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An Examination Of Factors That Impact The Choices Of Female Athletes In Pursuit Of A Career In Collegiate Sports Leadership

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AN EXAMINATION OF FACTORS THAT IMPACT THE CHOICES OF FEMALE ATHLETES IN PURSUIT OF A CAREER IN COLLEGIATE SPORTS LEADERSHIP

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to a dear friend Gerald Benson. He was a great and ever-present father, brother son coach and friend. Part of growing is seeing yourself through the eyes of others. Standing up for others even when it isn't convenient. The experiences we shared, as friends and co-workers at Montclair State University, have forever changed my life. He was a role model for me and a standard bearer for valuable life-lessons that continues to resonate within me: 'While perfecting my craft and taking my profession seriously, don't forget the ability to laugh at myself personally.' I continue to miss him but will always carry the memories of his unconditional love for life, family and friends.

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Women are underrepresented and are faced with many challenges when considering a career in collegiate sports leadership. The work of researchers like Acosta, Carpenter, Grappendorf, Lough, and Drago have indicated that homologous reproduction, a lack of support systems, and a lack of mentoring are among the root causes for this actuality. It is important to discuss the history of women in collegiate athletics and the legislation that impacted it to better understand the current status of women in leadership roles in collegiate athletics. According to Acosta and Carpenter (2014), the participation for women in sports continues to grow but the employment of women in leadership roles has declined over the years.

How women are perceived as leaders and the barriers they face impact their career choices. In 1971, there were 294,015 females participating in high school athletics and today there 3,222,723 high school female athletes (Acosta and Carpenter 2014). In 1970 there were 16,000 females participating in collegiate athletics with 2.5 teams per institution. Today, there are 8.8 female teams per institution and collegiate participation has grown to 207,814 (NCAA 2016). Despite this growth in participation, employment opportunities have gone in the opposite direction. Prior to the enactment of Title IX of the Education Amendment Act, women coached 90% of collegiate sports programs and lead 90% of women's athletic departments (Acosta and Carpenter 2014). Women now coach 40.2 % of women's collegiate sports 19.6% of athletic administrators are women (NCAA 2016)

Title IX was enacted in 1972 to prevent discrimination, based on gender, in all educational programs receiving federal funds and covers kindergarten thru graduate school. Title IX was originally proposed due to the rampant gender discrimination in college admissions and hiring practices, not as a remedy to issues in athletics (Bernice Sandler 2007). Patsy Mink, Edith Green,

and Bernice Sandler were all faced with discrimination in their collegiate experiences. They were instrumental in the proposal and defense of Title IX of the Education Amendments Act of 1972. In 1972, sports/athletics were not specifically identified as areas protected under Title IX. Later in 1974, and amendment to Title IX spelled out the details for athletics.

Section 844 of the Education Amendments of 1974 further provides:

> The Secretary of the department of Health Education and Welfare (HEW) shall prepare and publish proposed regulations implementing the provisions of Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 relating to the prohibition of sex discrimination in federally assisted education programs which shall include with respect to intercollegiate athletic activities reasonable provisions considering the nature of particular sports. (US Department of Education)

Regulations implementing the policy interpretations was signed by President Gerald Ford in 1975. The policy interpretation is divided into three sections:

- Compliance in Financial Assistance (Scholarships) Based on Athletic Ability: Pursuant to the regulation, the governing principle in this area is that all such assistance should be available on a substantially proportional basis to the number of male and female participants in the institution's athletic program.
- Compliance in Other Program Areas (Equipment and supplies; games and practice times; travel and per diem, coaching and academic tutoring; assignment and compensation of coaches and tutors; locker rooms, and practice and competitive facilities; medical and training facilities; housing and dining facilities; publicity; recruitment; and support services): Pursuant to the regulation, the governing principle is that male and female athletes should receive equivalent treatment, benefits, and opportunities.
- Compliance in Meeting the Interests and Abilities of Male and Female Students: Pursuant to the regulation, the governing principle in this area is that the athletic interests and abilities of male and female students must be equally effectively accommodated. (US Department of Education)

This study seeks to explore, in part, the changes in participation and employment opportunities for females in collegiate sports and to show how these changes were impacted by the enactment of Title IX. By examining, in part, the chronological history of women in sports leadership, i.e., before, during and after the advent of Title IX, we can better understand the current status of women in the field today.

