely reflected the grouping of the study population with the exception of whites being slightly overrepressented and African American's being slightly underrepresented.

Measures

To explore the eight sub-research questions, the researcher has identified the following variables as key to this study: student's high school sport experience, current participation level, interest in future participation, and sport ability (as delineated by the

30 NCAA sponsored sports listed in Appendix B. Responses from a series of four questions were used to measure the constructs of experience, current participation, interests in future participation, and sport ability.

To measure experience, students were asked, "At what level did you participate in this sport in high school?" Response categories were recreational, intramural, club junior varsity, varsity, and other. To measure current participation, students were asked, "At what level are you participating in this sport at the University of Akron?" Response categories were recreational, intramural, club, intercollegiate, none, and other.

To measure interests in future participation, students were asked, "At what level do you wish to participate in this sport at the University of Akron?" Response categories were recreational, intramural, club, intercollegiate, none and other. To measure ability, students were asked, "Do you believe that you have the ability to participate at the level which you indicated interest?" Response categories were Yes, I have the ability and No, I would need to develop the ability.

Data Analysis Procedure

To examine the first and second questions "Do women of color and white female students differ on their high school sports participation level?" and "Do men of color and white male students differ on their high school sports participation level?" A contingency table analyses with the chi-square test of significance was used to examine if there was a significant difference between the independent and dependant variables (George & Mallery, 2001). To examine the third and fourth research questions "Do women of color and white female students differ on their current participation level?" and

"Do men of color and white men students differ on their current participation level?" A contingency table analyses with the chi-square test of significance was used.

To examine the fifth and sixth research questions "Do women of color and white female students differ on their current level of interest in future participation?" and "Do men of color and white male students differ on their current level of interest in future participation?" A contingency table analysis with the chi-square test of significance was used. To examine the seventh and eighth research questions "Is there a difference between women of color and white females on their self-assessed ability to participate in sports they indicated an interest in?" and "Is there a difference between men of color and white males on their self-assessed ability to participate in sports they indicated an interest in?" A contingency table analysis with the chi-square test of significance was used.

Table 2
Research Sub-questions by Method of Analysis

Do women of color and white female students differ on their high school sports participation level?	Chi-square
Do men of color and white male students differ on their high school sports participation level?	Chi-square
Do women of color and white female students differ on their current participation level?	Chi-square
Do men of color and white male students differ on their current participation level?	Chi-square
Do women of color and white female students differ on their current level of interest in future participation?	Chi-square
Do men of color and white male students differ on their current level of interest in future participation?	Chi-square
Is there a difference between women of color and white females on their self assessed ability to participate in sports of interest?	Chi-square
Is there a difference between men of color and white males on their self assessed ability to participate in sports of interest?	Chi-square
What is the effect of high school varsity experience, gender, and race on intercollegiate sports participation?	Logistic Regression
What is the effect race/ethnicity and gender on high school varsity sport participation?	Logistic Regression

Table 2 describes the sub-questions by the method of analysis. A chi-square analysis was used to examine the sub-questions 1 thru 8 in order to determine if there is was a relationship between the variables. Logistic regression was used to examine the effect of high school varsity experience, gender, and race on intercollegiate sports participation. Logistic regression was also used to analyze the effect of race/ethnicity and gender on high school varsity sport participation.

CHAPTER V

MAJOR FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION OF DATA

Introduction

This study set out to examine how social equitable sport programming was implemented at The University of Akron. This study also examined what was currently being done to meet Title IX compliance at The University of Akron. The researcher felt that race/ethnicity was an important factor to consider when examining social equity. Very few studies have been done analyzing Title IX by race/ethnicity because it is a gender-based policy. This assumes that white women and women of color are equally discriminated against in an educational setting. In reality women of color are at a double disadvantage due to racial/ethnic and gender inequalities. In order to perform this study several steps were taken. First the researcher set up interviews with the Senior Women's Administrator (SWA) of sports and with the University of Akron Human Resources Development Coordinator. The researcher also sent out questionnaires to undergraduate students between the ages of 18-25. This age group was selected after speaking with the SWA because it was suggested that this age group was the most likely to participate in intercollegiate athletics. Secondary data from NCAA published reports (NCAA sport sponsorship and participation report and the NCAA race and ethnicity report) were used to discuss how The University of Akron compares with Division I sports overall.

Qualitative Overview

When speaking with the SWA it was revealed that when it comes to Title IX compliance, historically the interests and abilities measure is not the measure that most colleges and universities apply to their sport programming. The researcher also learned that race/ethnicity is not taken into consideration for Title IX compliance. There is no public record of what measure of compliance schools use in order to meet Title IX compliance because the Office of Civil Rights does not require colleges and universities to provide this information. The majority of schools strive to meet proportionality because this measure is the easiest to prove. Schools that are unable to meet proportionality may use the continuing history and expansion measure; however this measure is used as a way to make an institution's athletic department proportionate to the undergraduate population.

The Human Resources Development Coordinator suggested that colleges and universities do not meet the interests and abilities of most students only the male students playing men's football and basketball. It also should be taken into consideration that women may have self-selected and enrolled into colleges and universities that offer sports in which they report an interest. Title IX does not only apply to students when looking at athletics it also covers coaches. The literature suggests that often women of color do not participate in sports because there is a lack of role models and women of color coaches. Women coaches make significantly less money when it comes to coaching than do male coaches. Women are also less likely to coach male athletes whereas it is not uncommon to have men coaching female athletes. This disparity in coaching may deter women from pursuing athletic careers.

Background Information of Respondents

Among the 3,219 undergraduate students at the University of Akron who responded to the Assessment of Students Athletic Interests and Abilities Questionnaire, there was some variation among their age, race/ethnicity, class level, attendance status, household income and attendance patterns. Tables 3 thru 9 provide a demographic profile for undergraduate respondents.

Table 3
Frequency Distribution of Undergraduate Respondents by Age

Age	Number	Percent
18	796	24.9
19	626	19.6
20	528	16.5
21	464	14.5
22	368	11.5
23	236	7.4
24	162	5.1
25	13	0.4
Total	3219	100.0

Notes: Data not reported (n=27). Mean = 20.1, SD = 1.83. Percentages due to rounding.

The frequency distribution of the undergraduate respondents by age is shown in Table 3. Of the 3,219 undergraduate respondents who reported their age, the mean age equaled 20.1 and the standard deviation equaled 1.83. Among the undergraduate respondents, ages ranged from 18 years of age to 25 years of age. More than 86 percent of the respondents were between the age of 18 and 22.

Table 4 Frequency Distribution of Undergraduate Respondents by Racial/Ethnic Group		
Racial/Ethnic Group	Number	Percent
American Indian or Alaskan Native	12	0.4
Asian or Pacific Islander	68	2.1
Black, non-Hispanic	235	7.3
Hispanic/ Latino	45	1.4
White, non-Hispanic	2794	86.8
Other	65	2.0
Total	3219	100.0
Notes: Data not reported (n=0); Percentages are due to rounding.		

Table 4 displays the frequency distribution of the undergraduate respondents by racial/ethnic group. Of the 3,219 undergraduate students who responded to this question, 13 percent reportedly were students of color. Specifically, 87 percent of the undergraduate respondents were White, 7 percent were Black, 2 percent were Asian or Pacific Islander, 1 percent were Hispanic, 0.4 percent were American Indian or Alaskan Native and 2 percent were other.

Table 5 Frequency Distribution of Undergraduate Respondents by Gender		
Gender	Number	Percent
Male	1320	41.0
Female	1899	59.0
Total	3219	100.0
Notes: Data not reported (n=0); Percentages are due to rounding.		

Table 5 displays the frequency distribution of undergraduate respondents by gender. Of the 3,219 undergraduate students who responded to this question, 41 percent were male and 59 percent were female.

Table 6 Frequency Distribution of Undergraduate Respondents by Level		
Class Level	Number	Percent
Freshman	1120	35.0
Sophomore	682	21.3
Junior	690	21.6
Senior	653	20.4
Other	53	1.7
Total	3198	100.0
Notes: Data not reported (n=21); Percentages are due to rounding.		

Table 6 displays the frequency distribution of undergraduate respondents by class level. Of the 3,198 students who responded to this question, 56 percent were lower-level and 44 percent were upper-level.

Table 7 Frequency Distribution of Undergraduate Respondents by Enrollment Status		
	Number	Percent
Full-time	3013	93.6
Part-time	202	6.3
Total	3215	99.9
Notes: Data not reported (n=4); Percentages are due to rounding.		

Table 7 displays the frequency distribution of undergraduate respondents by enrollment status. Of the 3,215 students who responded to this question, 94 percent were full-time (enrolled in at least 12 credits or more) and six percent were part-time at the time they completed the survey. Disproportionately, more full-time students completed the study when compared to part-time students.

Table 8 Frequency Distribution of Undergraduate Respondents by Household Income		
	Number	Percent
Under $15,000	840	27.0
$15,001 - $30,000	392	12.6
$30,001 - $50,000	354	11.4
$50,001 - $80,000	394	12.7
Over $80,000	341	10.9
Unknown	794	25.4
Total	3115	100.0
Notes: Data not reported (n=104); Percentages are due to rounding.		

Table 8 displays the frequency distribution of undergraduate respondents by current household income. Of the 3,115 students who responded to this question, the household incomes varied and were evenly distributed. In particular, 27 percent of respondents reported their household income as less than $15,000, 13 percent reported their income between $15,001 and $30,000, 11 percent reported their income between $30,001 and $50,000, 13 percent reported their income between $50,001 and $80,000, 11 percent reported their income over $80,000 and 25 percent did not know their annual household income.

Table 9 Frequency Distribution of Undergraduate Respondents by Class Attendance		
	Number	Percent
Day Courses	2373	73.8
Evening Courses	173	5.4
Both	649	20.2
Unknown	20	0.6
Total	3215	100.0
Notes: Data not reported (n= 4); Percentages are due to rounding.		

Table 9 displays the frequency distribution of undergraduate respondents by class attendance. Of the 3,219 students who responded to this question, 74 percent indicated that they are currently taking mostly day courses compared to the 5 percent who were

mostly take evening courses and the 20 percent who mostly take a combination of day and evening courses.

Table 10
Frequency Distribution of Undergraduate Respondents Reporting Athletic Experience, Interests, and Abilities

	Number	Percent
I have no athletic experience, current participation or interest in future participation	778	24.2
I wish to report experience, current participation, interests in future participation and abilities.	2441	75.8
Notes: Data not reported (n= 0); Percentages are due to rounding.		

Table 10 displays the frequency distribution of undergraduates reporting experience, interests, and abilities. Of the 3,219 students who responded to this question, 24 percent indicated that they had no athletic experience, current participation or interest in future participation to report and 76 percent responded that they wished to report experience, current participation, interests in future participation and abilities.

Table 11
Frequency Distribution of Undergraduate Respondents by Sport 1 thru 4

	Sport 1	Sport 2	Sport 3	Sport 4
	Number	Number	Number	Number
Archery	12	9	7	5
Badminton	6	6	2	1
Baseball	130	55	22	3
Basketball	285	134	29	6
Bowling	59	49	18	10
Cross Country	131	25	14	0
Equestrian	11	3	2	1
Fencing	3	3	0	1
Field Hockey	6	2	4	0
Football	268	85	25	3
Golf	66	28	21	4
Gymnastics	35	6	2	3
Ice Hockey	12	4	3	0
Indoor Track and Field	25	22	6	19
Lacrosse	21	9	1	0
Outdoor Track and Field	136	158	54	0
Rifle	14	2	3	2
Rowing	5	4	0	3
Rugby	4	12	0	1
Skiing	26	26	17	5
Soccer	303	70	19	9
Softball	206	89	27	7
Swimming and Diving	103	31	10	6
Team Handball	2	1	1	0
Tennis	130	28	8	8
Volleyball	206	114	34	11
Water Polo	2	1	0	0
Wrestling	45	20	2	2
Other	191	64	25	9
Total	2443	1060	356	119
No Sport Selected	776	2159	2863	3100

Table 11 displays the frequency distribution of undergraduate respondents by the sport on which they chose to provide information regarding their athletic experience, current participation in athletic activities, interests in future participation and athletic abilities. The survey population, as shown in Table 1, reflected the targeted population alleviating a bias in response rates. Since it is likely that some student athletes participate in or have the desire to participate in more than one sport, undergraduate respondents were able to select up to four sports to report their experience, current participation, interest in future participation and ability. Of the 30 NCAA listed sports selected by respondents, the top 15 sports identified by respondents included: Baseball, Basketball, Bowling, Cross Country, Football, Golf, Indoor Track and Field, Lacrosse, Outdoor Track and Field, Skiing, Soccer, Softball, Swimming and Diving, Tennis, and Volleyball. A small number of students elected sports that were not listed; as such, the 'other' category includes sports like cheerleading, dance, martial arts, band, table games, skating, snowboarding, Frisbee, and hockey; however, because they are not NCAA sports they are not tabulated in Table 11.

Table 12
Frequency Distribution of Undergraduate Respondents
By High School Sport Experience

	Selected		Not Selected		Total	
Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Recreational	681	21.2	2538	78.8	3219	100.0
Intramural	201	6.2	3018	93.8	3219	100.0
Club	278	8.6	2941	91.4	3219	100.0
Junior Varsity	716	22.2	2503	77.8	3219	100.0
Varsity	1530	47.5	1689	52.5	3219	100.0
Other	127	4.0	3092	96.0	3219	100.0
Notes: Percentages due to rounding.						

Table 12 displays the frequency distribution of undergraduate respondents by self-reported high school sport experience in the selected sport. Of the 3,219 students who responded to the question, "At what level did you participate in this sport in high school," 48 percent of the students indicated that they participated in their selected sport (1 thru 4) at the varsity level compared to 22 percent who indicated high school experience at the junior varsity level, and 21 percent who indicated high school experience at the recreational level.

Table 13
Frequency Distribution of Undergraduate Respondents
by Current Participation

	Selected		Not Selected		Total	
Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Recreational	621	19.3	2598	80.2	3219	100.0
Intramural	275	8.5	2944	91.5	3219	100.0
Club	73	2.3	3146	97.7	3219	100.0
Intercollegiate	118	3.7	3101	96.3	3219	100.0
Other	95	3.0	3124	97.0	3219	100.0
Notes: Percentages due to rounding.						

Table 13 displays the frequency distribution of undergraduate respondents by self-reported current participation in their selected sport. Of the 3,219 students who responded to the question, "At what level are you participating in this [selected] sport at the University of Akron," only 4 percent of the students indicated that they participated in their selected sport (1 thru 4) at the intercollegiate level compared to 19 percent who indicated participation at the recreational level, 2 percent who reported participating at the club level, and 9 percent who indicated participation at the intramural level.

Table 14
Frequency Distribution of Undergraduate Respondents
by Interest in Future Participation

	Selected		Not Selected		Total	
Level	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Recreational	1158	36.0	2061	64.0	3219	100.0
Intramural	824	25.6	2395	74.4	3219	100.0
Club	365	11.3	2854	88.7	3219	100.0
Intercollegiate	460	14.3	2759	85.7	3219	100.0
Other	251	7.8	2968	92.2	3219	100.0

Notes: Percentages due to rounding.

Table 14 displays the frequency distribution of undergraduate respondents by their interest in future participation in their selected sport. Of the 3,219 students who responded to the question, "At what level do you wish to participate in this [selected] sport at the University of Akron," 14 percent of the students indicated that they would be interested in their selected sport (1 thru 4) at the intercollegiate level compared to 36 percent who were interested in future participation at the recreational level, 11 percent were interested in club level, and 26 percent who were interested in future participation at the intramural level.

Table 15
Frequency Distribution of Undergraduate Respondents by Ability

	Number	Percent
Yes – I have the ability	2036	86.4
No – I would need to develop the ability	321	13.6
Total	2357	100

Notes: Data not reported (862). Percentages are due to rounding.

Table 15 displays the frequency distribution of undergraduate respondents by ability. For this question, students were asked, "Do you believe that you have the ability to participate in at the level at which you indicated interest?" Of the 2,357 students who

responded to this question, 86 percent said, “Yes – I have the ability” compared to 14 percent who said, “No – I would need to develop the ability.”

Discussion of Study Variables

The survey consisted of three sections to assess the undergraduate respondent’s athletic interests and abilities. There were several variables used in the analysis of this study. The variables in the first section, Demographic Information, were used to collect demographic information. The variables were age, gender, race/ethnicity, current year in school, student status, current household income, and the types of courses taken. The age variable allowed for respondents to write in their age. The variables current year in school, student status, current household income, and the types of courses taken all had choices for the respondents to select from. These variables were used to describe demographics of the study population. Respondents were mandated to select a response for race and gender in order to continue on with the survey because those were the factors the researcher was most interested in examining. The other responses could be skipped if the respondents chose to do so.

Variables in the second section, Information about Athletic Experience, Interests and Abilities, were used to measure respondent’s athletic experience, interests, and abilities in relationship to the NCAA sponsored sports (Appendix B). The first variable includes a list of sports and asks respondents to select their sport among the 31 sports listed. Once undergraduate respondents select a sport, they are then asked to respond to a series of questions about their sport experience, current participation, future participation, and abilities.

In the third section, Information about Non-Participation, students were asked to provide the primary reason that they did not participate in sports at the University of Akron. In addition, they were given the opportunity to identify the sport teams they would come to watch at the University of Akron. The final question in this section, asks them if there were any sports teams that they would try out for which were not offered at the University of Akron. The following tables provide a summary of the data collected in Section III.

Table 16
Frequency Distribution of Undergraduate Respondents by Non-Participation Reason

	Number	Percent
Lack of Athletic Aid	18	2.3
Lack of Time	268	34.6
Not Interested	374	48.3
Other	31	4.0
Too Competitive	23	3.0
Unaware it was Offered	8	1.0
Work Conflict	52	6.7
Total	774	99.9
Notes: Data not reported (n=2445); Percentages are due to rounding.		

Table 16 describes the frequency distribution of undergraduate respondents by primary non-participation reason. Undergraduate respondents were asked, "What is the primary reason that you do not participate in sports at the University of Akron?" Of the 774 who indicated non-participation reasons, 2.3 percent indicated a lack of athletic aid, 34.6 percent specified lack of time, 48.3 percent indicated not interested, 4 percent responded other, 3 percent specified too competitive, 1 percent were unaware it was offered and 7 percent indicated work conflict as it relates to non participation in sports.