With the passage in 1972 of Title IX of the Education Amendment Act, "sex discrimination in any education program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance was banned" (Rhode & Walker 2008, p.5). Athletics, defined specifically as competitive sports, was not originally included in the Education Amendment Act. It was not until 1974 that the Education Amendment Act was amended to include competitive sports.

Title IX had a positive impact as it addressed the issue of discrimination of female athletes, which resulted in an increase in participation from 16,000 in 1970 (Acosta & Carpenter 2014, Rhode & Walker 2008, NCAA 2016) to 207,814 at NCAA institutions in 2013-14 (NCAA 2016). However, studies conducted by Acosta and Carpenter, "Women in intercollegiate Sport. A Longitudinal, National Study, Thirty Seven Year Update. 1977-2014", (2014) and Rhode and Walker, "Gender Equity in College Athletics: Women Coaches as a Case Study", (2008) show that as a result of Title IX implementation, participation opportunities (e.g., in competitive sports, admissions, and degree program options) for female student-athletes have increased, while professional leadership job opportunities (e.g., Coaching, Athletic Director or Executive Administration) for the same population have declined. For example, only 40.2% of NCAA women's teams have a female head coach and 19.6 % of athletic departments have a female athletic director, compared to 90% female head coaches and 90% female athletic directors in 1972 (Acosta & Carpenter 2014, Rhode & Walker 2008, NCAA 2016). In 1972, women were athletic directors for 90% of women's athletic programs (Rhode & Walker 2008, NCAA, 2016). Currently, that statistic is no longer true. In fact, women no longer make up a majority of athletic directors over women's athletic programs; nor are women in a decision-making position to hire head coaches and athletic directors at 19.6% (NCAA 2016).

The culture and hiring practices in college sports lends themselves to many forms of discrimination. Today, the lines of discrimination are a little more blurred and creatively hidden (Buuzuvis, 2015). Based on the small percentages of women in athletic administration 19.6%, and 23% for women head coaches of both men and women's sports, there is little opportunity for networking, mentorship, and a pervasive culture of homologous reproduction. The barriers to entry level positions may often be different from the barriers to head coach or athletic director positions. For example, women administrators generally supervise non-revenue-generating sports such as tennis, swimming, or softball, while nearly always men are administrators of revenue-generating sports such as football and men's basketball. Supervising only non-revenue sports can prevent women from gaining the experience needed to become Athletic Directors.

Burton & Hagan (2009) use the gender role theory as a framework to examine why women are underrepresented in senior management positions. They identified gender stereotyping of managerial sub roles as a barrier to being perceived as competent. Senior level administrators on college campuses (Presidents, Vice Presidents, Provosts, and Athletic Directors), determine the competency of those in the applicant pool and therefore may not hire or promote women as a result of stereotyping of managerial sub roles. According to Burton & Hagan (2009), female student athletes have different perceptions of men and women in athletic leadership positions. The study concluded that women are expected to be nurturing and communal (feminine) role models; whereas men are expected to be aggressive and agentic (masculine). These stereotypes are implicit biases in the hiring practices that are often hidden or more difficult to assess.

Role modeling and mentorships have often been targeted as tools used to develop the skills and behaviors needed for success in leadership and employment (Lent, Brown & Hackett 1994). With so few female coaches and administrators, female athletes have had limited access to these

tools. Massengale and Lough (2010) suggest that same gender role modeling is essential as it presents an opportunity for female athletic leaders to instill confidence in female athletes and influence their career choices. A mentor can function as a role model providing example behaviors, attitudes, and values (Bower, 2009).

There has been a distinctive shift in leadership for women's programs since the enactment of Title IX (Acosta & Carpenter 2012). Athletic programs have since merged their women's and men's programs and put them under the primary leadership of one athletic director, in most cases, male. Many studies have examined the underrepresentation of women or the lack of retention of women currently in collegiate athletics leadership positions (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012; Rhodes, 2008; Berkeley, 2008), but few have studied the factors that influence them to pursue a career in athletic leadership. The purpose of this study is to examine the factors that impact the choices of female athletes in the pursuit of a career in collegiate sports leadership.

Statement of the Problem

There is an underrepresentation of women in collegiate athletic leadership positions and the employment opportunities in collegiate sports leadership have declined since Title IX. A longitudinal study conducted by Acosta & Carpenter (2014), exhibited a decline in female representation in leadership positions after the enactment of Title IX in 1972 at which time, 90% of female sports were directed and coached by women. In 2015-16, men held 80.4% of the collegiate athletic administrative leadership positions; women held 19.6%. During that same period, 59.8% of women's sports were coached by men; and 40.2% were coached by women (NCAA 2016). The above studies were conducted on women currently in the field, hiring practices, and professional development. Current female student athletes can be a resource for gathering information to develop programs and policies to improve the pool and status of women

in collegiate leadership positions. There are relatively few empirical studies involving female student athletes and their perception of collegiate athletic leadership as a viable career choice. An examination of this group and the factors that impact their decision to pursue or not pursue a career in collegiate sports leadership may be insightful as to the policies and practices for improving female representation and retention in athletic leadership positions.

Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to examine the factors that impact the choices of female athletes to pursue a career in collegiate sports leadership, guided by the following research questions:

- What gender of athletic leadership (coaches and administrators) do female college athletes prefer?
- Is there an interaction between female college athletes' exposure to role models, mentors, coaches and administrators and their decision to pursue a career in collegiate sports leadership, and is it statistically significant?
- Do female college athletes identify with females in current collegiate sports leadership positions as examples for future career path success?

This study was descriptive to examine the differences or similarities between factors (role models, mentors, coaches and administrators) and a collegiate female athlete's decision to pursue a career in collegiate sports leadership. The study employed a survey to (a) identify female college athletes' gender preference for coaches and administrators and the factors that form that preference; (b) determine the interaction between exposure to male and female role models, mentors, coaches, and administrators and female athletes' career choices in athletic leadership; (c) determine if female college athletes identify with the females in current athletic leadership positions; and (d) to determine if there is a statistically significant relationship between a female

athlete's decision to pursue a career in collegiate athletic leadership and their exposure to male or female role models, mentors, coaches and administrators .

A survey designed to explore the research questions will be utilized to obtain responses from the undergraduate female athlete participants selected for this study. It has been determined that a survey is the best design since no treatment will be administered to the group and the statistical associations will not be manipulated.

Theoretical Framework

The Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) is an elaboration on Albert Bandura's Social Learning Theory (SLT). SLT is a complex model that describes the interaction between a person's behaviors, environment, and individual factors, as a result of observational learning, modeling and imitation (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994). SLT focuses on three main concepts - self-efficacy, expected outcomes, and goal mechanisms and how they interrelate with other learning factors (Lent, et. al, 1994). People give meaning, form and continuity to their experiences by forming symbols, mental images, or words that can be stored and used to guide future behavior (Bandura, 1989). Self-perceptions, career goals, competencies, and perceptions of others can be attributed to cultural sex typing (Bandura, 1986).

Self-efficacy describes a person's belief that he or she has the ability to perform within a particular occupation. One's self-efficacy is individual and based on four main factors; personal accomplishments, observing others who are similar, social influence, and mental or physiological condition. As accomplishments, experiences, and social influences change, the level of one's self efficacy can potentially change. Lent, Brown, and Hackett (2002) identify personal success and failures with specific tasks and social reinforcement as compelling areas affecting self-efficacy.

Outcome expectations are the results we place on performing certain behaviors. People will consider the consequences of their actions and are more likely to choose and persist in behavior that they expect to have favorable outcomes. Perceptions of favorable outcomes can be influenced by work conditions, rewards, social acceptance and personal beliefs.