Table 17
Frequency Distribution of Undergraduate Respondents by Sports Team Likely to Watch

	Number	Percent
Archery	61	2.0
Badminton	16	1.0
Baseball	0	0
Basketball	375	14.0
Bowling	49	2.0
Cross Country	20	1.0
Equestrian	52	2.0
Fencing	66	3.0
Field Hockey	13	0
Football	526	20.0
Golf	28	1.0
Gymnastics	142	5.0
Ice Hockey	134	5.0
Indoor Track and Field	33	1.0
Lacrosse	52	2.0
Outdoor Track and Field	46	2.0
Rifle	63	2.0
Rowing	19	1.0
Rugby	92	3.0
Skiing	35	1.0
Soccer	258	10.0
Softball	95	4.0
Swimming and Diving	85	3.0
Team Handball	10	1.0
Tennis	71	3.0
Volleyball	138	5.0
Water Polo	34	1.0
Wrestling	53	2.0
Other	70	3.0
Total	2636	100.0

Notes: Data not reported (n=583); Percentages are due to rounding.

The variables in Table 17 were used to examine what sports, if any respondents would be interested in coming to support by watching at the University of Akron even if respondents indicated that they had no interests in sport participation. The sports that were most frequently selected by respondents that chose to answer the questions were football being selected 526 times, basketball being selected 375 times, and soccer being selected 258 times.

Table 18
Frequency Distribution of Undergraduate Respondents by Non-Participation Reason's For Those Who Reported Experience, Interests, and Abilities

	Number	Percent
Lack of Time	609	47.7
Too Competitive	163	12.8
Not Interested	132	10.3
Sport Unavailable	107	8.3
Lack of Information	83	6.5
Work Conflict	56	4.4
Sports Injury	54	4.2
Intramurals	19	1.5
Other	17	1.3
Future Interest	13	1.0
Lack of Athletic Aid	9	0.1
Unaware it was offered	8	1.0
Transfer Student	7	1.0
Total	1277	100.1

Notes: Data not reported (n=1942); Percentages are due to rounding.

Table 18 shows the frequencies of students with experience, interests, and abilities that do not currently participate in sport programming at the University of Akron. The top three reasons respondents did not participate in sports at The University of Akron were lack of time, too competitive, and not interested. Of the respondents that expressed reason's for non-participation 48% reported lack of time, 13% reported sports being too

competitive, and 10% reported no interest in sport programming at The University of Akron.

Operationalization of Variables

The questionnaire that was developed produced a large amount of information to be used in the analysis. The researcher operationalized the variables in order to run the proper analysis needed to answer the research question and sub-questions. In order to do this the researcher recoded select variables. The demographic variables were recoded to account for missing variables and unknowns. Gender was recoded as '0' for males and '1' for females. The race and ethnicity variable was combined into two categories non-white (people of color) and whites. Whites were coded '0' and non-white were coded '1'. The other variables in the demographic section were also recoded in order to give the responses numeric values. This was so that the chi-square test could be conducted. The data collected in section II was recoded and given dummy codes as well. This data was recoded as '0' and '1'. The value 0 was given to respondents who did not select that particular response and the value of 1 referred to respondents that selected that particular response in the category.

Table 19 Research Variables of Interest		
Variables	Attributes	Coding
Gender	Male, Female	Male=0 Female=1
Race/Ethnicity	Asian or Pacific Islander, Black, Hispanic, White, Other	White=0 Non-White=1
Sport Experience	Recreational, Intramural, Club, Junior Varsity, Varsity, Other	Selected Varsity=1 Did not Select Varsity=0
Current Participation	Recreational, Intramural, Club, Intercollegiate, Other	Selected Intercollegiate=1 Did not Select Intercollegiate=0
Interest in Future Participation	Recreational, Intramural, Club, Intercollegiate, Other	Selected Intercollegiate=1 Did not Select Intercollegiate=0
Ability	Yes, I have the ability; No, I would need to develop the ability	Yes, I have the ability=1 No, I do not have the ability=0
Reasons for Non-Participation	Lack of Time, Too Competitive, Work Conflict, Lack of Athletic Aid, Not Interested, Other	Selected Non-participation=1 Did not Select Non-participation=0

Table 19 displays the research variables of interest. The variables of interest were race/ethnicity, sport experience, current participation, interest in future participation, ability, and reasons for non-participation. The attributes of each variable are also shown in this table as well as the manipulation of the research variables, i.e., how variables were recoded to conduct the chi-square and regression analyses.

General Findings

Below are the findings in this study that pertain to sport participation. Table 20 is a summary of the chi-square analysis that was run to identify the relationship between interest in future college participation and race/ethnicity. The main research question asked, "How do the athletic opportunities offered at The University of Akron match the interest and abilities of students by race/ethnicity and gender?" The data in Table 20

show that women attending the University of Akron are interested[1] in the following intercollegiate sports: basketball, bowling, cross country, equestrian, football, gymnastics, lacrosse, skiing, soccer, softball, swimming and diving, tennis, indoor track and field, outdoor track and field, and volleyball. Women did not indicate an interest in the following intercollegiate sports: archery, badminton, baseball, fencing, field hockey, golf, ice hockey, other[2], rifle, rowing, rugby, squash, synchronized swimming, team handball, water polo, and wrestling. Of the sports that women reported intercollegiate interest in, the University of Akron offers 8 of the 15 sports for women. Women sports offered at the University of Akron were basketball, cross-country, soccer, softball, swimming and diving, indoor track and field, outdoor track and field, and volleyball.

[1] Women's interests in playing sports on the collegiate level were taken from the frequencies reported by the respondent on what sport they were interested in future college participation. Sports with frequencies less than 10 were counted as no interest and sports with a frequency of 10 or more were counted as having interest.

[2] The other sport category were divided into dance, cheerleading, skating, martial arts (boxing), band/flagline/colorguard, racquetball, frisbee, table games, weightlifting, none, and other (including broomball, flag football, aerobics, kickball, motocross, pistol shooting, and yoga).

Table 20
Summary Results of Chi-Square Tests of Significance for University of Akron NCAA-sponsored Sports by Race/Ethnicity and Gender

Intercollegiate Sports Offered at the University of Akron		Women					Men				
		White Students		Students of Color		Sig.	White Students		Students of Color		Sig.
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent		Number	Percent	Number	Percent	
M	Baseball	1	0.1	1	0.60		122	13.3	6	4.1	***
M and F	Basketball	127	10.5	35	20.60	***	103	11.3	20	13.6	
	Bowling	23	1.9	2	1.20		31	3.4	3	2.0	
M and F	Cross Country	63	5.2	6	3.50		57	6.2	5	3.4	
	Equestrian	11	0.9	0	0.00		0	0	0	0	
M	Football	8	0.7	2	1.20		212	23.2	46	31.3	*
M	Golf	22	1.8	2	1.20		42	4.6	0	.0	
	Gymnastics	31	2.6	3	1.80		1	.1	0	.0	
	Ice Hockey	2	0.2	0	0.00		10	1.1	0	.0	
M and F	Indoor track and field	15	1.2	5	2.90		4	4	1	0.7	
	Lacrosse	20	1.7	1	0.00		29	3.2	4	2.7	
	Other	144	11.9	20	11.80		25	2.7	2	1.4	
M and F	Outdoor track and field	65	5.4	27	15.90	**	33	3.6	11	7.5	*
	Skiing	16	1.3	0	0.00		9	1.0	1	.7	
M and F	Soccer	124	10.2	9	5.30	*	145	15.9	25	17.0	
F	Softball	193	15.9	13	7.60	*	5	5.0	0	.0	
F	Swimming and Diving	83	6.8	2	1.20	**	18	2.0	0	.0	
F	Tennis	76	6.3	12	7.10		30	3.3	12	8.2	**
F	Volleyball	175	14.4	26	15.30		2	.2	3	2.0	
	Wrestling	0	0.0	0	0.00		38	4.2	7	4.8	
	Total	1199	100.0	166	100.0		916	100.0	146	100.0	

Notes: *p<.05, **p<.01, p<.001*** ,df =1, Data not reported (740). Percentages are due to rounding.

When comparing the future interests of women of color to white women in intercollegiate sports a contingency table using the chi-square test of significance was run with “race/ethnicity” as the independent variable and “future sport participation intercollegiate” as the dependent variable – eliminating male respondents from the analysis. The data showed that more women of color were interested in playing

basketball at the college level when compared to white women, 20.6% compared to 10.5%, respectively (Chi-square=14.725;df=1; p=.000). More women of color were interested in participating in outdoor track and field at the collegiate level than white women, 15.9% compared to 5.4%, respectively (Chi-square=26.55; df=1; p=.000). More white women were interested in playing soccer at the collegiate level than women of color, 10.2% compared to 5.3%, respectively (Chi-square=4.178; df=1; p=.041). More white women were interested in playing softball at the collegiate level than women of color, 15.9% compared to 7.6%, respectively (Chi-square=11.284;df=1; p=.004). More white women were interested in swimming and diving at the collegiate level than women of color, 6.8% compared to 1.2%, respectively (Chi-square=8.31; df=1;p=.004). The difference found in these five sports was found to be significant at alpha= .05. This suggested that women of color were more likely to want to participate in basketball and outdoor track and field on the college level while, white women were more likely to want to participate in soccer, softball, and swimming and diving.

The data also showed (see Table 20) men attending the University of Akron were interested[3] in the following sports on the college level: baseball, basketball, bowling, cross country, football, golf, ice hockey, lacrosse, other, soccer, swimming and diving, tennis, outdoor track and field, volleyball, and wrestling. Sports that men did not show interest in on the collegiate level were archery, badminton, fencing, field hockey, gymnastics, rifle, rowing, rugby, skiing, softball, squash, synchronized swimming, team handball, indoor track and field and water polo. The University of Akron offers 8 of the

[3] Men's interests in playing a sport on the collegiate level were taken from the frequencies reported by the respondents on what sport(s) they were interested in future participation in on the college level. Sports with frequencies less than 10 were counted as no interest and sports with frequencies of 10 or more were counted as having interest.

14[4] sports. Men sports offered at the University of Akron were baseball, basketball, cross-country, football, golf, soccer, indoor track and field, and outdoor track and field. When comparing the future interests of men of color to white men in intercollegiate sports a contingency table using the chi-square test of significance was run with "race/ethnicity" as the independent variable and "future sport participation intercollegiate" as the dependent variable. To ensure that only men would be included in the analysis a "selected" was used eliminating female respondents from the analysis. The data revealed significant findings that more men of color were interested in playing football at the collegiate level than white men (31.1% vs. 23.2%; Chi-square=4.51; df=1 ; p=.034). More men of color were interested in participation in outdoor track and field at the collegiate level than were white men (7.5% vs. 3.6%; Chi-square=.029; df=1 ; p=.029). More men of color were interested in playing tennis at the collegiate level than were white men (8.2% vs. 3.3%; Chi-square=7.94; df=1 ; p=.005). More white men were interested in playing baseball at the collegiate level than were men of color (13.3% vs. 4.1%; Chi-square=10.25; df=1 ; p=.001). The differences among future interest in future participation in the above mentioned sports was found to be significant at alpha=.05. This suggests that men of color were more likely to want to participate in football, outdoor track and field, and tennis on the college level while white men were more likely to want to participate in baseball.

Table 20 represents a summary of the cross-tabulations by race/ethnicity and gender for each sport that the undergraduate respondent reported future intercollegiate interest. In this study, the researcher hypothesized that there would be gender and

[4] Other sports not included because the category contains more than one sport.

race/ethnicity differences on interest in future participation in different intercollegiate sports. Proportionately, more women of color expressed an interest in basketball and outdoor track and field when compared with white women; conversely, more white women expressed an interest in soccer, softball, and swimming and diving when compared to women of color. When we examined closer each sport, the researcher noted that basketball, outdoor track and field, soccer, softball, and swimming and diving suggest that, there is a relationship between race/ethnicity and women and sport participation. The researcher can state that the hypothesized relationship between race/ethnicity and gender and sport participation is statistically significant at alpha .05 level ($p>.05$).

When the researcher compared the relationship between race/ethnicity and gender to sports participation, differences between race/ethnicity and gender emerged for certain sports. The null hypothesis stated that there was no relationship between men of color and white males when expressing an interest in participation in intercollegiate sports. It was found that more white men expressed an interest in participating in baseball at the intercollegiate level when compared to men of color. In addition, men of color were more likely to report an interest in playing football, outdoor track and field and tennis when compared to white men. The researcher notes that there is a relationship between race/ethnicity and men and sport participation. The data indicated that a significant relationship existed among white women and women of color and white men and men of color. In college, white women were more likely to play soccer, softball, and swimming and diving and women of color were more likely to play basketball and outdoor track and

field. In college, white men were more likely to play baseball and men of color were more likely to express an interest to play football, outdoor track and field, and tennis.

Analysis of Research Question and Sub Questions

In order to answer the main research question "How do the athletic opportunities offered at The University of Akron match the interests and abilities of students by race and gender?" eight sub-research questions were asked. A chi-square analysis was run to see if there were any significant differences in the findings for each of the eight sub-research questions. A chi-square test of significance was used to assess the relationship between the independent variable, race/ethnicity and the dependent variables. When using a chi-square analysis the null hypothesis always states that there is no relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Welch & Comer, 1988). The independent variable always remained as race/ethnicity when conducting the chi-square analysis. The dependent variable changed for the different questions. For the first and second questions "Do women of color and white female students differ on their high school sports participation level?" and "Do men of color and white male students differ on their high school sports participation level?" the dependent variable was high school sport participation varsity. For the third and fourth research questions "Do women of color and white female students differ on their current participation level?" and "Do men of color and white male students differ on their current participation level?" the dependent variable was current participation level intercollegiate. For the fifth and sixth research questions "Do women of color and white female students differ on their current level of interest in future participation?" and "Do men of color and white male students differ on their current level of interest in future participation?" the dependant variable

was current level of interest in future participation intercollegiate. For the seventh and eighth research questions "Is there a difference between women of color and white females on their self-assessed ability to participate in sports they indicated an interest in?" and "Is there a difference between men of color and white males on their self-assessed ability to participate in sports they indicated an interest in?" the dependent variable was yes I have the ability.

Table 21
Female by Race/Ethnicity Findings to Participation in High School Varsity Sport
(Female Only)

	White Women		Women of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not play varsity sport in high school	497	41.0	72	42.4	569	N/A
Played one or more varsity sport in high school	715	59.0	98	57.6	813	N/A
Total	1,212	100.0	170	100.0	1,382	N/A
Notes: Chi-Square=.112, df=1, p=.738.						

Sub-question one asked, "Do women of color and white female students differ on their high school sports participation level?" In Table 21 we tested the null hypothesis that there is no difference between race/ethnicity and gender on high school (varsity) sports participation for women. When comparing white women to women of color on varsity high school sport participation, 59% of white women and 57.6% of women of color participated at the varsity level in one or more high school sports. We found no difference in the relationship between sport participation and race/ethnicity and gender for women.

Table 22
Male by Race/Ethnicity Findings to Participation in High School Varsity Sport (Male Only)

	White Men		Men of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not play varsity sport in high school	283	31.0	61	41.5	344	N/A
Played one or more varsity sport in high school	631	69.0	86	58.5	717	N/A
Total	914	100.0	147	100.0	1,061	N/A
Notes: Chi-Square=6.413 df=1, p=.011						

Sub-question two asked, "Do men of color and white male students differ on their high school sports participation level?" In Table 22 we tested the null hypothesis: there is no difference between race/ethnicity and gender on high school (varsity) sports participation for men. When we compare white men to men of color on their level of high school sport experience, 69% of white males and 58.5% of men of color participated at the varsity level in one or more high school sports. We found there is a difference in the relationship between high school (varsity) sport participation and race/ethnicity and gender for men.

Table 23 Female by Race/Ethnicity Findings to Current Participation in Intercollegiate Sports (Female Only)						
	White Women		Women of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Not currently playing an intercollegiate sport	1157	95.5	164	96.5	1,321	N/A
Currently playing an intercollegiate sport	55	4.5	6	3.5	61	N/A
Total	1,212	100.0	170	100.0	1,382	N/A
Notes: Chi-Square=.359 df=1, p=.549						

Sub-question three asked, "Do women of color and white female students differ on their current participation level?" In Table 23 we tested the null hypothesis that there is no difference between race and gender on current level of (intercollegiate) sports participation for women. When comparing white women to women of color on current intercollegiate sport participation 4.5% of white women and 3.5% of women of color currently play a sport at The University of Akron. We found there is no difference in the relationship between race/ethnicity and gender on their current level of (intercollegiate) sports participation for women.

Table 24
Male by Race/Ethnicity Findings to Current Participation in Intercollegiate Sports (Male Only)

	White Men		Men of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Not currently playing an intercollegiate sport	868	95.0	136	92.5	1,004	N/A
Currently playing an intercollegiate sport	46	5.0	11	7.5	57	N/A
Total	914	100.0	147	100.0	1,061	N/A
Notes: Chi-Square=1.495 df=1, p=.221						

Sub-question four asked, "Do men of color and white male students differ on their current participation level?" In Table 24 we tested the null hypothesis that there is no difference between race/ethnicity and gender on current level of (intercollegiate) sports participation for men. When comparing white men to men of color on current intercollegiate sport participation 5% of white men and 7.5% of men of color currently play a sport at The University of Akron. We found there is no difference in the relationship between race/ethnicity and gender on their current level of (intercollegiate) sports participation for men.

Table 25
Female by Race/Ethnicity Findings to Future Participation Intercollegiate Sports (Female Only)

	White Women		Women of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Future sport participation not intercollegiate	1052	86.8	142	83.5	1,194	N/A
Future sport participation intercollegiate	160	13.2	28	16.5	188	N/A
Total	1,212	100.0	170	100.0	1,382	N/A
Notes: Chi-Square=1.356 df=1, p=.244						

Sub-question five asked, "Do women of color and white female students differ on their current level of interest in future participation?" In Table 25 we tested the null hypothesis that there is no difference between race/ethnicity and gender on future level of (intercollegiate) sports participation for women. When comparing white women to women of color on their future intercollegiate sport participation 13.2% of white women and 16.5% of women of color reported their future sport participation as intercollegiate. We found there is no difference in the relationship between race/ethnicity and gender on future level of (intercollegiate) sports participation for women.

Table 26
Male by Race/Ethnicity Findings to Future Participation Intercollegiate Sports (Male Only)

	White Men		Men of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Future sport participation not intercollegiate	705	77.1	84	57.1	789	N/A
Future sport participation intercollegiate	209	22.9	63	42.9	272	N/A
Total	914	100.0	147	100.0	1,061	N/A
Notes: Chi-Square=26.545 df=1, p=.000						

Sub-question six asked, “Do men of color and white male students differ on their current level of interest in future participation?” In Table 26 we tested the null hypothesis that there is no difference between race/ethnicity and gender on future level of (intercollegiate) sports participation for men. When comparing white men to men of color on their future intercollegiate sport participation 22.9% of white men and 42.90% of men of color reported their future sport participation as intercollegiate. We found there is a difference in the relationship between race/ethnicity and gender on future level of (intercollegiate) sports participation for men.