Personal goals are viewed by SCCT in two ways; intent to perform a task (choice) and how well the task will be performed (performance). Person goals are connected to both self-efficacy and outcome expectations because people set goals based on personal capability and favorable outcomes. Personal goals can impact self-efficacy by on their success or failure and will also make a new or reinforced connection to outcome expectations.

Lent, Brown, & Hackett (1994) posit that when faced with obstacles, one's self-efficacy determines the level of effort, persistence, emotional reactions and thought patterns. Outcome expectations are driven by the perceived consequences acting on particular behaviors (Bandura, 1989). A goal, as described by Bandura (1989), is the decision to affect future outcomes or partake in certain activities. These tenants are at the foundation of how one chooses to pursue a career. This framework will be applied to female athletes' choice to pursue careers in collegiate athletic leadership. According to Cunningham & Singer (2010), people are more likely to choose a career if they can imagine themselves as being successful in that career or perceive valuable outcomes. The SCCT will be used to examine the factors that influence interests, goals, and motivation to act toward careers in collegiate sports leadership.

Assumptions/Potential Limitations

This study is designed to identify factors that influence the current undergraduate female student athlete's decision to pursue a career in collegiate athletic leadership. The study is focused on Division III female athletes and does not include female athletes from Division I and Division

II. The study does not include male athletes, male coaches, or male administrators. The male perspective may serve to support or contradict that of the females in the study. Although the data will be collected, there will be no overt attempt to use or focus upon the participants by racial, ethnic, socio-economic status or sexual orientation. The research may show a statistical correlation but is not a longitudinal study which may determine if the variables studied are causal.

Significance of Study/Rationale

Existing literature and research express an underrepresentation of women in coaching and administrative positions in collegiate athletics. The existing studies examine the barriers facing women in hiring practices and on factors that influence retention. Although those studies are extremely important, they focus on women who have already made the decision to pursue careers in collegiate athletics. Throughout this dissertation researcher's 28 years of collegiate coaching, undergraduate female athletes have expressed a lack of interest in careers in collegiate athletic leadership. To increase the number of women in the field of collegiate athletics (athletic directors, assistant athletic directors, and coaches), may very well start with increasing the pool of qualified females applying for positions in collegiate sports leadership. This study will focus on undergraduate female student athletes to determine what factors influence their career choices in collegiate athletics. By understanding the influencing factors, we can develop strategies, interventions, and support to address the underrepresentation of women in collegiate athletic leadership.

Definitions and Key Terms

Listed below are definitions of terms that are material to this study:

Athletics: games, sports, and exercises engaged in by athletes (Merriam Webster)

Collegiate Athletics: games, sports, and exercises engaged in by athletes in colleges and universities

NCAA Divisions: Division I has 3 subdivisions, (FBS, FCS, and Non-Football): each subdivision must sponsor at least 14 sports (7 for men and 7 for women, or 6 for men and 8 for women, with 2 team sports for each gender), meet minimum financial aid awards but not exceed the maximum awards per sport, and play 100% of the minimum number of games against other Division I opponents.

Football Bowl Subdivision (FBS) Athletic programs that sponsor football and average 15,000 in attendance

Football Championship Subdivision (FCS): Athletic programs that sponsor football with no minimum attendance requirement

Non-Football: Athletic programs that do not sponsor football.

NCAA Division II: Each member of the subdivision must sponsor 10 Sports (5 for men and 5 for women or 4 for men and 6 for women, with 2 team sports for each gender) no attendance requirements

NCAA *Division III:* Each member of the subdivision must sponsor at least 10 sports (5 for men and 5 for women, with 2 team sports for each gender) receive no financial aid based on athletic ability. (NCAA.com)

Agentic behavior: Conduct that includes being forceful, aggressive, and self-confident

Homologous Reproduction: The process of systematic recreation or reproduction by a dominant group.

Athletic Leadership: For this study, athletic leadership includes positions in college athletic departments such as Head Coach, Athletic Director, Associate Athletic Director, and Assistant Athletic Director.

Mentoring: Mentoring is a relationship in which an experienced individual develops, guides, and acts as a counselor to a less experienced individual (Lough 2001)

Perceptions: Perceptions are the way one thinks about or understands something or someone (Merriam-Webster on-line Learners Dictionary)

Role Models: Role models are persons in ~~a~~ leadership positions that others want to emulate.

Self-Efficacy: "Peoples' judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to obtain designated types of performances" (Bandura, 1986, p. 391).

Goal: A goal is the decision to affect future outcomes or partake in certain activities Bandura (1989).

Summary

A longitudinal study conducted by Acosta & Carpenter (2014), exhibited a decline in female representation in leadership positions after the enactment of Title IX in 1972 at which time, 90% of female sports were directed and coached by women. Existing literature and research express an underrepresentation of women in coaching and administrative positions in collegiate athletics. Organizations such as the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), the National Association of Collegiate Women Athletic Administrators (NACWAA), the Women's Sports Foundation (WSF), Women Leaders in College sports and the National Association for

Girls and Women in Sport (NAGWS) have proposed to address the issue of the underrepresentation of women in collegiate athletic leadership positions through professional development, organizational support, and seminars. In 2015-16, men held 80.4% of the collegiate athletic administrative leadership positions and 59.8% of women's sports were coached by men (NCAA, 2016). This study intends to examine the factors that influence female athletes' choice to pursue a career in collegiate athletic leadership. An examination of the influencing factors, can frame the strategies to address the underrepresentation of women in collegiate athletic leadership.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The summation of the literature is focused on the emerging themes that may influence a female student athlete's decision to pursue a career in collegiate sports leadership. A review of the history of women in sports provides the background information to understand the current data on the underrepresentation of women in collegiate sports leadership. The longitudinal study conducted by Acosta and Carpenter (2014) follows the progression of women in sports as participants as well as in administrative leadership positions. The literature studying the perceptions of women in collegiate sports leadership is not extensive but it is relevant to the proposed study. How women are perceived as leaders and the barriers they face impacts their career choices. Many studies take a social cognitive approach. The elements of this approach are examined to provide an overarching understanding of the study.

Historical Overview of Women in Collegiate Sports

Prior to 1983, women's college athletics were governed by a number of different organizations and were separate from men's sports. The National Association for Girls and Women in Sport (NAGWS) continues to be a beacon in education to advance fairness and equity in sports. "The organization's roots lie in a committee created in 1899 to write rules for women's collegiate *basket ball* (basket ball was two words in the late 1800s)" (Ladda, 2009, p. 48). Through the early 1900s, several governing bodies for women's sports were created; the Tripartite Committee, the National Joint Committee on Extramural Sports for College Women (NJCESCW), the Division for Girls' and Women's Sports (DGWS), the Commission on intercollegiate Athletics for Women (CIAW), the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW), and lastly the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA). "In 1971 the AIAW was formed to act as

a governing body for women in collegiate sports. The formation of the AIAW provided for the first time a governing body that had the power to effectively run and enforce its policies" (Grappendorf & Lough, 2006, p.7). The AIAW folded in 1982 when it was unable to match the money and television coverage offered to schools in the NCAA's bid for a takeover (Grappendorf & Lough, 2006).

In 1972, Title IX of the Education Amendment Act was passed. "Title IX banned sex discrimination in any education program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance" (Rhode 2008, p.5). Title IX was amended in 1974 to include Athletics. In 1975, the Office of Civil Rights (OCR) developed an implementation process for the newly amended Title IX.

> No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subject to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance (Title IX of the Education Amendments Act of 1972, Sec. 1681. Sex).

It is important to note that although Title IX is commonly associated with athletics, this legislation was not written just for athletics. Title IX is an Amendment Act that governs all areas of education on campus.

The Office of Civil Rights (OCR) relies on gender equity reports filed by institutions under the Equity in Athletics Disclosure Act. The consequence for violating Title IX is a loss of federal funding to the entire university. According to Rhodes and Walker (2008), experts believe that the majority of schools are not in compliance with Title IX due to the widespread errors in the gender equity reports. The OCR does not regularly monitor these reports for errors. It instead, negotiates settlements for clearly documented cases that are presented.