Table 27
Female by Race/Ethnicity Findings to Ability to Play Selected Sport
(Female Only)

	White Women		Women of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Need to develop the ability to play selected sport	158	13.6	28	17.0	186	N/A
Have the ability to play the selected sport	1,006	86.4	137	83.0	1,143	N/A
Total	1,164	100.0	165	100.0	1,329	N/A
Notes: Chi-Square=1.384 df=1, p= .239						

Sub-question seven asked," Is there a difference between women of color and white females on their self-assessed ability to participate in sports they indicated an interest in?" In Table 27 we tested the null hypothesis that there is no difference between race/ethnicity and gender on self selected ability for women. When comparing white women to women of color on their self-assessed ability 86.4% of white women and 83% of women of color reported that they have the ability to play the selected sport. We found there is no difference in the relationship between race/ethnicity and gender on self selected ability for women.

Table 28
Summary Results of Chi-Square Tests of Significance to Ability to Play Selected Sport
(Male Only)

	White Men		Men of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Need to develop the ability to play selected sport	111	12.5	24	16.8	135	N/A
Have the ability to play the selected sport	774	87.5	119	83.2	893	N/A
Total	885	100.0	143	100.0	1,028	N/A
Notes: Chi-Square=1.941, df=1, p=.164						

Sub-question eight, asked" Is there a difference between men of color and white males on their self-assessed ability to participate in sports they indicated an interest in?" In Table 28 we tested the null hypothesis that there is no difference between race/ethnicity and gender on self selected ability for men. When comparing white men to men of color on their self assessed ability 87.5% of white men and 83.2% of men of color reported that they have the ability to play the selected sport. We found there is no difference in the relationship between race/ethnicity and gender on self selected ability for men.

Logistic Regression Models

Logistic Regression was used to examine whether participation in college sports was dependent on high school sport participation at the varsity level, controlling for gender and race/ethnicity. Logistic Regression was also used to determine if high school sport participation was determined by race/ethnicity and/or gender.

Table 29
Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Intercollegiate Sports Participation Odds of Being Case*

Variable	OR†	95% CI	P Value‡
High School Varsity Sport Participation	10.333 (.308)	5.600 to 18.873	.000
Gender (male)	1.117 (.191)	.769 to 1.624	.562
Race (Nonwhite)	1.222 (.272)	.717 to 2.082	.462

*High School Varsity Sport Participation, Gender, Race/Ethnicity were all available to the model.
†Odds ratios are reported, with standard errors in parentheses.
‡p Value for overall test of association; Statistically significant - p>.001

Table 29 reports the effects of high school varsity experience, gender, and race/ethnicity on intercollegiate sports participation. Students who participate in sports in high school are 10 times more likely to participate in sports at the college level. The variance explained in the logistic regression model is 3 percent (pseudo-R^2 = .03).

Table 30
Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting High School Sports Participation (Varsity) Odds of Being Case*

Variable	OR†	95% CI	P Value‡
Gender (male)	1.585 (.072)	1.376 to 1.826	.000
Race (Nonwhite)	.820 (.106)	.581 to 1.100	.060

* Gender and Race/Ethnicity were all available to the model.
†Odds ratios are reported, with standard errors in parentheses.
‡p Value for overall test of association; Statistically significant - p>.001

Table 30 reports the effects of race and gender on high school sport participation. Men are 1.6 more likely to participate in high school varsity sports than women. The variance explained in the logistic regression model is 14% (pseudo-R^2 = .014).

Analysis Non-Participation of Respondents No Experience, Interests, and Abilities

Respondents who selected on the questionnaire that they had no experience, interests, or abilities to report were then asked "What is the primary reason that you do not participate on the University of Akron sport teams?" The responses were lack of athletic aid, lack of time, not interested, other, too competitive, unaware it was offered, and work conflict. A chi-square test of significance was used to analyze the results of these findings in order to see if there was a relationship between these variables, race, and gender.

Table 31
Chi-Square Results for Non-Participation Lack of Athletic Aid
(Female Only)

	White Women		Women of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non-participation lack of athletic aid	1635	99.9	248	98.8	1883	99.2
Reason for non-participation, lack of athletic aid	12	0.1	3	1.2	15	0.8
Notes: Chi-Square=.605, df=1, p=.437						

In Table 31 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity and gender for students indicating lack of athletic aid as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white women to women of color, 0.1% of white women and 1.2% of women of color did not currently participate in sport programs

at the University of Akron due to lack of athletic aid. This difference is not significant at alpha .05, there is no difference in the relationship between lack of athletic aid, race/ethnicity and gender for women.

Table 32
Chi-Square Results for Non-Participation Lack of Athletic Aid
(Male Only)

	White Men		Men of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non-participation lack of athletic aid	1144	99.7	174	100.0	1318	99.8
Reason for non-participation, lack of athletic aid	3	0.3	0	0.0	3	0.2
Notes: Chi-Square=.456, df=1, p=.499						

In Table 32 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity and gender for students indicating lack of athletic aid as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white men to men of color, 0.3% of white men and 0% of men of color did not currently participate in sport programs at the University of Akron due to lack of athletic aid. This difference is not significant at alpha .05, there is no difference in the relationship between lack of athletic aid, race/ethnicity and gender for men.

Table 33
Chi-Square Results for Non-Participation Lack of Time
(Female Only)

	White Women		Women of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non-participation lack of time	1510	91.7	220	87.6	1730	91.1
Reason for non-participation, lack of time	137	8.3	31	12.4	168	8.9
Notes: Chi-Square=4.390, df=1, p=.036						

In Table 33 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity and gender for students indicating lack of time as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white women to women of color, 8.3% of white women and 12.4% of women of color did not currently participate in sport programs at the University of Akron due to lack of time. This difference is significant at alpha .05, there is a difference in the relationship between lack of time, race/ethnicity and gender for women.

Table 34 Chi-Square Results for Non-Participation Lack of Time (Male Only)						
	White Men		Men of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non-participation lack of time	1059	92.3	162	93.1	1221	92.4
Reason for non-participation, lack of time	88	7.7	12	6.9	100	7.6
Notes: Chi-Square=.130, df=1, p=.719						

In table 34 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity and gender for students indicating lack of time as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white men to men of color, 7.7% of white men and 6.9% of men of color did not currently participate in sport programs at the University of Akron due to lack of time. This difference is not significant at alpha .05, there is no difference in the relationship between lack of time, race/ethnicity and gender for men.

Table 35 Chi-Square Results for Non-Participation Work Conflict (Female Only)						
	White Women		Women of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non-participation work conflict	1627	98.8	241	96.0	1868	98.4
Reason for non-participation, work conflict	20	1.2	10	4.0	30	1.6
Notes: Chi-Square=10.741, df=1, p=.001						

In Table 35 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity and gender for students indicating work conflict as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white women to women of color, 1.2% of white women and 4% of women of color did not currently participate in sport programs at the University of Akron due to work conflict. This difference is significant at alpha .05, there is a difference in the relationship between work conflict, race/ethnicity and gender for women.

Table 36
Chi-Square Results for Non-Participation Work Conflict
(Male Only)

	White Men		Men of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non-participation work conflict	1127	98.3	172	98.9	1299	98.3
Reason for non-participation, work conflict	20	1.7	2	1.1	22	1.7
Notes: Chi-Square=.326, df=1, p=.568						

In Table 36 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity and gender for students indicating work conflict as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white men to men of color, 1.7% of white men and 1.1% of men of color did not currently participate in sport programs at the University of Akron due to work conflict. This difference is not significant at alpha .05, there is no difference in the relationship between work conflict, race/ethnicity and gender for men.

Table 37 Chi-Square Results for Non-Participation Too Competitive (Female Only)						
	White Women		Women of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non-participation too competitive	1638	99.5	246	98.0	1884	99.3
Reason for non-participation, too competitive	9	0.5	5	2.0	14	0.7
Notes: Chi-Square=6.216 df=1, p=.013						

In Table 37 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity and gender for students indicating too competitive as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white women to women of color, 0.5% of white women and 2.0% of women of color did not currently participate in sport programs at the University of Akron due to sports being too competitive. This difference is significant at alpha .05, there is a difference in the relationship between too competitive, race/ethnicity and gender for women.

Table 38 Chi-Square Results for Non-Participation Too Competitive (Male Only)						
	White Men		Men of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non-participation too competitive	1140	99.4	172	98.9	1312	99.3
Reason for non-participation, too competitive	7	0.6	2	1.1	9	0.7
Notes: Chi-Square=.649 df=1, p=.420						

In Table 38 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity and gender for students indicating too competitive as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white men to men of color, 0.6% of white men and 1.1% of men of color did not currently participate in sport programs at the University of Akron due to sports being too competitive. This difference is not significant at alpha .05, there is no difference in the relationship between too competitive, race/ethnicity and gender for men.

Table 39
Chi-Square Results for Non-Participation Not Interested
(Female Only)

	White Women		Women of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non-participation not interested	1414	85.9	220	87.6	1634	86.1
Reason for non-participation, not interested	233	14.1	31	12.4	264	13.9
Notes: Chi-Square=.587 df=1, p=.444						

In Table 39 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity and gender for students indicating not interested as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white women to women of color, 14.1% of white women and 12.4% of women of color did not currently participate in sport programs at the University of Akron due to no interest. This difference is not significant at alpha .05, there is no difference in the relationship between no interest, race/ethnicity and gender for women.

Table 40 Chi-Square Results for Non-Participation Not Interested (Male Only)						
	White Men		Men of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non-participation not interested	1043	90.9	168	96.6	1211	91.7
Reason for non-participation, not interested	104	9.1	6	3.4	110	8.3
Notes: Chi-Square=.6.248 df=1, p=.012						

In Table 40 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity and gender for students indicating not interested as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white men to men of color, 9.1% of white men and 3.4% of men of color did not currently participate in sport programs at the University of Akron due to no interest. This difference is significant at alpha .05, there is a difference in the relationship between no interest, race/ethnicity and gender for men.

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Table 41 Chi-Square Results for Non-Participation Unaware it was Offered (Female Only)						
	White Women		Women of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non-participation unaware it was offered	1645	99.9	250	99.6	1895	99.8
Reason for non-participation, unaware it was offered	2	0.1	1	0.4	3	0.2
Notes: Chi-Square=1.059 df=1, p=.303						

In Table 41 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity and gender for students indicating unaware the sport was offered as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white women to women of color, 0.1% of white women and 0.4% of women of color did not currently participate in sport programs at the University of Akron due to being unaware it was offered. This difference is not significant at alpha .05, there is no difference in the relationship between unaware the sport was offered, race/ethnicity and gender for women.

Table 42
Chi-Square Results for Non-Participation Unaware it was Offered
(Male Only)

	White Men		Men of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non-participation unaware it was offered	1143	99.7	173	1	1316	5
Reason for non-participation, unaware it was offered	4	0.3	99.4	0.6	99.6	0.4
Notes: Chi-Square=.205 df=1, p=.651						

In Table 42 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity and gender for students indicating unaware the sport was offered as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white men to men of color, 0.3% of white men and 0.6% of men of color did not currently participate in sport programs at the University of Akron due to being unaware it was offered. This difference is not significant at alpha .05, there is no difference in the relationship between unaware the sport was offered, race/ethnicity and gender for men.

Table 43 Chi-Square Results for Non-Participation Lack of Athletic Aid By Race/Ethnicity						
	White Students		Students of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non-participation lack of athletic aid	2779	99.5	422	99.3	3201	99.4
Reason for non-participation, lack of athletic aid	15	0.5	3	0.7	18	0.6
Notes: Chi-Square=.190, df=1, p=.663						

In Table 43 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity for students indicating lack of athletic aid as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white students to students of color, 0.5% of white students and 0.7% of students of color did not currently participate in sport programs at the University of Akron due to a lack of athletic aid. This difference is not significant at alpha .05, there is no difference in the relationship between lack of athletic aid and race/ethnicity.

Table 44 Chi-Square Results for Non-Participation Too Competitive By Race/Ethnicity						
	White Students		Students of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non-participation too competitive	2778	99.4	418	98.4	3196	99.3
Reason for non-participation, too competitive	16	0.6	7	1.6	23	0.7
Notes: Chi-Square=6.003 df=1, p=.014						

In Table 44 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity for students indicating too competitive as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white students to students of color, 0.6% of white students and 1.6% of students of color did not currently participate in sport programs at the University of Akron due to sports being too competitive. This difference is significant at alpha .05, there is a difference in the relationship between sports being too competitive and race/ethnicity.

Table 45
Chi-Square Results for Non-Participation Work Conflict
By Race/Ethnicity

	White Students		Students of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non-participation work conflict	2754	98.6	413	97.2	3167	98.4
Reason for non-participation, work conflict	40	1.4	12	2.8	52	1.6
Notes: Chi-Square=.4.497 df=1, p=.034						

In Table 45 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity for students indicating work conflict as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white students to students of color, 1.4% of white students and 2.8% of students of color did not currently participate in sport programs at the University of Akron due to a work conflict. This difference is significant at alpha .05, there is a difference in the relationship between work conflict and race/ethnicity.

Table 46 Chi-Square Results for Non-Participation Lack of Time By Race/Ethnicity						
	White Students		Students of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non-participation lack of time	2569	91.9	382	89.9	2951	91.7
Reason for non-participation, lack of time	225	8.1	43	10.1	268	8.3
Notes: Chi-Square= 2.060 df=1, p=.151						

In Table 46 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity for students indicating lack of time as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white students to students of color, 8.1% of white students and 10.1% of students of color did not currently participate in sport programs at the University of Akron due to a lack of time. This difference is significant at alpha .05, there is no difference in the relationship between a lack of time and race/ethnicity.

Table 47 Chi-Square Results for Non-Participation Unaware it was Offered By Race/Ethnicity						
	White Students		Students of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non-participation unaware it was offered	2788	99.8	423	99.5	3211	99.8
Reason for non-participation, unaware it was offered	6	0.2	2	0.5	8	0.2
Notes: Chi-Square=.974 df=1, p=.324						

In Table 47 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity for students indicating being unaware the sport was offered as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white students to students of color, 0.2% of white students and 0.5% of students of color did not currently participate in sport programs at the University of Akron due to being unaware it was offered. This difference is not significant at alpha .05, there is no difference in the relationship between unaware the sport was offered and race/ethnicity.

Analysis Non-Participation of Respondents With Experience, Interests, and Abilities

Respondents who selected on the questionnaire that they had experience, interests, or abilities to report but were not currently participating in intercollegiate sports at the University of Akron were asked “Why Not?” The responses to this question were open ended and the researcher combined the responses into future interest, lack of athletic aid, lack of information, lack of time, not interested, other, sport unavailable, sport injury, too competitive, transfer student, unaware it was offered, and work conflict. A chi-square

test of significance[5] was used to analyze the results of these findings in order to see if there was a relationship between these variables, race/ethnicity, and gender.

Table 48
Chi-Square Results for Lack of Information
(Female Only)

	White Women		Women of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non-participation lack of information	1595	96.8	243	96.8	1838	96.8
Reason for non-participation, lack of information	52	3.2	8	3.2	60	3.2
Notes: Chi-Square=.001, df=1, p=.980						

In Table 48 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity and gender for students indicating a lack of information as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white women to women of color 3.2% of white women and 3.2% of women of color did not currently participate in sport programs at the University of Akron due a lack of information. This difference is not significant at alpha .05, there is no difference in the relationship between lack of information, race/ethnicity and gender for women.

[5] A chi-square was not run on future interest, intramurals, other, transfer student, and unaware it was offered because the frequencies in these categories were too low.

Table 49 Chi-Square Results for Lack of Information (Male Only)						
	White Men		Men of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non- participation lack of information	1128	98.3	170	97.7	1298	98.3
Reason for non-participation, lack of information	19	1.7	4	2.3	23	1.7
Notes: Chi-Square=.364, df=1, p=.546						

In Table 49 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity and gender for students indicating a lack of information as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white men to men of color 1.7% of white men and 3.2% of men of color did not currently participate in sport programs at the University of Akron due to a lack of information. This difference is not significant at alpha .05, there is no difference in the relationship between lack of information, race/ethnicity and gender for men.

Table 50 Chi-Square Results for Lack of Time (Female Only)						
	White Women		Women of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non-participation lack of time	1292	78.4	200	79.7	1492	78.6
Reason for non-participation, lack of time	355	21.6	51	20.3	406	21.4
Notes: Chi-Square=.198, df=1, p=.657						

In Table 50 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity and gender for students indicating a lack of time as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white women to women of color 21.6% of white women and 20.3% of women of color did not currently participate in sport programs at the University of Akron due a to lack of time. This difference is not significant at alpha .05, there is no difference in the relationship between lack of time, race/ethnicity and gender for women.

Table 51
Chi-Square Results for Lack of Time
(Male Only)

	White Men		Men of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non-participation lack of time	970	84.6	148	85.1	1118	84.6
Reason for non-participation, lack of time	177	15.4	26	14.9	203	15.4
Notes: Chi-Square=.028, df=1, p=.868						

In Table 51 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity and gender for students indicating a lack of time as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white men to men of color 15.4% of white men and 14.9% of men of color did not currently participate in sport programs at the University of Akron due to lack of time. This difference is not significant at alpha .05, there is no difference in the relationship between lack of time, race/ethnicity and gender for men.

Table 52 Chi-Square Results for Not Interested (Female Only)						
	White Women		Women of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non-participation not interested	1573	95.5	243	96.8	1816	95.7
Reason for non-participation, not interested	74	4.5	8	3.2	82	4.3
Notes: Chi-Square=.898, df=1, p=.343						

In Table 52 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity and gender for students indicating not interested as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white women to women of color 4.5% of white women and 3.2% of women of color did not currently participate in sport programs at the University of Akron due no interest. This difference is not significant at alpha .05, there is no difference in the relationship between not interested, race/ethnicity and gender for women.

Table 53 Chi-Square Results for Not Interested (Male Only)						
	White Men		Men of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non-participation not interested	1104	96.3	167	96.0	1271	96.2
Reason for non-participation, not interested	43	3.7	7	4.0	50	3.8
Notes: Chi-Square=.031, df=1, p=.860						

In Table 53 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity and gender for students indicating not interested as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white men to men of color 3.7 % of white men and 4.0 % of men of color did not currently participate in sport programs at the University of Akron due no interest. This difference is not significant at alpha .05, there is no difference in the relationship between not interested, race/ethnicity and gender for men.

Table 54
Chi-Square Results for Sport Unavailable
(Female Only)

	White Women		Women of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non-participation sport unavailable	1601	97.2	242	96.4	1843	97.1
Reason for non-participation, sport unavailable	46	2.8	9	3.6	55	2.9
Notes: Chi-Square=.486, df=1, p=.486						

In Table 54 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity and gender for students indicating sport unavailable as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white women to women of color 2.8% of white women and 3.6% of women of color did not currently participate in sport programs at the University of Akron due the sport being unavailable. This difference is not significant at alpha .05, there is no difference in the relationship between sport unavailable, race/ethnicity and gender for women.

Table 55 Chi-Square Results for Sport Unavailable (Male Only)						
	White Men		Men of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non-participation sport unavailable	1115	97.2	168	96.6	1283	97.1
Reason for non-participation, sport unavailable	32	2.8	6	3.4	38	2.9
Notes: Chi-Square=.234, df=1, p=.628						

In Table 55 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity and gender for students indicating sport unavailable as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white men to men of color 2.8% of white men and 3.4% of men of color did not currently participate in sport programs at the University of Akron due the sport being unavailable. This difference is not significant at alpha .05, there is no difference in the relationship between sport unavailable, race/ethnicity and gender for men.

Table 56 Chi-Square Results for Too Competitive (Female Only)						
	White Women		Women of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non- participation too competitive	1563	94.9	229	91.2	1792	94.4
Reason for non-participation, too competitive	84	5.1	22	8.8	106	5.6
Notes: Chi-Square=5.548, df=1, p=.019						

In Table 56 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity and gender for students indicating too competitive as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white women to women of color 5.1% of white women and 8.8% of women of color did not currently participate in sport programs at the University of Akron due to the sport being too competitive. This difference is significant at alpha .05, there is a difference in the relationship between too competitive, race/ethnicity and gender for women.

Table 57
Chi-Square Results for Too Competitive
(Male Only)

	White Men		Men of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non- participation too competitive	1104	96.3	160	92.0	1264	95.7
Reason for non-participation, too competitive	43	3.7	14	8.0	57	4.3
Notes: Chi-Square=6.757, df=1, p=.009						

In Table 57 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity and gender for students indicating too competitive as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white men to men of color 3.7% of white men and 8.0% of men of color did not currently participate in sport programs at the University of Akron due to the sport being too competitive. This difference is significant at alpha .05, there is a difference in the relationship between too competitive, race/ethnicity and gender for men.

Table 58 Chi-Square Results for Work Conflict (Female Only)						
	White Women		Women of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non-participation work conflict	1608	97.6	248	98.8	1856	97.8
Reason for non-participation, work conflict	39	2.4	3	1.2	42	2.2
Notes: Chi-Square=1.384, df=1, p=.239						

In Table 58 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity and gender for students indicating work conflict as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white women to women of color 2.4% of white women and 1.2% of women of color did not currently participate in sport programs at the University of Akron due to work conflict. This difference is not significant at alpha .05, there is no difference in the relationship between work conflict, race/ethnicity and gender for women.

Table 59 Chi-Square Results for Work Conflict (Male Only)						
	White Men		Men of Color		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Did not select reason for non-participation work conflict	1135	99.0	172	98.9	1307	98.9
Reason for non-participation, work conflict	12	1.0	2	1.1	14	1.1
Notes: Chi-Square=.015, df=1, p=.901						

In Table 59 we tested the difference between race/ethnicity and gender for students indicating work conflict as their primary reason for not participating in athletics at the University of Akron. When comparing white men to men of color 1.0% of white men and 1.1% of men of color did not currently participate in sport programs at the University of Akron due to work conflict. This difference is not significant at alpha .05, there is no difference in the relationship between work conflict, race/ethnicity and gender for men.

Limitations of the Study

There were several limitations to this study. This was an exploratory case study that examined a single Division I University. As such the results from this study cannot be generalized to the population. Limitations also occurred within the data collection process. First, since this survey was conducted online and sent out by email only, students with active email accounts and those who checked their emails regularly had access to the survey. The returned emails added a bias in our study as well because those students were not included.

The researcher also encountered a few problems once the survey was sent out to the population. A number of students emailed the researcher noting that they had problems with the link to the survey. Numerous issues contributed and caused these problems. The first was that firewalls installed on computers might have prevented the 2-way system from working properly. Participants needed to enable the computers web browser to allow the link to open. The survey also was not compatible with Macintosh Computers, the survey only worked properly with PC and Internet explorer. Other limitations were that the survey required students to log on using their UAnet ID, if

students were uncomfortable using this information it may have deterred them from taking the survey. Other limitations were that students receive so much electronic mail daily that this survey may have been regarded as junk mail and been deleted before students even opened it. The addresses also may have been outdated for some students because there was no way to check for inaccuracies. The email addresses that were used for the population were the addresses assigned by the University of Akron for their students. This email address may not have been the preferred email address of certain students and not checked as regularly. Students were given the option to forward emails sent to the University of Akron email address to another email account. If students forwarded the University of Akron email to another preferred account then the email may have gone into pre-set junk mail. In an effort to alleviate some of these limitations the researcher sent out a troubleshooting email that informed participants of the possible problems. It was suggested that students who could not open the link take the survey from a computer on campus. The researcher also gave participants the option of requesting a paper copy of the survey to be filled out and returned.

Another limitation to this study was that respondents had the option to choose up to four sports to report experience, interests, and abilities. If students had experience in more than four sports then they were required to write about the extra sports in the comments section, making the data descriptive and not analytical. The researcher also made several assumptions about the data collected. The first assumption was that the first sport respondents selected as having interests in was the respondents preferred sport and was the main sport analyzed in this study. The second assumption was that students

who participated in sports at the varsity level in high school were more likely to participate in that sport at the intercollegiate level.

Research questions 1 and 2 only examined the differences between women of color and white females and men of color and white males in their high school sports participation at the varsity level. Research questions 3 and 4 only examined the differences between women of color and white females and men of color and white males in their current participation level at the collegiate level. Research questions 5 and 6 only examined the differences between women of color and white females and men of color and white males in current level of future participation as collegiate. Research questions 7 and 8 only examined the differences between women of color and white females and men of color and white males in their self assessed ability to play sports they indicated interest in at the college level. This approach limited the study to using information only pertaining to the college level and did not examine experience, interests, and abilities that may have been reported on other levels (intramural, club, junior varsity, or recreational).

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary of the Study

During the data analysis process the researcher made several assumptions about the data that was collected. First, the researcher assumed that the first sport selected when respondents answered the questionnaire was the primary sport that the respondents were interested in. Second, the researcher assumed that although athletes usually participate in more than one sport on the high school level once they begin to participate in intercollegiate sports, athletes usually only participate in one sport due to time constraints and year round training. In order to analyze the eight sub-research questions, the first sports selected by the respondents were analyzed using the variables sport experience, current experience, future experience, and athletic ability. The literature suggested that athletes who participate in a sport on the high school varsity level are more likely to compete on the intercollegiate level. For this reason the researcher examined the differences between race and gender at the varsity level in high school for research questions 1 and 2. For research questions 3 thru 6 the researcher was looking for differences in participation on the current intercollegiate level and in future participation. The study was designed to examine if all students, regardless of race or gender received equal athletic opportunities by matching the interests and abilities of students by race and

gender. In order to examine the possibility of equal opportunities the researcher only examined students who reported their current and future participation as being intercollegiate. The researcher then examined research questions 7 and 8, "Is there a difference between women of color and white females on their self-assessed ability to participate in sports they indicated an interest in?" and "Is there a difference between men of color and white males on their self-assessed ability to participate in sports they indicated an interest in?" to determine if respondents had the ability to compete in intercollegiate athletics.

Summary of the Proceedings

The researcher aimed to conduct an assessment of student's interests and abilities in athletic sports at the University of Akron. Before the study was conducted, the researcher did an extensive review of the literature on Title IX, race, and gender. The literature suggested that Title IX put women of color at a disadvantage under part two of the three-prong test (continuing history of expansion) by adding sports that traditionally women of color did not participate in. There has not been a great deal of research pertaining to Title IX and women of color. When contemplating what instrument to use, the researcher wanted to use an instrument that was already established and deemed valid and reliable. The purpose for using the instrument developed by the NCES was two-fold. The first reason was because it was already established as an appropriate instrument to measure the research questions, the second reason was because there has been some controversy on measuring interests and abilities using a web-based survey and the researcher wanted to examine if the instructions given by the NCES were precise enough for colleges and universities to accurately measure the interests and abilities of their

students. In order of the administration of the questionnaire, the researcher first obtained permission to conduct the study from the Institutional Review Board at the University of Akron (Appendix D). Next, in consultation with the web developer, the researcher recreated the interests and abilities questionnaire using the 2Way system. Then, the researcher sent out the questionnaire instructions, questionnaire and subsequent reminders which offered students incentives to complete the questionnaire. And, lastly, the researcher analyzed the questionnaire data and wrote up the results.

Summary of Findings

The sports that women reported intercollegiate interest in were basketball, bowling, cross country, equestrian, football, gymnastics, lacrosse, skiing, soccer, softball, swimming and diving, tennis, indoor track and field, outdoor track and field, and volleyball. The University of Akron currently offers 8 of these 15 sports for women. Women sports offered at the University of Akron are basketball, cross-country, soccer, softball, swimming and diving, indoor track and field, outdoor track and field, and volleyball. The findings (Table 20) showed significant differences in 5 sports between women of color and white women. The sports that women of color are the most likely to want to participate in on the college level are basketball and outdoor track and field. The sports that white women are most likely to want to participate in on the college level are soccer, softball, and swimming and diving. The University of Akron does not meet the needs of all women in regards to the sports that they currently sponsor because this study found that there are women attending the University of Akron that would be interested in participating in sports not currently offered. The differences in interests among these sports by race was found to agree with the literature that Division I colleges and

universities often times add sports that women of color are less likely to show an interest in. Sports that were found to have a significant difference between women of color and white women pertaining to their interests to participate on the college level were soccer, softball, swimming and diving, basketball, and outdoor track and field. According to the NCAA sports sponsorship and participation rates report between 1981-82 and 2004-5 (www.ncaa.org) Division I institutions have added 212 soccer programs, 78 softball programs, and 33 swimming and diving programs meeting the reported interests of white women. During the same time frame the NCAA Division I only added 10 basketball programs and 65 outdoor track and field programs, these are the sports that women of color were found to show significant more interests in than white women.

The data found that (see Table 20) men attending the University of Akron were interested in baseball, basketball, bowling, cross country, football, golf, ice hockey, lacrosse, soccer, swimming and diving, tennis, outdoor track and field, volleyball, and wrestling on the college level. The University of Akron offers 8 of the 14 sports. Men sports offered at the University of Akron are baseball, basketball, cross-country, football, golf, soccer, indoor track and field, and outdoor track and field. The findings also revealed that of the sports that were reported to have significant differences of participation between men of color and white men the University of Akron offers 3 of the 4, football, track and field, and baseball. The University of Akron dropped men's tennis in 1998; however the researcher found a significant difference of interests for men of color when compared to white men, men of color reported an interest in men's tennis. Men of color were more likely to show a greater interest in football, outdoor track and field, and tennis. White men on the other hand, were found significantly more likely to

show an interest in participating in baseball on the collegiate level. According to the NCCA sports sponsorship and participation report (www.ncaa.org), the NCAA has added 12 football programs, 50 outdoor track and field programs, 16 tennis programs, and 11 baseball programs between 1981-82 and 2004-05. The NCAA has dropped 15 football programs, 48 track programs, 54 tennis programs, and 23 baseball programs in the same time frame. Since men of color are more likely to show an interest in tennis than white men and the University of Akron dropped their men's tennis program this would suggest that when schools drop men's teams to comply with Title IX they put men of color at a disadvantage.

The findings in this study also agree with the literature that high school participation can predict college participation - the regression analysis showed that men are 1.6 times more likely to participate in high school varsity sports than women (Table 30). This difference shows that women are not participating in varsity sports in high school at the same rate as men. When women attend college they are at a disadvantage when compared to men, suggesting that by the time athletes enter college in an effort to participate in sports on the collegiate level it may be too late provide equitable programming. Children who are not involved in sport activities in elementary, intermediate and secondary education are less likely to participate in sports when they attend college. In addition, student athletes are less likely to have the ability to participate in sports at the intercollegiate level if they did not participate in sports during high school. The regression analysis also found that students that participate in high varsity sports are 10 times more likely to participate in intercollegiate sports than students who did not (Table 29). This finding agrees with the literature that in order to have the

ability to participate in intercollegiate athletics one must first develop this ability on the high school level.

Students who reported experience, interests, and abilities but did not choose an NCAA sponsored sport listed a variety of other sports that they participated in at the high school level. Respondents reported figure skating, bodybuilding, dance, cheerleading, snowboarding, marital arts, cycling, baton twirling, broomball, color guard, weight lifting, marching band, motocross, roller blading, racquetball, ultimate frisbee, and yoga. The NCAA may want to consider adding new "emerging sports" for women - the current emerging sports for women are archery, badminton, equestrian, rugby, squash, synchronized swimming, and team handball. The only sport that students at the University of Akron reported having interests in out of those sports was equestrian, which the University of Akron does not offer.

Summary of the major findings included women of color being more likely to want to participate in outdoor track and field and basketball. White women were more likely to want to participate in softball, soccer, and swimming and diving. The main reasons that students do not participate in sport programming at the University of Akron differs by race/ethnicity, students of color reported lack of time, too competitive, and work conflicts as reasons for non-participation.

Women of Color at The University of Akron

This study set out to examine how women of color benefited from sport programming at the University of Akron under Title IX. When looking at the interests and abilities of women of color (part three of the three-prong test), women of color showed interest (Table 20) in six sports, basketball (21 percent), outdoor track and field

(16 percent), volleyball (15 percent), other[1](12 percent), softball (8 percent) and tennis (7 percent). The University of Akron met the interests of women of color in this regard by offering all of the sports women of color showed an interest in. However this study showed that by the time women of color reach college it is too late to measure interests and abilities. When student athletes reach the college level, they have already developed the interest and ability to participate in a particular sport. The literature suggests that women of color face barriers to participating in sports before they reach the college level - putting them at a disadvantage for sport participation.

It was shown in this study that women of color were more likely to participate in basketball[*] and outdoor track and field [*] when compared to their white counterparts. This difference was found to be significant and put women of color at a disadvantage in sport participation. This finding also suggested that women of color are interested in participating in outdoor track and field and basketball when compared to white women, giving women of color limited opportunities at the University of Akron. While it is true that the University of Akron offers both basketball and outdoor track and field, there are only a limited number of spots on each team. Once these positions are filled then there is no more room for others to participate. This suggests that women of color who were not recruited to participate on a sport team, or only have the interests/and or ability to participate in a few sports, have limited opportunities at The University of Akron. There are nine sport teams currently offered at The University of Akron and women of color only show interests to participate in a few. Women of color are overrepresented, when

[1] the other category includes sports that individuals participate in but are not sponsored by the NCAA.
[*] This difference was found to be significant at alpha .05

comparing interests to white women in basketball and track and field, and underrepresented in, cross country, indoor track and field, soccer, softball, swimming and diving, tennis, and volleyball at the University of Akron.

Among students who reported having no experience, interests, or abilities to report, there was a significant difference between women of color and white women in terms of non-participation, specifically lack of time, work conflict, and too competitive. More women of color (12.4%) reported a lack of time as their reason for non-participation in sports on the college level when compared white women (8.3%). Women of color are more likely to lack the time to participate in college athletics at the University of Akron. More research needs to be conducted in order to find out why this exists.

Four percent of women of color and 1.2% of white women reported work conflict as another reason for non-participation. This difference was found to be significant. This finding suggests that women of color are more likely than white women to have to work while they attend college. This finding agrees with the literature that women of color are at a financial disadvantage while attending school and financial barriers often times cause barriers to higher education. Two percent of women of color as compared to 0.5% of white women reported sports being too competitive for a reason for non-participation. This finding was also found to be significant suggesting that women of color are more likely than white women to find the sport programming offered at the University of Akron as too competitive. This finding suggests that women of color do not have the ability to participate in sports once they reach the college level. This finding agrees with the literature that women of color only participate in a few select sports at earlier stages

of life. Reasons for this could be because of the lack of role models for women of color, the lack of finances to participate in costly sports such as ice skating, equestrian, or golf, or the lack of opportunities. Either way once women of color reach the collegiate level they lack the skills necessary to compete at the college level.

Respondents Not Reporting Experience, Interests, and Abilities

There were 774 respondents that did not wish to report athletic experience, interests, and abilities. Students that selected not to report information about their athletic experience were asked "what is your primary reason for not participating in sports at the University of Akron." The responses were lack of athletic aid, lack of time, not interested, too competitive, unaware it was offered, and work conflict. Among women, there was a significant different for lack of time between women of color and white women. Women of color reporting no experience, interest, or abilities are more likely to not have enough time to participate in sports at the University of Akron. Women of color not reporting experience, interests, and abilities were also found to have work conflicts that prevent them from participating in sports as compared to white women. It was also found that women of color perceive sport programming at the University of Akron as being too competitive as compared to white women.

When comparing men, a significant relationship was found between those who have no interest in participating in sports and race. White men are more likely not to show interest in participating in sports as compared to men of color.

When comparing students by race this study found that students of color are more likely to perceive sports at The University of Akron as being too competitive. This relationship was found to be significant. Students of color are also more likely than white

students to not participate in sports due to work conflict and white students are more likely than students of color not to participate in sports because they are not interested, this relationship is also significant.

Reasons for Non-participation for Student Reporting Experience

Students who responded that they would like to report experience, interests, and abilities on the questionnaire were asked to report about high school sport participation, current sport participation, future sport participation, and abilities. If respondents responded none under current participation or future participation a pop up box would appear asking them "why not"? There were numerous reasons given by respondents for why they did not participate in sports at the University of Akron currently and why they did not want to participate in the future. Respondents reported that some of the reasons they did not participate in sports at the University of Akron currently were due to time constraints, there was a preference by some students to compete leisurely or in intramurals, some respondents reported that the sports they were interested in participating in on the college level were not offered at the University of Akron, some students reported that they were focusing on their academics, other student reported that they sustained injuries that prevented them from participation, students receiving an associate degree are not allowed to participate in athletics, other respondents were unaware of how to participate in intramural or club sports, some reported that they have children or family responsibilities, others did not make the team, etc. Several students cited not being able to focus on academics and successfully play an NCAA sport simultaneously. Students felt participation in an intercollegiate sport would be time

consuming so they were not interested in participating. There were also a number of students that did not make the team when trying out.