Since the enactment of Title IX, participation of girls and women in sports continues to rise (Acosta & Carpenter 2012). While the participation of female athletes in college athletics

continues to increase, partly due to Title IX, the opportunity for female leadership has not taken the same direction.

As a result of Title IX, resources to women's programs were increased. However, many coaching and administrative positions in women's sports paid low salaries or were voluntary (Rhode & Walker 2008). The increased resources for women's sports, particularly salaries that were high enough to support families, began to draw the attention of men (Drago, Hennighausen, Rogers, Vescio & Stauffer, 2005). According to Acosta and Carpenter (2014), in 1972, the year Title IX was enacted, more than 90% of women's teams were coached by females, and over 90% of the athletic directors were female. Comparatively, in 2016, only 40.2% of women's teams were coached by women, and women held only 19.6% of athletic director positions (NCAA 2016). Among the three NCAA college divisions (Division I, II, and III) for college sports, Division III employs the largest number of athletic directors (Acosta & Carpenter 2014). Division I athletic programs in the football bowl subdivision (FBS) are considered the most powerful and prestigious. In 2008, of the 120 NCAA schools that participate in the FBS, six athletic directors were women (Swaton, 2010). The numbers for African American women are even more dismal. African American women represent 7.7% of all NCAA coaches and 9% of all NCAA athletic administrators (NCAA 2016). According to Lough (2001) women have made gains in career advancement in many industries but athletic career advancement has not kept pace.

This illustrates a shift in leadership for women's programs since the enactment of Title IX (Rhode & Walker 2008). Studies show that athletic departments run by male directors hire fewer women in leadership positions than departments run by women and in most athletic departments, women in leadership positions are in a secondary leadership position or in support services (Acosta & Carpenter 2012; Grappendorf & Lough, 2006). Secondary leadership positions generally

include assistant athletic director, associate athletic director, senior women's administrator (SWA), compliance director, academic advising, and clerical. According to Lance, Hartfield, & Drummond (2002) the role of SWA, was designed to return women to the administrative opportunities they had lost and to ensure that women had a voice in the administration of intercollegiate athletic programs. Lance et.al (1998) states that in order for SWA's to be effective administrators, their role must be clearly understood, and they must have adequate levels of influence on administrative strategies and courses of action within athletic departments not just on issues related to gender equity and women's sports.

The history of the representation of women in sports has been encapsulated in the shifts in leadership and participation. The transition from AIAW governance to NCAA governance has provided greater visibility and funding but fewer opportunities for career advancement. The SWA has been the primary opportunity for women in athletic administration but it is a position lacking executive power. According to Eagly (2007) women have advanced in leadership positions in a variety of industries and exhibit behaviors of successful leaders more often than men.

The Status of Women in Leadership

Effective leadership is the ability to exhibit behaviors and communicate effectively in a manner that engages a group to act collectively to achieve a common goal. The style of leadership employed may vary but is appropriately suited to the individual leader. Researchers such as Robert House (2003) describe transformational leaders as those who motivate followers to achieve beyond expectation by communicating a clear vision, getting followers to accept a new group identity, garnering trust, and emphasizing their strengths rather than their weaknesses.

According to Eagly (2007), although women exhibit, more often than men, leadership behaviors identified as qualities of effective leaders, they are not preferred as bosses. Women are

identified particularly with the qualities of transformational leadership such as trust, motivation, and emphasizing strengths. Cultural expectations and stereotypes suggest that women exhibit communal behaviors, in direct conflict with the agentic behavior expected of leaders. Communal behaviors include being gentle, nurturing, kind, sympathetic, interpersonally sensitive, affectionate and helpful (Burton, Grappendorf & Henderson, 2011). Agentic behaviors, including being forceful, aggressive, and self-confident, are associated with men (Eagly, 2007). Women in leadership positions face cross pressures that are created by the conflict in expectations. Women resolve this conflict using a transformational style of leadership with emphasis on coach/teacher traits. The androgynous nature of transformational leadership offers female leaders a middle ground between perceived masculine and feminine leadership behaviors (Eagly, 2007). The female leadership style doesn't emphasize vision, it emphasizes voice and connectedness (Lough, 2001). "By communicating and sharing their vision, female leaders can experience the connectedness that inspires their leadership abilities" (Lough, 2001, p. 31).