The responses were categorized and a chi-square analysis was run. The categories were divided into future interests, lack of athletic aid, lack of information, lack of time, not interests, other, sports unavailable, sports injury, too competitive, transfer student, unaware it was offered, and work conflict. There was a significant relationship between sports being too competitive and race. Women of color and men of color are more likely not to participate in sports because they feel they are too competitive when compared to their white counterparts.

Students reported interests in participating in sports on the intramural level but reported a lack of opportunity along with not knowing how to obtain the necessary information for participation as reasons for not participating currently in sports at the University of Akron. The University of Akron should make sure that information on what sport teams are offered and on what level is readily available to all students that request it. It is unfortunate that students miss out on opportunities to participate due to a lack of information.

Conclusion and Implications

The purpose of this study was to examine if the University of Akron offers sport programming equitable to all students regardless of race or color under Title IX. As discussed earlier there are three parts of compliance in which a University must follow in order to comply with Title IX in the athletics, substantial proportionality, continuing history of expansion, and interests and abilities. A college or university is found to be in compliance with Title IX if they can prove that they meet one of these measures. A

university meets the substantial proportionality requirement when the proportion of the athletes at that particular college or university is the same or within one percentage point as the proportion of their undergraduate enrollment. For example if women make up 54% of the undergraduate population then 54% of the athletes should be women. (Facts and Figures, 2006).

According to data collected from the Equity in Disclosure Act for the AY 2004-2005[2] out the 327 Division I Colleges and Universities 296 do not meet prong one of Title IX (Appendix C). The University of Akron does not meet the substantial proportionality requirement according in this list. Women made up approximately 54% of the undergraduate enrollment but only an estimated 43% of the student-athletes were female. The University of Akron failed to meet substantial proportionality by approximately nine percent.

In order to meet Title IX compliance the University of Akron currently uses prong two, continuing history of expansion. This part requires that a University must show a continuing history of expansion of sport programs for the under represented gender. According to a report provided by the University of Akron, since 1981 the University has eliminated three sports for men and added five women's sports as a way to eliminate disparities in sport programs between men's and women's athletic programs (see Table 59).

[2]At the time of this report data for AY 2005-2006 was not available from the equity and disclosure act.

Table 60
The History of Sport Programs Offered at the University of Akron

Sports Offered for Men	Year Added	Year Dropped	Sports Offered for Women	Year Added
Baseball	1873		Rifle*	1952
Football	1891		Basketball	1974
Basketball	1901		Volleyball	1974
Cross Country	1935		Softball	1976
Outdoor Track and Field	1935	1998	Tennis	1976
Indoor Track and Field	1935		Cross Country	1981
Golf	1950		Outdoor Track and Field	1981
Tennis	1950		Indoor Track and Field	1981
Swimming and Diving	1952	1985	Swimming and Diving	1998
Rifle*	1952	1980	Soccer	2000
Soccer	1955			
Wrestling	1950	1981		

*Denotes "mixed" sport consisting of both male and female participants

Table 60 provides a look into the history of sports offered at the University of Akron. The history of intercollegiate athletics at the University of Akron provides the researcher with a historical background on the implementation of sports. The first sport for men was baseball starting in 1873, while the first opportunity females had to participate on a sports team was not until 1974[3]. The first all female sports teams added at the University of Akron were basketball and volleyball in 1974, these sports emerged two years after the passing of Title IX and over 100 years after the first male sport team was started at the University of Akron. There were 12 established men's sport programs in place before women were given the opportunity to participate on one intercollegiate sport team.

[3] Rifle was considered a mixed sport when it was eliminated but when it was first established women were not allowed to participate on the team.

This finding supports the literature in that men's teams have been around for centuries while women's teams have only been around for a few decades. Women's soccer was not added to the University of Akron until the year 2000. Opportunities for women to receive athletic aid are just beginning. When discussing interests and abilities of sports it has been argued that some women are not interested in sports because of societal views and values that have kept them from participating early on in their life (Eitzen & Sage, 2003)

This was one of many reasons the researcher decided to investigate the third part for compliance, interests and abilities. The University of Akron has not conducted an interests and abilities assessment among the student body. According to (Garrett, 2000) most schools do not conduct interests and ability surveys because there is a greater risk to be found in non-compliance. If a school conducts an interest and abilities survey and the results demonstrate that the institution is not meeting the interests and abilities of the underrepresented gender, then the university is obligated to add whatever sport the students recommend. There has been controversy over how to measure the interests and ability prong. Sabo & Grant (2005) discuss problems with the way schools are allowed to administer the interests and abilities survey developed by the NCES. One argument is that the survey would generate a low response rate. This study sent the survey out to the entire undergraduate population and had a response rate of 23%. While this rate was acceptable for an exploratory study colleges and universities need to ensure that students actually respond to the survey (currently no response means the student is not interested in athletics at the institution). That assumption may not always be accurate; some students may see the email as spam or junk mail. Students may receive the survey and

not take it seriously. The Department of Education did not take into account the possibility of a low response rate, unequal access to the Internet, or the inability to troubleshoot (Sabo & Grant, 2005).

While the University of Akron is in compliance with Title IX under part two, continuing history and expansion, they still are not meeting the needs of all students who show interest. The University of Akron does not offer every sport that students showed intercollegiate interests in. For example the last sport the University of Akron added was soccer in 2000 (Table 60). It was found that more white women than women of color want to participate in soccer on the college level. The University of Akron may offer basketball and outdoor track for women of color to participate in but they have not added a women's sport in over 6 years and there are only a certain number of available spots on a team so women of color interested in playing basketball and outdoor track may not be able to do so due to lack of spots on the team.

The University of Akron does offer a number of club sports such as badminton and tennis, cricket, ice hockey, racquetball, skiing and snowboarding, aquatics, ballroom dance, equestrian, rifle, and ultimate Frisbee. The sports that are offered by the NCAA may request varsity status if there is enough interest shown. Social equity may be hard to achieve but it is imperative for a University to take into account all the factors when decided on sports programming and not just a few. Institutions of higher learning are here to serve students and the communities.

The literature suggested that individuals participate in sports for numerous reasons. This study found that to be true as well, because respondents listed a host of reasons for participating in sports. The findings of this study did not demonstrate a

significant difference between race/ethnicity for all sports but there was a significant difference for women of color and white women in five sports and the sports women of color are the most likely to show interest in are not being added for Title IX compliance.

The implications of this study are that schools may want to take into consideration race as well as gender when complying with Title IX. While most schools prefer to use part one proportionality for compliance 90% of Division I schools are not meeting this requirement currently (Appendix C). The researcher feels that in order to truly measure gender discrimination in sports it is imperative to talk to the students to find out their interests; however the researcher agrees with the argument that an interests and abilities survey may not be the best method.

In terms of Title IX compliance at the University of Akron the data showed that they do not meet prong one of the three-part test. The University of Akron relies on prong two, continuing history of expansion (Soccer was the last sport added in 2000) The data also suggested that the needs of all students are not being met because the University of Akron does not offer every sport that students showed intercollegiate interest in. Sports that women showed interest in but are not offered at the University of Akron are: bowling, equestrian, football, gymnastics, lacrosse, and skiing. Sports that men showed interest in but are not offered at The University of Akron include ice hockey, lacrosse, swimming and diving, tennis, volleyball, and wrestling. The University of Akron offers all the sports that women of color show interest in and for men of color all sports that interest was shown in are offered except for tennis.

Recommendations

Colleges and Universities should be required to identify which part of the three prong test they are using to comply with Title IX and why. In this regard, institutions would have a model of compliance and schools could be held accountable for non-compliance immediately instead of the OCR having to take months to figure out which model of compliance was being used and why. Race should also be a factor when looking at compliance with Title IX to make sure that sport programs meet social equity. Of the sports that have been added over the past years women of color are only interested in participating in a few. Another recommendation is that if schools decide to measure interests and abilities as a way to comply with Title IX then students should be mandated to complete the survey before they can register for classes. It is very important to make sure if measuring interests and abilities that you measure the interests and abilities of all students. Also is it recommended to develop a better measure of compliance than the three-part test. As it stands now the only part of the three-part test that can be measured accurately is proportionality. According to this part of the prong, over 90% of Division I schools are not in compliance with Title IX, including the University of Akron. Part two continuing history of expansion has limitations as well. The NCAA only offers 30 sports, once a school adds all the sports then where do they go? Also it is not realistic for a school financially to add all of the sport programs.

This study showed that of the 30 NCAA sponsored sports there is only student interest in a select few. It is also recommended for schools to stop using money as an excuse for non-compliance. Title IX is a federal law and universities should not be allowed to break this law because they are unable to figure out how to balance their

athletic budget between male and female athletes. Another recommendation is for the OCR to be more proactive. One of the consequences for non-compliance to Title IX is the removal of federal funding from institutions. This has never been done and is seen as an empty threat. It is also recommended to find other ways to measure interests and abilities. Quantitative data is useful when looking at numbers but qualitative data can help to explain why. It is suggested that instead of only sending out surveys colleges and universities conduct focus groups, and interviews with actual students to see what athletic programs they want and do not want and why or why not. In order to measure Title IX and see if it is socially equitable, schools need to use part three, interests and abilities; however it must be taken into consideration that every student may have different interests and abilities and sending out a web based survey is not the best way to measure those interests and/or abilities. The NCAA may want to consider adding cheerleading or band as an NCAA sport. It would be feasible because most colleges already offer cheerleading and band as an activity. Another recommendation is that the NCAA may want to consider adding new "emerging sports," the current emerging sports for women are archery, badminton, equestrian, rugby, squash, synchronized swimming, and team handball.

Recommendations for future Studies

Several ideas for future research could add depth to this study. Future research may include:

- Conducting a study which examines why women of color do not participate in sport programs.

- Using the data collected and examining all levels of participation such as club, intramural, junior varsity, and recreational in an attempt to determine if there are any differences in sports participation by race.
- A researcher may want to expand the study population and examine more than one school. Schools in the same conference may consist of the study population and eventually a study population containing all Division I schools may be implemented.
- A researcher may want to compare race and gender differences among NCAA Division I, Division II, and Division III schools to see if there are any significant differences among sport participation among the different divisions.
- The researcher may also want to examine high school sports participation by race to see who is more likely to participate in what sport in high school.
- Another study may want to examine annual household incomes to see if household income emerges as a significant factor in participation.
- A study could also be done pertaining for compliance coordinators at different colleges and universities. The research could examine what part institutions use for compliance and why? Do they consider race why or why not?
- Future research should also look at interests in sports in adolescents to see what at what age one can best predict what sport an individual will choose later on in life. Examining sports on the college level may be too late.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

SAMPLE QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SURVEY RESPONDENTS

The University of Akron
Assessment of Students' Athletic Interests and Abilities
September 2006

Hello, my name is Cryshanna A. Jackson. I am a graduate student in the Department of Public Administration and Urban Studies at the University of Akron. I am conducting a survey to identify the extent to which students have the athletic interest, ability, and opportunity to play sports at the University of Akron.

The purpose of this study is to collect information on student interest in athletics and also student participation rates. This information will be used to see if all students, regardless or race or gender, have an equal opportunity to participate in sports at the University of Akron.

Your responses to this survey are completely confidential and will be protected throughout the study and publication. Participation in this study is voluntary, and you can refrain from answering any or all questions without penalty or explanation. Please note that your responses are appreciated and will add to the validity of this study. It is estimated that your participation will take approximately 5 minutes.

If you have any questions or comments concerning this study, please feel free to contact me at my office (330-972-8802) or contact my faculty advisor, Dr. Rajade Berry-James (330-972-5407). The Institutional Review Board approved this survey for The Protection of Human Subjects at The University of Akron. Questions or comments can also be directed to the Institutional Review Board to the attention of Ms. Sharon McWhorter, Associate Director, (1-330-972-8311 or 1-888-232-8790) Office of Research Services and Sponsored Programs, The University of Akron, Akron, Ohio 44325-2102.

If you decide to participate in this survey, you will be entered into a free drawing to receive an I-Pod. Please make sure you include your name and address on the last page of the survey if you would like a chance at winning an I-Pod. Thank you, in advance, for your assistance. Your responses will assist me in identifying the interests and abilities of students attending the University of Akron.

Please circle 'YES' or 'NO'		
I have read and agree to participate in this survey. I am aware that my participation is voluntary and I can stop answering or refuse to answer any question that I don't feel comfortable answering. I am aware that my answers will be kept strictly confidential. If you circle YES, please continue on with the survey.	YES	NO

THE UNIVERSITY OF AKRON
ASSESSMENT OF STUDENT ATHLETIC INTERESTS AND ABILITIES

Section I: Demographic Information

Please enter the following demographic information by putting an 'x' in the appropriate box or by typing in your response.

1. *Your age (type or write in)* _____

2. *Your gender*: [ ] Male [ ] Female

3. *Your race/ethnicity: (please check one)*
   [ ] Asian or Pacific Islander
   [ ] Black, Non-Hispanic
   [ ] Hispanic
   [ ] White, Non-Hispanic
   [ ] Other: Please Specify_____

1. *Your current year in school*:
   [ ] Freshman
   [ ] Sophomore
   [ ] Junior
   [ ] Senior
   [ ] Other: Please Specify_____

5. *Your student status*:
   [ ] Full Time [ ]Part Time

6. Current household income:
   [ ] under $15,000
   [ ] $15,001-$30,000
   [ ] $30,001-$50,000
   [ ] $50,001-$80,000
   [ ] over $80,000
   [ ] unknown

7. Are you currently taking mostly:
   [ ] day courses
   [ ] evening courses
   [ ] both
   [ ] unknown

Section II: Information about Athletic Experience, Interests and Abilities

You will next be asked to provide information about your athletic experience, current participation in athletic activities, interests in future participation and athletic abilities.

If you have no experience, current participation, or interests in future participation, please put an 'x' in the box below and continue to **Section III**.
[ ] I have no athletic experience, current participation or interest in future participation (Please continue to **Section III**).

If you DO WISH TO REPORT YOUR EXPERIENCES, current participation, interests in future participation or abilities, please continue with SECTION II.

For the sports that you choose on the next page you will be asked to provide information about your athletic experience, current participation, interests in future participation and sport abilities. The format in which the information is to be entered is:

- **Experience:** At what level did you participate in this sport in high school? Responses from which you may choose are "Recreational," "Intramural," "Club," "Junior Varsity," "Varsity," and "Other" (please specify).
- **Current Participation:** At what level are you participating in this sport at the University of Akron? Responses from which you may choose are "Recreational," "Intramural," "Club," "Intercollegiate," and "Other" (please specify).
- **Interest in Future Participation:** At what level do you wish to participate in this sport at the University of Akron? Responses from which you may choose are "Recreational," "Intramural," "Club," "Varsity," and "Other" (please specify).
- **Ability:** Do you believe that you have the ability to participate at the level at which you indicated interest? Responses from which you may choose are "Yes, I have the ability" and "No, I would need to develop the ability."

Because of the large number of sports, and since any one person is unlikely to have experience, current participation, or interest in future participation in more than a few, please select from the list the sport(s) for which you wish to provide information about your athletic experience, current participation, interest in future participation, and abilities. In the tables labeled **Section II, Sports 1-5**, please type in the name of the sport and put an "x" in the box(es) to indicate your response to the questions on the following page. ***You need only to fill out information for those sports that you have participated in.***

List of Sports: All of Section II, will ask you to respond to questions about your athletic experience, interests and abilities in relationship to the sports listed below.		
Archery	Golf	Squash
Badminton	Gymnastics	Swimming and Diving
Baseball	Ice Hockey	Synchronized Swimming
Basketball	Lacrosse	Team Handball
Bowling	Rifle	Tennis
Cross Country	Rowing	Indoor Track and Field
Equestrian	Rugby	Outdoor Track and Field
Fencing	Skiing	Volleyball
Field Hockey	Soccer	Water Polo
Football	Softball	Wrestling
		Other:

SECTION II. SPORT (1)	**Sport Experience**	**Current Participation**	**Interest in Future Participation**	**Ability**
Please List Sport Below: _____	At what level did you participate in this sport in high school?	At what level are you participating in this sport at the University of Akron?	At what level do you wish to participate in this sport at the University of Akron?	Do you believe that you have the ability to participate at the level at which you indicated interest?
	[ ] Recreational [ ] Intramural [ ] Club [ ] Junior Varsity [ ] Varsity [ ] Other (please specify)_____	[ ] Recreational [ ] Intramural [ ] Club [ ] Intercollegiate [ ] Other (please specify)_____	[ ] Recreational [ ] Intramural [ ] Club [ ] Intercollegiate [ ] Other (please specify)_____	[ ] Yes, I have the ability [ ] No, I would need to develop the ability
SECTION II. SPORT (2)	**Sport Experience**	**Current Participation**	**Interest in Future Participation**	**Ability**
Please List Sport Below: _____	At what level did you participate in this sport in high school?	At what level are you participating in this sport at the University of Akron?	At what level do you wish to participate in this sport at the University of Akron?	Do you believe that you have the ability to participate at the level at which you indicated interest?
	[ ]Recreational [ ]Intramural [ ]Club [ ]Junior Varsity [ ]Varsity [ ] Other (please specify)_____	[ ]Recreational [ ]Intramural [ ]Club [ ]Intercollegiate [ ] Other (please specify)_____	[ ]Recreational [ ]Intramural [ ]Club [ ]Intercollegiate [ ]Other (please specify _____	[ ] Yes, I have the ability [ ] No, I would need to develop the ability

SECTION II. SPORT (3)	Sport Experience	Current Participation	Interest in Future Participation	Ability
Please List Sport Below: _____	At what level did you participate in this sport in high school?	At what level are you participating in this sport at the University of Akron?	At what level do you wish to participate in this sport at the University of Akron?	Do you believe that you have the ability to participate at the level at which you indicated interest?
	[ ] Recreational [ ] Intramural [ ] Club [ ] Junior Varsity [ ] Varsity [ ] Other (please specify)_____	[ ] Recreational [ ] Intramural [ ] Club [ ] Intercollegiate [ ] Other (please specify)_____	[ ] Recreational [ ] Intramural [ ] Club [ ] Intercollegiate [ ] Other (please specify)_____	[ ] Yes, I have the ability [ ] No, I would need to develop the ability
SECTION II. SPORT (4)	**Sport Experience**	**Current Participation**	**Interest in Future Participation**	**Ability**
Please List Sport Below: _____	At what level did you participate in this sport in high school?	At what level are you participating in this sport at the University of Akron?	At what level do you wish to participate in this sport at the University of Akron?	Do you believe that you have the ability to participate at the level at which you indicated interest?
	[ ] Recreational [ ] Intramural [ ] Club [ ] Junior Varsity [ ] Varsity [ ] Other (please specify)_____	[ ] Recreational [ ] Intramural [ ] Club [ ] Intercollegiate [ ] Other (please specify)_____	[ ] Recreational [ ] Intramural [ ] Club [ ] Intercollegiate [ ] Other (please specify)_____	[ ] Yes, I have the ability [ ] No, I would need to develop the ability
SECTION II. SPORT (5)	**Sport Experience**	**Current Participation**	**Interest in Future Participation**	**Ability**
Please List Sport Below: _____	At what level did you participate in this sport in high school?	At what level are you participating in this sport at the University of Akron?	At what level do you wish to participate in this sport at the University of Akron?	Do you believe that you have the ability to participate at the level at which you indicated interest?
	[ ] Recreational [ ] Intramural [ ] Club [ ] Junior Varsity [ ] Varsity [ ] Other (please specify)_____	[ ] Recreational [ ] Intramural [ ] Club [ ] Intercollegiate [ ] Other (please specify)_____	[ ] Recreational [ ] Intramural [ ] Club [ ] Intercollegiate [ ] Other (please specify)_____	[ ] Yes, I have the ability [ ] No, I would need to develop the ability

If you would like to list more than five sports, please copy and past this table. Thank you.