Barriers to Leadership in Athletics

Grappendorf and Lough (2006) identify homologous reproduction as a barrier to the pathway to collegiate athletic leadership for women in their quantitative study of female NCAA Division I athletic directors. Homologous reproduction, as it relates to hiring practices in athletic departments, poses that those in decision making positions tend to hire persons with social and/or physical characteristics like themselves (Grappendorf & Lough, 2006). As it relates to hiring practices, a study conducted by Burton and Hagan (2009) found that managerial descriptions for positions such as athletic director, associate athletic director, and assistant athletic director were written using phrases that are considered masculine and favoring men.

Also stated as barriers to leadership are, "lack of support systems for women, failure of *old girls* networks, female burnout, failure to apply for job openings, …and *old boys clubs*" (Grappendorf & Lough, 2006, p. 8). Bower (2009) identifies a lack of training and career development, balancing work and family, a need to prove themselves, and the lack of mentors as barriers to career advancement. According to Weiss and Stevens (1993), occupational structures and a lack of role models contribute to the decline of female coaches, ultimately resulting in female athletes being less likely to choose coaching as a career. Everhart and Chelladurai (1998) add that male coaches are preferred by female athletes but female athletes that have male coaches are more likely to perceive discrimination as a barrier to coaching. The type of leadership that female athletes are exposed to, can be a barrier to leadership (Lough, 2010). "With men holding dominant roles in sport, girls often do not view athletics as a viable career path and boys do not perceive that women belong as athletic leaders" (Massengale & Lough, 2010). Drago et al. (2005) explains:

> The informality of present practices allows sex discrimination to play a major role in hiring, decision-making, training and development, and in career paths, thereby limiting opportunities for women interested in, or already in coaching and athletic administration, and makes the career path uncertain for prospective coaches (p. 6).

In addition, Drago et al. (2005) suggests a formalization of training for coaches and athletic administrators to reduce the sex discrimination in career pathways. Further, restricted geographic mobility is determined to be a limitation to career advancement for women (Drago et al., 2005). Pursuing a career in collegiate coaching and athletic administration can require relocating out of one's immediate geographic area. Also, a lack of mentoring can present a barrier for professional advancement in collegiate athletics. Mentors can remove some barriers by providing training and career development.

The Role of Mentoring in Career Outcomes

Lough (2001) identifies both a lack of mentoring and reduced leadership confidence as causes for the decline of female coaches. Lough (2001) defines mentoring as a relationship in which an experienced individual develops, guides, and acts as a counselor to a less experienced individual. Kram's (1985) mentor role theory indicates two overarching functions that mentors provide: career development and psychosocial functions. During the career development process, the mentor provides sponsorship, coaching, protection, exposure, and challenging assignments (Kram, 1985). According to Bower (2009) through sponsorship and exposure, a mentor can help a woman build her reputation and build relationships necessary for advancement. The psychosocial function allows the mentor to address interpersonal behavioral development such as self-efficacy, personal development, competence, and professional development (Ragins & Cotton, 1999). A mentor can function as a role model providing example behaviors, attitudes, and values (Bower, 2009). Bower's findings are based on a meta-ethnographic study of effective mentoring relationships. Massengale and Lough (2010) suggest that same gender role modeling is essential as it presents an opportunity for female athletic leaders to instill confidence in female athletes and influence their career choices. "More female role models for girls would validate sport as a career path" (Massengale & Lough 2010).

Formal and informal mentoring are career resources. The two forms of mentoring differ in their initiation and length of time. Mentors in informal relationships select individuals who are high performers and similar to themselves, while the protégés in these relationships select role models with desired expertise (Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Bower 2009; Hill & Bahniuk, 1998). In formal mentoring relationships, both members are assigned. Informal mentoring relationships can last up to 6 years, while formal relationships may last up to 1 year (Ragins & Cotton, 1999).