Section III: Information about Non-Participation

What is the primary reason that you do not participate in sports at the University of Akron (if applicable)? Please put an "x" for all that apply.

	Lack of time		Work conflict		Not Interested
	Too competitive		Lack of Athletic Aid		Other:

Which of the following sport teams would you come to watch (please put an 'x' next to all that apply)?

	Archery		Golf		Squash
	Badminton		Gymnastics		Swimming and Diving
	Baseball		Ice Hockey		Synchronized Swimming
	Basketball		Lacrosse		Team Handball
	Bowling		Rifle		Tennis
	Cross Country		Rowing		Indoor Track and Field
	Equestrian		Rugby		Outdoor Track and Field
	Fencing		Skiing		Volleyball
	Field Hockey		Soccer		Water Polo
	Football		Softball		Wrestling
					Other:

Are there any sport teams that you would try out for that <u>ARE NOT</u> currently offered at The University of Akron? Please put an "x" in the box for [ ]=YES or [ ]=NO

If yes, please specify:

APPENDIX B

LIST OF NCAA SPONSORED SPORTS

NCAA SPONSORED SPORTS (ALL)		WOMEN		MEN	
Archery	Rowing	Archery	Rugby	Archery	Rifle
Badminton	Rugby	Badminton	Skiing	Badminton	Rowing
Baseball	Skiing	Basketball	Soccer	Baseball	Rugby
Basketball	Soccer	Bowling	Softball	Basketball	Skiing
Bowling	Softball	Cross Country	Squash	Bowling	Soccer
Cross Country	Squash	Equestrian	Swimming and Diving	Cross Country	Squash
Equestrian	Swimming and Diving	Fencing	Synchronized Swimming	Equestrian	Swimming and Diving
Fencing	Synchronized Swimming	Field Hockey	Team Handball	Fencing	Synchronized Swimming
Field Hockey	Team Handball	Golf	Tennis	Field Hockey	Team Handball
Football	Tennis	Gymnastics	Track & Field (Indoor)	Football	Tennis
Golf	Indoor Track and Field	Ice Hockey	Track & Field (Outdoor)	Golf	Track & Field (Indoor)
Gymnastics	Outdoor Track and Field	Lacrosse	Volleyball	Gymnastics	Track & Field (Outdoor)
Ice Hockey	Volleyball	Rifle	Water Polo	Ice Hockey	Volleyball
Lacrosse	Water Polo	Rowing		Lacrosse	Water Polo
Rifle	Wrestling				

Source: www.ncaa.org retrieved on November 7, 2006.

APPENDIX C

PROPORTIONALITY OF NCAA DIVISION I SCHOOLS FALL 2004-2005[1]

Institution	Undergraduate Enrollment				Athletes				Number of Teams		Substantial Proportionality*
	men		Women		men		women		men	women	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%			
University of Memphis	6,078	40.0%	9,131	60.0%	235	71.9%	92	28.1%	7	7	-31.9
Mississippi Valley State University	916	30.4%	2,098	69.6%	160	60.8%	103	39.2%	6	8	-30.45
Tennessee State University	3,186	35.0%	5,914	65.0%	130	65.3%	69	34.7%	5	6	-30.32
Eastern Kentucky University	3,562	40.2%	5,305	59.8%	200	69.4%	88	30.6%	6	6	-29.27
Gardner-Webb University	858	37.5%	1,428	62.5%	260	65.5%	137	34.5%	8	8	-27.96
Jackson State University	2,996	35.9%	5,355	64.1%	149	63.4%	86	36.6%	6	8	-27.53
Coppin State University	620	24.4%	1,926	75.7%	104	50.7%	101	49.3%	4	7	-26.38
Northwestern State University	2,057	37.5%	3,423	62.5%	273	63.3%	158	36.7%	4	6	-25.8
Chicago State University	897	28.2%	2,283	71.8%	55	53.9%	47	46.1%	5	5	-25.71
Morehead State University	2,748	43.1%	3,628	56.9%	251	68.6%	115	31.4%	7	7	-25.48
University of North Carolina at Greensboro	3,083	31.7%	6,655	68.3%	146	56.8%	111	43.2%	7	7	-25.15
Bethune-Cookman College	1,083	40.5%	1,594	59.5%	142	65.4%	75	34.6%	6	7	-24.98
Arkansas State University	3,088	41.8%	4,295	58.2%	287	66.6%	144	33.4%	5	7	-24.76

[1] Source: The Chronicle of Higher Education, Gender Equity in College Sports, Facts and Figures. Retrieved on November 7, 2006 http://chronicle.com/stats/genderequity/

* Negative numbers mean that female athletes are under represented in college athletics under part one of the three-part test, substantial proportionality in measuring Title IX compliance.

Institution	Undergraduate Enrollment				Athletes				Number of Teams		Substantial Proportionality*
	men		women		men		women		men	women	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%			
Charleston Southern University	744	39.1%	1,159	60.9%	225	63.7%	128	36.3%	6	7	-24.64
Morgan State University	2,335	42.4%	3,169	57.6%	148	66.7%	74	33.3%	4	6	-24.24
University of Louisiana at Monroe	2,796	35.4%	5,108	64.6%	230	59.6%	156	40.4%	6	7	-24.21
Florida A&M University	5,227	41.7%	7,314	58.3%	208	65.2%	111	34.8%	7	7	-23.52
University of Alabama at Birmingham	3,045	39.4%	4,678	60.6%	215	62.9%	127	37.1%	6	9	-23.44
East Carolina University	7,203	40.1%	10,745	59.9%	276	63.5%	159	36.6%	8	8	-23.32
Howard University	2,527	33.5%	5,010	66.5%	253	56.7%	193	43.3%	6	9	-23.2
Alcorn State University	1,042	38.9%	1,634	61.1%	170	61.8%	105	38.2%	6	8	-22.88
Delaware State University	1,059	41.0%	1,525	59.0%	215	63.8%	122	36.2%	8	9	-22.82
Southern Utah University	2,744	43.2%	3,607	56.8%	200	66.0%	103	34.0%	5	6	-22.8
Florida International University	1	33.3%	2	66.7%	252	56.1%	197	43.9%	5	8	-22.79
Samford University	967	36.2%	1,704	63.8%	177	58.6%	125	41.4%	6	7	-22.41
Norfolk State University	1,700	38.2%	2,756	61.9%	123	60.3%	81	39.7%	5	6	-22.14
Texas Southern University	4,529	41.6%	6,359	58.4%	157	63.6%	90	36.4%	6	8	-21.97
Butler University	1,339	37.1%	2,271	62.9%	291	58.9%	203	41.1%	11	10	-21.82
University of Louisiana at Lafayette	5,314	43.2%	6,996	56.8%	226	64.9%	122	35.1%	6	6	-21.77
Furman University	1,174	43.2%	1,542	56.8%	291	64.4%	161	35.6%	8	9	-21.16
University of Southern Mississippi	4,678	39.8%	7,090	60.3%	210	60.9%	135	39.1%	6	7	-21.12
Southeastern Louisiana University	4,384	39.8%	6,632	60.2%	182	60.9%	117	39.1%	6	6	-21.07

* Negative numbers mean that female athletes are under represented in college athletics under part one of the three-part test, substantial proportionality in measuring Title IX compliance

Institution	Undergraduate enrollment				Athletes				Number of Teams		Substantial Proportionality*
	men		women		men		women		men	women	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%			
Southern University at Baton Rouge	2,728	40.8%	3,962	59.2%	201	61.9%	124	38.2%	6	8	-21.07
Western Carolina University	3,273	46.9%	3,709	53.1%	229	68.0%	108	32.1%	5	6	-21.07
Baylor University	4,823	41.7%	6,757	58.4%	324	62.6%	194	37.5%	6	7	-20.9
Western Kentucky University	5,558	42.9%	7,386	57.1%	331	63.8%	188	36.2%	8	8	-20.84
Florida Atlantic University	4,850	42.0%	6,707	58.0%	285	62.8%	169	37.2%	8	9	-20.81
Stephen F. Austin State University	3,434	41.0%	4,946	59.0%	184	61.5%	115	38.5%	4	6	-20.56
Austin Peay State University	1,853	37.0%	3,160	63.0%	150	57.3%	112	42.8%	6	8	-20.29
Elon University	1,787	38.7%	2,835	61.3%	227	58.8%	159	41.2%	7	7	-20.15
Winthrop University	1,419	30.9%	3,180	69.2%	116	50.9%	112	49.1%	6	7	-20.02
Bryan College	243	43.5%	316	56.5%	73	63.5%	42	36.5%	3	3	-20.01
Mercer University	1,311	34.5%	2,485	65.5%	105	54.4%	88	45.6%	7	8	-19.87
Wagner College	712	40.9%	1,027	59.1%	294	60.7%	190	39.3%	8	10	-19.8
Grambling State University	1,829	41.2%	2,612	58.8%	164	61.0%	105	39.0%	6	8	-19.78
Long Island University at Brooklyn	1,272	28.9%	3,134	71.1%	132	48.5%	140	51.5%	7	10	-19.66
South Carolina State University	1,817	41.1%	2,606	58.9%	159	60.7%	103	39.3%	5	8	-19.61
University of Tennessee at Martin	2,138	44.8%	2,636	55.2%	175	64.3%	97	35.7%	6	7	-19.55
North Carolina A&T State University	4,387	48.1%	4,734	51.9%	177	67.3%	86	32.7%	5	7	-19.2
High Point University	914	38.0%	1,491	62.0%	161	57.1%	121	42.9%	6	6	-19.09
University of Tennessee at Chattanooga	3,155	42.6%	4,250	57.4%	220	61.6%	137	38.4%	6	6	-19.02
University of Mississippi	5,023	48.4%	5,356	51.6%	268	67.3%	130	32.7%	6	8	-18.94
Liberty University	3,241	46.6%	3,722	53.5%	335	65.3%	178	34.7%	7	6	-18.76
Sam Houston State University	4,603	42.6%	6,212	57.4%	212	61.3%	134	38.7%	5	7	-18.71
Central Michigan University	7,144	42.3%	9,748	57.7%	206	61.0%	132	39.1%	5	7	-18.65
Sacred Heart University	1,268	41.1%	1,820	58.9%	474	59.1%	328	40.9%	13	15	-18.04

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Institution	Undergraduate Enrollment				Athletes				Number of Teams		
	men		women		men		women		men	women	Substantial Proportionality*
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%			
Southeast Missouri State University	2,714	42.0%	3,751	58.0%	169	59.7%	114	40.3%	5	7	-17.74
Texas Christian University	2,885	40.3%	4,269	59.7%	259	57.9%	188	42.1%	7	8	-17.61
Nicholls State University	1,961	39.2%	3,040	60.8%	181	56.7%	138	43.3%	6	7	-17.53
Fordham University	2,235	44.1%	2,836	55.9%	372	61.6%	232	38.4%	10	8	-17.52
University of San Francisco	1,344	34.7%	2,526	65.3%	105	52.2%	96	47.8%	7	7	-17.51
Alabama A&M University	2,429	47.7%	2,662	52.3%	219	65.2%	117	34.8%	9	10	-17.47
Hofstra University	3,871	46.5%	4,452	53.5%	257	63.9%	145	36.1%	9	9	-17.42
Prairie View A&M University	2,800	44.3%	3,524	55.7%	189	61.6%	118	38.4%	6	8	-17.29
Middle Tennessee State University	7,806	46.8%	8,873	53.2%	295	64.0%	166	36.0%	6	7	-17.19
University of Memphis	6,078	40.0%	9,131	60.0%	235	71.9%	92	28.1%	7	7	-31.9
Mississippi Valley State University	916	30.4%	2,098	69.6%	160	60.8%	103	39.2%	6	8	-30.45
Tennessee State University	3,186	35.0%	5,914	65.0%	130	65.3%	69	34.7%	5	6	-30.32
Eastern Kentucky University	3,562	40.2%	5,305	59.8%	200	69.4%	88	30.6%	6	6	-29.27
Gardner-Webb University	858	37.5%	1,428	62.5%	260	65.5%	137	34.5%	8	8	-27.96
Jackson State University	2,996	35.9%	5,355	64.1%	149	63.4%	86	36.6%	6	8	-27.53
Coppin State University	620	24.4%	1,926	75.7%	104	50.7%	101	49.3%	4	7	-26.38
Northwestern State University	2,057	37.5%	3,423	62.5%	273	63.3%	158	36.7%	4	6	-25.8
Chicago State University	897	28.2%	2,283	71.8%	55	53.9%	47	46.1%	5	5	-25.71
Morehead State University	2,748	43.1%	3,628	56.9%	251	68.6%	115	31.4%	7	7	-25.48
University of North Carolina at Greensboro	3,083	31.7%	6,655	68.3%	146	56.8%	111	43.2%	7	7	-25.15

* Negative numbers mean that female athletes are under represented in college athletics under part one of the three-part test, substantial proportionality in measuring Title IX compliance.

	Undergraduate Enrollment				Athletes				Number of Teams		Substantial Proportionality*
Institution	men		women		men		women		men	women	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%			
Bethune-Cookman College	1,083	40.5%	1,594	59.5%	142	65.4%	75	34.6%	6	7	-24.98
Arkansas State University	3,088	41.8%	4,295	58.2%	287	66.6%	144	33.4%	5	7	-24.76
Charleston Southern University	744	39.1%	1,159	60.9%	225	63.7%	128	36.3%	6	7	-24.64
Morgan State University	2,335	42.4%	3,169	57.6%	148	66.7%	74	33.3%	4	6	-24.24
University of Louisiana at Monroe	2,796	35.4%	5,108	64.6%	230	59.6%	156	40.4%	6	7	-24.21
Florida A&M University	5,227	41.7%	7,314	58.3%	208	65.2%	111	34.8%	7	7	-23.52
University of Alabama at Birmingham	3,045	39.4%	4,678	60.6%	215	62.9%	127	37.1%	6	9	-23.44
East Carolina University	7,203	40.1%	10,745	59.9%	276	63.5%	159	36.6%	8	8	-23.32
Howard University	2,527	33.5%	5,010	66.5%	253	56.7%	193	43.3%	6	9	-23.2
Alcorn State University	1,042	38.9%	1,634	61.1%	170	61.8%	105	38.2%	6	8	-22.88
Delaware State University	1,059	41.0%	1,525	59.0%	215	63.8%	122	36.2%	8	9	-22.82
Southern Utah University	2,744	43.2%	3,607	56.8%	200	66.0%	103	34.0%	5	6	-22.8
Florida International University	1	33.3%	2	66.7%	252	56.1%	197	43.9%	5	8	-22.79
Samford University	967	36.2%	1,704	63.8%	177	58.6%	125	41.4%	6	7	-22.41
Norfolk State University	1,700	38.2%	2,756	61.9%	123	60.3%	81	39.7%	5	6	-22.14
Texas Southern University	4,529	41.6%	6,359	58.4%	157	63.6%	90	36.4%	6	8	-21.97
Butler University	1,339	37.1%	2,271	62.9%	291	58.9%	203	41.1%	11	10	-21.82
University of Louisiana at Lafayette	5,314	43.2%	6,996	56.8%	226	64.9%	122	35.1%	6	6	-21.77
Furman University	1,174	43.2%	1,542	56.8%	291	64.4%	161	35.6%	8	9	-21.16

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	Undergraduate Enrollment				Athletes				Number of Teams		Substantial Proportionality*
Institution	men		women		men		women		men	women	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%			
University of Southern Mississippi	4,678	39.8%	7,090	60.3%	210	60.9%	135	39.1%	6	7	-21.12
Southeastern Louisiana University	4,384	39.8%	6,632	60.2%	182	60.9%	117	39.1%	6	6	-21.07
Southern University at Baton Rouge	2,728	40.8%	3,962	59.2%	201	61.9%	124	38.2%	6	8	-21.07
Western Carolina University	3,273	46.9%	3,709	53.1%	229	68.0%	108	32.1%	5	6	-21.07
Baylor University	4,823	41.7%	6,757	58.4%	324	62.6%	194	37.5%	6	7	-20.9
Western Kentucky University	5,558	42.9%	7,386	57.1%	331	63.8%	188	36.2%	8	8	-20.84
Florida Atlantic University	4,850	42.0%	6,707	58.0%	285	62.8%	169	37.2%	8	9	-20.81
Stephen F. Austin State University	3,434	41.0%	4,946	59.0%	184	61.5%	115	38.5%	4	6	-20.56
Austin Peay State University	1,853	37.0%	3,160	63.0%	150	57.3%	112	42.8%	6	8	-20.29
Elon University	1,787	38.7%	2,835	61.3%	227	58.8%	159	41.2%	7	7	-20.15
Winthrop University	1,419	30.9%	3,180	69.2%	116	50.9%	112	49.1%	6	7	-20.02
Bryan College	243	43.5%	316	56.5%	73	63.5%	42	36.5%	3	3	-20.01
Mercer University	1,311	34.5%	2,485	65.5%	105	54.4%	88	45.6%	7	8	-19.87
Wagner College	712	40.9%	1,027	59.1%	294	60.7%	190	39.3%	8	10	-19.8
Grambling State University	1,829	41.2%	2,612	58.8%	164	61.0%	105	39.0%	6	8	-19.78
Long Island University at Brooklyn	1,272	28.9%	3,134	71.1%	132	48.5%	140	51.5%	7	10	-19.66
South Carolina State University	1,817	41.1%	2,606	58.9%	159	60.7%	103	39.3%	5	8	-19.61
University of Tennessee at Martin	2,138	44.8%	2,636	55.2%	175	64.3%	97	35.7%	6	7	-19.55
North Carolina A&T State University	4,387	48.1%	4,734	51.9%	177	67.3%	86	32.7%	5	7	-19.2
High Point University	914	38.0%	1,491	62.0%	161	57.1%	121	42.9%	6	6	-19.09

* Negative numbers mean that female athletes are under represented in college athletics under part one of the three-part test, substantial proportionality in measuring Title IX compliance

	Undergraduate Enrollment				Athletes				Number of Teams		Substantial Proportionality*
Institution	men		women		men		women		men	women	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%			
University of Tennessee at Chattanooga	3,155	42.6%	4,250	57.4%	220	61.6%	137	38.4%	6	6	-19.02
University of Mississippi	5,023	48.4%	5,356	51.6%	268	67.3%	130	32.7%	6	8	-18.94
Liberty University	3,241	46.6%	3,722	53.5%	335	65.3%	178	34.7%	7	6	-18.76
Sam Houston State University	4,603	42.6%	6,212	57.4%	212	61.3%	134	38.7%	5	7	-18.71
Central Michigan University	7,144	42.3%	9,748	57.7%	206	61.0%	132	39.1%	5	7	-18.65
Sacred Heart University	1,268	41.1%	1,820	58.9%	474	59.1%	328	40.9%	13	15	-18.04
Southeast Missouri State University	2,714	42.0%	3,751	58.0%	169	59.7%	114	40.3%	5	7	-17.74
Texas Christian University	2,885	40.3%	4,269	59.7%	259	57.9%	188	42.1%	7	8	-17.61
Nicholls State University	1,961	39.2%	3,040	60.8%	181	56.7%	138	43.3%	6	7	-17.53
Fordham University	2,235	44.1%	2,836	55.9%	372	61.6%	232	38.4%	10	8	-17.52
University of San Francisco	1,344	34.7%	2,526	65.3%	105	52.2%	96	47.8%	7	7	-17.51
Alabama A&M University	2,429	47.7%	2,662	52.3%	219	65.2%	117	34.8%	9	10	-17.47
Hofstra University	3,871	46.5%	4,452	53.5%	257	63.9%	145	36.1%	9	9	-17.42
Prairie View A&M University	2,800	44.3%	3,524	55.7%	189	61.6%	118	38.4%	6	8	-17.29
Middle Tennessee State University	7,806	46.8%	8,873	53.2%	295	64.0%	166	36.0%	6	7	-17.19
University of Northern Iowa	5,627	42.5%	7,608	57.5%	266	59.5%	181	40.5%	6	8	-16.99
Eastern Michigan University	7,752	39.4%	11,916	60.6%	385	56.4%	298	43.6%	7	10	-16.95
Savannah State University	913	43.6%	1,182	56.4%	144	60.5%	94	39.5%	7	9	-16.92
Oral Roberts University	1,261	40.0%	1,892	60.0%	157	56.9%	119	43.1%	6	6	-16.89
University of Alabama at Tuscaloosa	7,143	46.8%	8,121	53.2%	277	63.7%	158	36.3%	7	9	-16.88
Columbia University	3,078	39.0%	4,823	61.0%	467	55.8%	370	44.2%	12	13	-16.84
Jacksonville University	953	50.8%	924	49.2%	263	67.6%	126	32.4%	8	8	-16.84
Valparaiso University	1,350	47.6%	1,485	52.4%	315	64.4%	174	35.6%	7	7	-16.8
Hampton University	1,944	36.5%	3,377	63.5%	154	53.3%	135	46.7%	5	7	-16.75
Eastern Illinois University	3,628	42.9%	4,834	57.1%	292	59.5%	199	40.5%	9	10	-16.6

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	Undergraduate Enrollment				Athletes				Number of Teams		Substantial Proportionality*
Institution	men		women		men		women		men	women	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	N	%			
Texas State University at San Marcos	9,400	44.6%	11,689	55.4%	233	61.2%	148	38.9%	5	7	-16.58
Boise State University	4,820	47.3%	5,365	52.7%	206	63.8%	117	36.2%	6	8	-16.45
Marist College	1,829	43.0%	2,422	57.0%	439	59.4%	300	40.6%	9	10	-16.38
University of Portland	1,084	39.2%	1,684	60.8%	202	55.5%	162	44.5%	6	6	-16.33
Kent State University	6,518	40.1%	9,737	59.9%	215	56.3%	167	43.7%	6	8	-16.18
Jacksonville State University	2,506	43.4%	3,265	56.6%	181	59.2%	125	40.9%	7	9	-15.73
Rider University	1,458	41.7%	2,039	58.3%	201	57.1%	151	42.9%	8	8	-15.41
Georgetown University	2,814	46.0%	3,302	54.0%	411	61.3%	259	38.7%	10	11	-15.33
University of Montana at Missoula	4,591	46.8%	5,214	53.2%	287	62.1%	175	37.9%	6	8	-15.3
Belmont University	1,274	38.4%	2,043	61.6%	130	53.5%	113	46.5%	6	7	-15.09
University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill	6,606	41.7%	9,227	58.3%	502	56.8%	382	43.2%	11	13	-15.06
University of Houston Main Campus	8,618	47.0%	9,728	53.0%	304	61.8%	188	38.2%	5	7	-14.81
Loyola University Chicago	2,451	34.1%	4,745	65.9%	140	48.8%	147	51.2%	5	6	-14.72
University of California at Berkeley	10,535	46.0%	12,345	54.0%	424	60.7%	274	39.3%	11	12	-14.7
Murray State University	3,023	43.3%	3,965	56.7%	230	57.9%	167	42.1%	6	7	-14.67
Louisiana Tech University	3,975	50.1%	3,954	49.9%	242	64.7%	132	35.3%	5	7	-14.57
Drake University	1,357	43.3%	1,779	56.7%	269	57.7%	197	42.3%	6	7	-14.45
Alabama State University	1,772	41.7%	2,482	58.4%	166	56.1%	130	43.9%	6	8	-14.43
University of Evansville	852	38.0%	1,389	62.0%	122	52.1%	112	47.9%	6	8	-14.12
Coastal Carolina University	2,431	49.1%	2,517	50.9%	297	63.2%	173	36.8%	7	7	-14.06
University of Northern Colorado	3,807	39.7%	5,786	60.3%	231	53.7%	199	46.3%	7	9	-14.04
University of Oregon	6,725	46.7%	7,689	53.3%	284	60.6%	185	39.5%	6	8	-13.9
Saint Francis University (Pa.)	467	40.4%	690	59.6%	194	54.2%	164	45.8%	7	10	-13.83
Cleveland State University	3,051	45.5%	3,656	54.5%	150	59.3%	103	40.7%	8	9	-13.8
Quinnipiac University	1,944	37.1%	3,293	62.9%	227	50.9%	219	49.1%	8	9	-13.78
North Dakota State University	5,795	54.9%	4,754	45.1%	316	68.7%	144	31.3%	6	6	-13.76

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Institution	Undergraduate Enrollment				Athletes				Number of Teams		Substantial Proportionality*
	men		women		men		women		men	women	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%			
St. Francis College (N.Y.)	927	46.6%	1,063	53.4%	129	60.3%	85	39.7%	7	7	-13.7
James Madison University	5,805	39.6%	8,872	60.5%	371	53.2%	326	46.8%	10	12	-13.68
Iona College	1,460	47.1%	1,641	52.9%	289	60.7%	187	39.3%	8	9	-13.63
Louisiana State University at Baton Rouge	12,596	47.7%	13,801	52.3%	310	61.1%	197	38.9%	7	9	-13.43
Northern Arizona University	4,409	40.7%	6,432	59.3%	203	54.0%	173	46.0%	4	7	-13.32
University of North Carolina at Asheville	1,478	42.8%	1,978	57.2%	94	56.0%	74	44.1%	5	5	-13.19
University of Texas at El Paso	5,002	46.0%	5,869	54.0%	224	59.0%	156	41.1%	4	8	-12.94
University of Wisconsin at Green Bay	1,563	35.0%	2,905	65.0%	107	47.8%	117	52.2%	7	8	-12.79
Wofford College	603	52.1%	555	47.9%	228	64.8%	124	35.2%	8	7	-12.7
Canisius College	1,326	43.0%	1,758	57.0%	148	55.6%	118	44.4%	8	8	-12.64
Portland State University	4,459	46.2%	5,201	53.8%	195	58.7%	137	41.3%	4	6	-12.58
Monmouth University	1,632	42.9%	2,173	57.1%	295	55.4%	238	44.7%	9	10	-12.46
University of South Carolina at Columbia	8,077	45.7%	9,612	54.3%	274	57.9%	199	42.1%	8	9	-12.27
University of Missouri at Kansas City	2,135	39.6%	3,254	60.4%	126	51.9%	117	48.2%	5	6	-12.23
Wake Forest University	2,033	49.3%	2,095	50.8%	273	61.4%	172	38.7%	7	7	-12.1
University of Kentucky	7,988	48.1%	8,607	51.9%	333	60.2%	220	39.8%	8	9	-12.08
State University of New York at Stony Brook	7,061	51.0%	6,797	49.1%	316	63.0%	186	37.1%	8	8	-12
University of California at Los Angeles	10,815	43.4%	14,131	56.7%	323	55.2%	262	44.8%	9	11	-11.86
Syracuse University	4,953	43.3%	6,495	56.7%	331	55.1%	270	44.9%	7	10	-11.81
Towson University	4,718	38.0%	7,687	62.0%	262	49.8%	264	50.2%	7	10	-11.78
Georgia State University	4,982	38.7%	7,893	61.3%	118	50.2%	117	49.8%	6	7	-11.52
Rutgers University at New Brunswick	11,782	48.4%	12,563	51.6%	549	59.8%	369	40.2%	12	13	-11.41
Chipola College	447	43.7%	575	56.3%	38	55.1%	31	44.9%	2	2	-11.33
University of Arkansas at Little Rock	3,551	38.1%	5,779	61.9%	80	49.4%	82	50.6%	5	7	-11.32
Xavier University (Ohio)	1,497	44.6%	1,863	55.5%	146	55.7%	116	44.3%	8	8	-11.17
Missouri State University	5,562	43.7%	7,178	56.3%	265	54.8%	219	45.3%	8	9	-11.09

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	Undergraduate Enrollment				Athletes				Number of Teams		Substantial Proportionality*
Institution	**men**		**women**		**men**		**women**		**men**	**women**	
	n	**%**	**n**	**%**	**n**	**%**	**n**	**%**			
University of San Diego	1,878	39.4%	2,889	60.6%	208	50.4%	205	49.6%	8	8	-10.97
Centenary College of Louisiana	341	37.7%	563	62.3%	106	48.6%	112	51.4%	7	9	-10.9
Texas A&M University at Corpus Christi	2,040	38.8%	3,215	61.2%	138	49.6%	140	50.4%	4	6	-10.82
University of Missouri at Columbia	8,791	48.3%	9,403	51.7%	382	59.1%	264	40.9%	7	9	-10.82
University of Virginia	5,749	45.4%	6,911	54.6%	443	56.2%	345	43.8%	10	11	-10.81
University of Pennsylvania	5,011	50.1%	4,998	49.9%	638	60.8%	411	39.2%	14	14	-10.75
Birmingham-Southern College	582	42.1%	799	57.9%	102	52.9%	91	47.2%	6	8	-10.71
Ohio University	8,017	47.8%	8,744	52.2%	361	58.5%	256	41.5%	7	9	-10.68
Northern Illinois University	7,950	47.9%	8,659	52.1%	253	58.3%	181	41.7%	7	8	-10.43
University of Utah	12,592	55.3%	10,183	44.7%	254	65.6%	133	34.4%	8	9	-10.34
University of Iowa	9,229	45.6%	11,004	54.4%	405	55.9%	319	44.1%	9	11	-10.33
University of Georgia	11,344	42.6%	15,269	57.4%	355	52.9%	316	47.1%	7	10	-10.28
Western Illinois University	5,129	52.4%	4,660	47.6%	338	62.6%	202	37.4%	8	8	-10.2
University of South Alabama	3,802	39.0%	5,946	61.0%	88	49.2%	91	50.8%	5	6	-10.16
Mount St. Mary's University (Md.)	588	44.0%	747	56.0%	167	54.1%	142	46.0%	7	7	-10
University of Detroit Mercy	714	38.1%	1,158	61.9%	127	48.1%	137	51.9%	5	7	-9.97
University of Delaware	6,753	42.2%	9,270	57.9%	373	52.1%	343	47.9%	9	10	-9.95
University of New Mexico	5,555	43.6%	7,183	56.4%	352	53.5%	306	46.5%	8	9	-9.89
Boston University	6,255	40.1%	9,354	59.9%	323	49.9%	324	50.1%	9	10	-9.85
University of Akron	**5,938**	**47.4%**	**6,584**	**52.6%**	**221**	**57.3%**	**165**	**42.8%**	**6**	**7**	**-9.83**
State University of New York at Albany	5,162	49.6%	5,239	50.4%	326	59.3%	224	40.7%	8	11	-9.64
Illinois State University	7,052	42.5%	9,541	57.5%	198	52.1%	182	47.9%	6	9	-9.61
University of Arkansas at Pine Bluff	1,448	44.5%	1,803	55.5%	137	54.2%	116	45.9%	5	9	-9.61
Fairleigh Dickinson University	883	41.7%	1,237	58.4%	104	51.2%	99	48.8%	6	7	-9.58
Campbell University	1,114	44.7%	1,380	55.3%	155	54.2%	131	45.8%	8	9	-9.53

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	Undergraduate Enrollment				Athletes				Number of Teams		Substantial Proportionality*
Institution	men		women		men		women		men	women	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%			
Old Dominion University	5,809	42.8%	7,769	57.2%	137	52.3%	125	47.7%	8	8	-9.51
Pepperdine University	1,108	43.2%	1,460	56.9%	127	52.5%	115	47.5%	7	7	-9.33
University of Illinois at Chicago	7,242	45.2%	8,770	54.8%	185	54.4%	155	45.6%	7	7	-9.18
University of Arkansas at Fayetteville	5,612	50.4%	5,525	49.6%	318	59.6%	216	40.5%	6	9	-9.16
University of Texas at Arlington	6,414	47.6%	7,072	52.4%	114	56.7%	87	43.3%	5	5	-9.16
Oakland University	3,421	36.9%	5,857	63.1%	110	46.0%	129	54.0%	6	8	-9.15
Indiana State University	3,717	47.9%	4,039	52.1%	254	57.0%	192	43.1%	5	6	-9.03
Marshall University	3,626	44.6%	4,509	55.4%	224	53.6%	194	46.4%	6	10	-9.02
Saint Peter's College	914	48.9%	957	51.2%	199	57.9%	145	42.2%	8	8	-9
Temple University	8,654	43.1%	11,447	57.0%	288	51.9%	267	48.1%	9	11	-8.84
University of Nebraska at Lincoln	8,278	52.8%	7,406	47.2%	421	61.4%	265	38.6%	8	11	-8.59
Arizona State University	14,944	48.3%	15,996	51.7%	353	56.8%	268	43.2%	8	10	-8.54
Troy University	7,211	54.4%	6,042	45.6%	253	62.9%	149	37.1%	6	7	-8.53
University of Florida	13,907	46.3%	16,126	53.7%	371	54.8%	306	45.2%	7	9	-8.49
Virginia Commonwealth University	5,996	40.0%	9,014	60.1%	133	48.4%	142	51.6%	6	6	-8.42
Old Dominion University	5,809	42.8%	7,769	57.2%	137	52.3%	125	47.7%	8	8	-9.51
Stetson University	930	41.7%	1,300	58.3%	138	50.0%	138	50.0%	7	8	-8.3
Southern Methodist University	2,686	45.8%	3,178	54.2%	231	54.1%	196	45.9%	6	9	-8.29
University of New Orleans	5,827	44.1%	7,398	55.9%	81	52.3%	74	47.7%	5	6	-8.2
Colgate University	1,351	48.3%	1,445	51.7%	394	56.5%	304	43.6%	10	11	-8.13

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	Undergraduate Enrollment				Athletes				Number of Teams		Substantial Proportionality*
Institution	men		women		men		women		men	women	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%			
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign	15,526	53.0%	13,768	47.0%	364	61.0%	233	39.0%	8	9	-7.97
Youngstown State University	3,938	45.2%	4,773	54.8%	227	53.2%	200	46.8%	6	8	-7.95
University of California at Santa Barbara	8,091	44.7%	10,030	55.4%	283	52.4%	257	47.6%	9	8	-7.76
Idaho State University	3,648	46.9%	4,125	53.1%	229	54.7%	190	45.4%	5	6	-7.72
Princeton University	2,482	53.1%	2,196	46.9%	656	60.7%	424	39.3%	17	15	-7.68
Duquesne University	2,345	41.3%	3,336	58.7%	283	48.9%	296	51.1%	9	8	-7.6
University of Maryland-Eastern Shore	1,374	41.1%	1,969	58.9%	109	48.7%	115	51.3%	4	6	-7.56
University of Pittsburgh main campus	7,322	48.6%	7,758	51.5%	318	56.1%	249	43.9%	7	8	-7.53
Indiana University at Bloomington	18,294	48.4%	19,527	51.6%	434	55.9%	343	44.1%	9	11	-7.49
Niagara University	1,100	39.1%	1,716	60.9%	136	46.4%	157	53.6%	8	9	-7.35
Appalachian State University	6,117	51.1%	5,866	49.0%	333	58.3%	238	41.7%	8	8	-7.27
La Salle University	1,483	44.0%	1,885	56.0%	248	51.2%	236	48.8%	9	10	-7.21
University of Colorado at Boulder	12,998	52.6%	11,712	47.4%	258	59.7%	174	40.3%	8	9	-7.12
East Tennessee State University	4,695	40.4%	6,940	59.7%	85	47.2%	95	52.8%	5	7	-6.87
Utah State University	6,588	50.5%	6,456	49.5%	242	57.2%	181	42.8%	5	7	-6.7
University of California at Irvine	8,840	48.0%	9,574	52.0%	298	54.7%	247	45.3%	10	9	-6.67
Fairfield University	1,374	42.7%	1,844	57.3%	172	49.3%	177	50.7%	8	11	-6.59
Davidson College	857	50.1%	855	49.9%	257	56.6%	197	43.4%	9	8	-6.55
California State University at Sacramento	9,813	42.6%	13,215	57.4%	231	49.0%	240	51.0%	9	11	-6.43
New Mexico State University Main Campus	5,843	45.0%	7,132	55.0%	203	51.4%	192	48.6%	6	8	-6.36
Duke University	3,151	51.7%	2,941	48.3%	374	58.0%	271	42.0%	11	11	-6.26
Yale University	2,644	50.4%	2,598	49.6%	572	56.5%	440	43.5%	13	16	-6.08
Florida State University	13,016	43.4%	16,999	56.6%	285	49.4%	292	50.6%	7	8	-6.03
University of Miami	3,865	42.0%	5,337	58.0%	217	48.0%	235	52.0%	6	8	-6.01
College of William and Mary	2,504	45.0%	3,059	55.0%	335	51.0%	322	49.0%	9	10	-5.98

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	Undergraduate Enrollment				Athletes				Number of Teams		Substantial Proportionality*
Institution	men		women		men		women		men	women	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%			
Mississippi State University	6,508	54.3%	5,482	45.7%	242	60.2%	160	39.8%	6	7	-5.92
University of Louisville	6,951	46.7%	7,921	53.3%	277	52.7%	249	47.3%	8	10	-5.92
University of Rhode Island	4,372	45.1%	5,322	54.9%	341	51.0%	328	49.0%	8	10	-5.87
Weber State University	11,286	50.1%	11,258	49.9%	217	55.9%	171	44.1%	5	6	-5.87
University of Minnesota-Twin Cities	13,510	47.3%	15,069	52.7%	463	53.0%	410	47.0%	10	11	-5.76
Dartmouth College	2,169	49.8%	2,186	50.2%	582	55.5%	466	44.5%	15	16	-5.73
University of Kansas	9,010	49.6%	9,161	50.4%	352	55.3%	285	44.7%	5	9	-5.67
California State University at Fullerton	7,966	40.8%	11,560	59.2%	201	46.2%	234	53.8%	6	8	-5.41
Lamar University	2,883	42.2%	3,952	57.8%	129	47.4%	143	52.6%	5	5	-5.25
Auburn University	9,746	51.6%	9,150	48.4%	338	56.8%	257	43.2%	7	10	-5.23
Cornell University	6,875	50.5%	6,750	49.5%	623	55.7%	496	44.3%	14	16	-5.22
University of Arizona	13,333	47.0%	15,035	53.0%	256	52.1%	235	47.9%	8	11	-5.14
University of the Pacific	1,456	43.2%	1,915	56.8%	143	48.3%	153	51.7%	7	9	-5.12
University of Texas-Pan American	4,551	42.7%	6,111	57.3%	87	47.5%	96	52.5%	5	5	-4.86
University of South Florida	9,739	41.0%	14,026	59.0%	229	45.8%	271	54.2%	8	10	-4.82
Indiana University-Purdue University at Indianapolis	12,681	42.3%	17,272	57.7%	99	47.1%	111	52.9%	6	8	-4.81
Vanderbilt University	3,004	48.2%	3,228	51.8%	194	53.0%	172	47.0%	7	7	-4.8
University of Wisconsin at Milwaukee	8,788	45.2%	10,671	54.8%	153	49.8%	154	50.2%	5	6	-4.68
Georgia Southern University	7,144	50.7%	6,948	49.3%	222	55.4%	179	44.6%	6	9	-4.67
University of Southern California	7,738	49.1%	8,038	51.0%	335	53.7%	289	46.3%	9	9	-4.64
College of the Holy Cross	1,252	46.1%	1,466	53.9%	434	50.6%	424	49.4%	11	12	-4.52
Saint Joseph's University (Pa.)	2,006	48.8%	2,106	51.2%	242	53.3%	212	46.7%	8	8	-4.52
California State University at Northridge	7,729	41.2%	11,021	58.8%	202	45.7%	240	54.3%	7	9	-4.48
George Mason University	6,131	45.4%	7,373	54.6%	217	49.9%	218	50.1%	9	9	-4.48
Radford University	3,239	41.2%	4,624	58.8%	142	45.7%	169	54.3%	6	9	-4.47
University of Richmond	1,499	48.3%	1,605	51.7%	220	52.8%	197	47.2%	7	8	-4.47

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	Undergraduate Enrollment				Athletes				Number of Teams		Substantial Proportionality*
Institution	men		women		men		women		men	women	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%			
Brown University	2,638	46.3%	3,063	53.7%	508	50.7%	494	49.3%	15	18	-4.43
Texas A&M University at College Station	18,163	50.8%	17,569	49.2%	408	55.2%	331	44.8%	7	10	-4.38
Rice University	1,484	52.6%	1,338	47.4%	262	57.0%	198	43.0%	6	6	-4.37
Santa Clara University	2,020	44.4%	2,531	55.6%	191	48.7%	201	51.3%	9	10	-4.34
University of Oklahoma at Norman	10,277	50.7%	9,994	49.3%	357	55.0%	292	45.0%	10	10	-4.31
University of Texas at Austin	16,014	47.8%	17,504	52.2%	325	52.1%	299	47.9%	7	9	-4.31
Wichita State University	3,159	43.8%	4,058	56.2%	99	48.1%	107	51.9%	5	6	-4.29
Bowling Green State University	6,521	44.3%	8,209	55.7%	230	48.5%	244	51.5%	7	9	-4.25
Villanova University	3,151	48.8%	3,309	51.2%	343	53.0%	304	47.0%	9	11	-4.24
University of Tennessee at Knoxville	8,869	49.1%	9,184	50.9%	252	53.3%	221	46.7%	7	9	-4.15
University of New Hampshire	4,341	42.5%	5,869	57.5%	356	46.7%	407	53.3%	8	12	-4.14
University of Hawaii-Manoa	5,158	43.8%	6,631	56.3%	237	47.9%	258	52.1%	7	12	-4.13
Robert Morris University (Pa.)	1,621	55.4%	1,306	44.6%	297	59.4%	203	40.6%	10	12	-4.02
University of Hartford	2,278	50.1%	2,267	49.9%	152	54.1%	129	45.9%	9	9	-3.97
University of North Carolina at Wilmington	3,829	40.7%	5,573	59.3%	188	44.7%	233	55.3%	7	8	-3.93
University of Nevada at Las Vegas	6,635	43.4%	8,663	56.6%	226	47.3%	252	52.7%	7	8	-3.91
University of Washington	13,478	48.6%	14,254	51.4%	349	52.5%	316	47.5%	9	10	-3.88
American University	2,077	37.9%	3,399	62.1%	122	41.6%	171	58.4%	7	8	-3.71
University of Notre Dame	4,429	53.2%	3,903	46.8%	507	56.8%	385	43.2%	11	11	-3.68
Iowa State University	11,983	56.1%	9,371	43.9%	303	59.8%	204	40.2%	5	9	-3.65
Loyola Marymount University	2,073	39.0%	3,240	61.0%	159	42.6%	214	57.4%	8	9	-3.61
Saint Mary's College of California	947	38.8%	1,493	61.2%	97	42.4%	132	57.6%	6	8	-3.55
University of Tulsa	1,307	50.7%	1,273	49.3%	219	54.2%	185	45.8%	6	8	-3.55
Texas Tech University	12,782	54.8%	10,543	45.2%	287	58.3%	205	41.7%	6	7	-3.53
University of Wyoming	3,879	51.6%	3,638	48.4%	237	55.1%	193	44.9%	6	7	-3.51
Northwestern University	3,750	47.1%	4,221	53.0%	231	50.6%	226	49.5%	8	11	-3.5
Harvard University	3,386	51.6%	3,176	48.4%	818	55.0%	670	45.0%	18	17	-3.37

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	Undergraduate Enrollment				Athletes				Number of Teams		Substantial Proportionality*
Institution	men		women		men		women		men	women	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%			
Virginia Tech	12,272	59.2%	8,457	40.8%	304	62.6%	182	37.5%	9	8	-3.35
Southern Illinois University at Carbondale	8,466	56.2%	6,594	43.8%	268	59.6%	182	40.4%	7	7	-3.34
College of Charleston	3,201	35.4%	5,833	64.6%	141	38.7%	223	61.3%	7	10	-3.3
Creighton University	1,423	40.1%	2,122	59.9%	116	43.3%	152	56.7%	6	8	-3.14
University of Idaho	4,511	55.4%	3,633	44.6%	245	58.5%	174	41.5%	5	7	-3.08
Pennsylvania State University at University Park	18,663	53.6%	16,161	46.4%	492	56.6%	377	43.4%	13	12	-3.02
University of Massachusetts at Amherst	8,729	49.7%	8,829	50.3%	361	52.5%	327	47.5%	9	10	-2.76
Northeastern University	7,219	49.8%	7,273	50.2%	271	52.5%	245	47.5%	7	8	-2.71
University of Wisconsin at Madison	12,513	46.7%	14,267	53.3%	439	49.4%	449	50.6%	10	10	-2.71
Brigham Young University	12,441	49.9%	12,507	50.1%	399	52.6%	360	47.4%	8	9	-2.7
Manhattan College	1,382	50.0%	1,382	50.0%	226	52.7%	203	47.3%	7	8	-2.68
California State University at Long Beach	11,339	40.4%	16,728	59.6%	170	43.0%	225	57.0%	6	8	-2.64
Providence College	1,637	43.5%	2,125	56.5%	192	46.2%	224	53.9%	6	9	-2.64
University of Vermont	3,463	44.5%	4,324	55.5%	228	47.1%	256	52.9%	7	9	-2.64
University of Denver	2,014	48.1%	2,174	51.9%	153	50.7%	149	49.3%	8	9	-2.57
University of Connecticut	6,986	47.4%	7,766	52.6%	362	49.9%	364	50.1%	9	11	-2.51
Oklahoma State University	9,073	48.3%	9,716	51.7%	269	50.8%	261	49.3%	7	7	-2.47
University of California at Riverside	6,505	46.1%	7,619	53.9%	160	48.5%	170	51.5%	6	7	-2.43
Stanford University	3,503	51.9%	3,250	48.1%	471	54.1%	399	45.9%	14	17	-2.26
Lafayette College	1,161	51.7%	1,083	48.3%	313	53.9%	268	46.1%	8	9	-2.13
Loyola College in Maryland	1,475	42.1%	2,026	57.9%	173	44.3%	218	55.8%	8	10	-2.11
University of Texas at San Antonio	7,986	47.5%	8,817	52.5%	133	49.6%	135	50.4%	5	6	-2.1
Indiana University-Purdue University at Fort Wayne	2,917	44.0%	3,708	56.0%	109	46.0%	128	54.0%	7	7	-1.96
Lipscomb University	926	44.6%	1,152	55.4%	109	46.4%	126	53.6%	6	9	-1.82
Seton Hall University	2,324	47.6%	2,560	52.4%	155	49.4%	159	50.6%	6	7	-1.78
University of Maine	3,786	51.1%	3,625	48.9%	290	52.7%	260	47.3%	7	8	-1.64

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	Undergraduate Enrollment				Athletes				Number of Teams		Substantial Proportionality*
Institution	men		women		men		women		men	women	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%			
University of North Texas	10,204	45.1%	12,414	54.9%	209	46.8%	238	53.2%	4	8	-1.64
Wright State University	4,585	42.3%	6,246	57.7%	133	43.9%	170	56.1%	7	7	-1.56
California Polytechnic State University at San Luis Obispo	9,054	57.1%	6,791	42.9%	318	58.6%	225	41.4%	9	8	-1.42
Miami University (Ohio)	6,930	46.0%	8,129	54.0%	272	47.4%	302	52.6%	7	9	-1.37
University of North Carolina at Charlotte	5,966	47.0%	6,736	53.0%	201	48.3%	215	51.7%	6	6	-1.35
Boston College	4,260	47.0%	4,799	53.0%	352	48.4%	376	51.7%	12	15	-1.33
Ball State University	7,585	47.2%	8,487	52.8%	224	48.5%	238	51.5%	7	10	-1.29
Ohio State University	17,674	52.6%	15,910	47.4%	503	53.9%	430	46.1%	14	15	-1.29
St. Bonaventure University	1,094	49.3%	1,124	50.7%	125	50.6%	122	49.4%	7	7	-1.28
North Carolina State University	10,754	57.6%	7,916	42.4%	382	58.8%	268	41.2%	9	9	-1.17
Michigan State University	14,785	46.6%	16,913	53.4%	368	47.8%	402	52.2%	10	11	-1.15
Western Michigan University	9,702	49.6%	9,853	50.4%	222	50.7%	216	49.3%	6	8	-1.07
Colorado State University	10,316	49.0%	10,733	51.0%	267	50.0%	267	50.0%	4	8	-0.99
San Jose State University	7,607	49.3%	7,824	50.7%	195	50.3%	193	49.7%	6	10	-0.96
Siena College	1,293	43.2%	1,699	56.8%	141	43.9%	180	56.1%	7	11	-0.71
Marquette University	3,573	45.1%	4,350	54.9%	97	45.8%	115	54.3%	5	5	-0.66
West Virginia University	9,962	53.4%	8,691	46.6%	301	53.8%	259	46.3%	6	10	-0.34
San Diego State University	8,799	41.8%	12,277	58.3%	228	41.9%	316	58.1%	6	10	-0.16
Montana State University at Bozeman	4,919	54.5%	4,106	45.5%	203	54.6%	169	45.4%	5	6	-0.07
DePaul University	4,585	42.3%	6,262	57.7%	110	42.3%	150	57.7%	7	8	-0.04
Saint Louis University	2,985	45.2%	3,621	54.8%	123	45.2%	149	54.8%	7	9	-0.03
Eastern Washington University	3,980	42.4%	5,410	57.6%	178	42.4%	242	57.6%	4	6	0
California State University at Fresno	6,120	40.9%	8,835	59.1%	258	40.7%	376	59.3%	7	8	0.23
University of Central Florida	12,120	44.9%	14,895	55.1%	219	44.6%	272	55.4%	7	8	0.26

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	Undergraduate Enrollment				Athletes				Number of Teams		Substantial Proportionality*
Institution	men		women		men		women		men	women	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%			
University of Maryland at College Park	11,472	50.7%	11,176	49.4%	395	50.3%	390	49.7%	10	13	0.34
Bucknell University	1,711	50.1%	1,703	49.9%	405	49.7%	410	50.3%	10	12	0.42
Central Connecticut State University	4,833	49.4%	4,961	50.7%	184	48.8%	193	51.2%	6	8	0.54
Tennessee Technological University	3,900	54.0%	3,324	46.0%	185	53.2%	163	46.8%	6	7	0.83
University of Dayton	3,353	50.2%	3,322	49.8%	224	49.3%	230	50.7%	7	8	0.89
University of Michigan at Ann Arbor	11,676	49.1%	12,097	50.9%	394	48.2%	423	51.8%	11	12	0.89
Washington State University	7,394	51.4%	6,982	48.6%	291	50.5%	285	49.5%	5	8	0.91
St. John's University (N.Y.)	4,720	42.0%	6,529	58.0%	142	41.0%	204	59.0%	7	8	0.92
Clemson University	9,384	54.9%	7,726	45.2%	321	53.7%	277	46.3%	8	7	1.17
State University of New York at Buffalo	9,645	54.1%	8,193	45.9%	316	52.8%	282	47.2%	8	8	1.23
Oregon State University	8,379	53.3%	7,334	46.7%	277	52.1%	255	47.9%	7	9	1.26
Virginia Military Institute	1,247	93.6%	86	6.5%	332	92.2%	28	7.8%	8	2	1.33
University of Maryland-Baltimore County	5,171	53.5%	4,497	46.5%	225	52.1%	207	47.9%	7	9	1.4
Lehigh University	2,712	59.3%	1,865	40.8%	394	57.6%	290	42.4%	10	11	1.65
Bradley University	2,293	45.9%	2,702	54.1%	108	44.1%	137	55.9%	6	6	1.82
State University of New York at Binghamton	5,494	51.2%	5,228	48.8%	215	49.3%	221	50.7%	8	8	1.93
Purdue University	17,224	59.5%	11,707	40.5%	312	57.1%	234	42.9%	8	8	2.39
Gonzaga University	1,747	45.3%	2,114	54.8%	134	42.8%	179	57.2%	7	7	2.44
Kansas State University	8,527	52.4%	7,758	47.6%	281	49.9%	282	50.1%	7	9	2.45
University of Toledo	8,768	49.3%	9,021	50.7%	192	46.3%	223	53.7%	6	10	3.02

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	Undergraduate Enrollment				Athletes				Number of Teams		Substantial Proportionality*
Institution	men		women		men		women		men	women	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%			
George Washington University	4,186	43.2%	5,501	56.8%	177	40.1%	265	60.0%	10	12	3.17
University of Cincinnati	8,356	52.7%	7,502	47.3%	285	49.5%	291	50.5%	7	8	3.21
University of Nevada at Reno	5,624	45.3%	6,780	54.7%	193	41.4%	273	58.6%	7	10	3.92
Drexel University	6,026	61.3%	3,813	38.8%	201	56.8%	153	43.2%	8	8	4.47
United States Military Academy	3,565	84.7%	642	15.3%	689	75.6%	223	24.5%	13	7	9.19
Georgia Institute of Technology	9,500	73.1%	3,500	26.9%	328	63.2%	191	36.8%	7	6	9.88
Utah Valley State College	7,009	61.8%	4,331	38.2%	144	49.7%	146	50.3%	5	5	12.15
Citadel	1,844	93.9%	120	6.1%	214	71.3%	86	28.7%	8	5	22.56

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APPENDIX D

IRB APPROVAL LETTER

This IRB approval letter gave the researcher permission to conduct an athletic assessment of interests and abilities of students attending The University of Akron Fall semester 2006.

Office of Research Services and Sponsored Programs
Akron, OH 44325-2102
(330) 972-7666 Office
(330) 972-6281 Fax

May 30, 2006

Cryshanna A. Jackson
555 ½ East Ave.
Akron, Ohio 44320

Ms. Jackson:

The University of Akron's Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (IRB) completed a review of the protocol entitled "*Measuring the Impact of Title IX on Women of Color: The Case of the University of Akron*". The IRB application number assigned to this project is **20060510.**

The protocol was reviewed on May 26, 2006 and qualified for exemption from continuing IRB review. The protocol represents minimal risk to subjects and matches the following federal category for exemption:

> *(2) Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior, unless: (i) information is recorded in such a manner that subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to subjects; AND (ii) any disclosure of responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of civil or criminal liability or be damaging to subjects' financial standing, employability or reputation*

Enclosed is a copy of the informed consent document, which the IRB has approved for your use in this research. In addition, your request for a waiver of documentation of informed consent, as permitted under 45 CFR 46.117(c), is also approved.

Annual continuation applications are not required for exempt projects. If you make any changes or modifications to the study's design or procedures that either increase the risk to subjects or include activities that do not fall within one of the categories exempted from the regulations, please contact the IRB first, to discuss whether or not a request for change must be submitted. Any such changes or modifications must be reviewed and approved by the IRB prior to their implementation.

Please retain this letter for your files. If the research is being conducted for a master's thesis or doctoral dissertation, the student must file a copy of this letter with the thesis or dissertation.

Sincerely,

Sharon McWhorter
Interim Director

Cc: Rajade James Berry, Advisor
Department Chair
Phil Allen, IRB Chair