Formal and informal mentoring presents potentially different outcomes. The length of informal mentoring relationships can accommodate the delayed impact of mentoring and long-term goals. Formal relationships focus on short-term career goals. The meta-ethnographic study by Bower (2009) demonstrates that women received career benefits as a result of mentoring. According to Ragins and Cotton (1999), individuals that have been informally mentored, mean income, (M=$56,629) received significantly greater work compensation than individuals that had been formally mentored (M=$48,107) and since women face barriers when attempting to form informal mentoring relationships, the alternative is to pursue formal mentoring.

Bower (2009) offers a shortage of trained women, a lack of mentors, discrimination, the *old boys* network, hesitance in initiating mentoring, perception of mentoring relationships, and support for the mentoring relationship as barriers to mentoring for women. Hill and Bahniuk (1998) note that not only is there a lack of female mentors, the existing mentors lack power. Mentors can help socialize protégés to an organization. Socialization involves learning an organization's culture, behaviors and rules (Johnson, Gregory & Griego, 1999).

While women exhibit communal and agentic leadership behaviors, that when combined are the androgynous qualities of a successful transformative leader, men are still the preference for leadership positions. Women face many obstacles to career advancement. Homologous reproduction and the failure to apply for open positions are barriers to job attainment. A lack of support and difficulty balancing work and family are barriers to job persistence.

Mentoring is a career resource that can aid in career persistence. Men receive informal mentoring through relationships within the old boys network that serve to socialize, guide and protect them through the many phases of their careers. Women do not have the same access to informal mentoring. Therefore, they are often without someone to help build either the reputation

or relationships necessary for career advancement. Studies show a greater work compensation for protégés who have been informally mentored. Since there are a small number of women in leadership positions, women have fewer opportunities for same-gender informal mentoring relationships. Through the psychosocial function, women can not only mentor but act as role models, and validate athletics as a career choice.

Perceptions of Women in Collegiate Leadership Positions

Female coaches and administrators are often found to be better role models but not preferred as leaders (Lirgg, Dibrezzo, & Smith, 1994). Athletic programs that are led by female coaches and administrators are viewed as less competitive. Women are perceived as having less knowledge, skill, and authority than their male counterparts (Drago et al., 2005). The results of a Cage report (2005) indicated that not only do female athletes prefer male coaches but they are hesitant to accept the authority of female coaches and this gender bias based on stereotypical attitudes toward female coaches can have an effect on the hiring of female coaches (Drago et al., 2005).

In the Cage report (2005) it was noted that a majority of the female athletes in the study had minimal to no experience with a female coach. An interesting finding in the Cage report was an appreciation for coaches in secondary positions (assistant coaches) but not as head coaches. Drago et al. (2005) attribute this to the athlete's need for support and trust that female coaches provide. According to Frey, Czech, Kent & Johnson (2006) male coaches were perceived as being more knowledgeable, more motivating, more pleasing to play for, and more likely to be successful. A limitation of Frey et al., (2006) study was that a majority of the 12 female athletes had primarily male coaches. Only two of the female athletes participating in the study had primarily female coaches. Female coaches were perceived as being unorganized, lacking structure, and more laid

back than their male counterparts. Habif, Van Raalte & Cornelius (2001) investigate the underrepresentation of women in leadership positions by examining collegiate athletes preferences for male and female coaches and found no statistical difference.

The number of empirical studies examining preference for women in athletic leadership positions is not extensive and the results are inconclusive. Early studies show a preference for male coaches. Recent studies are split on coaching gender preference. The studies are limited by the participants, many of whom have had primarily male coaches. The studies did not state if the preference for male coaches was due to a lack of experiences with female coaches or a result of having poor experiences with female coaches. The underrepresentation of women in positions of leadership was consistent among the studies. The underrepresentation of women also presented a challenge to conducting a quantitative examination of the hypotheses for gender preferences.

Why Women Matter

"Exposure to female role models and leaders in a context that matters to young people (e.g., sport) may help to change values and beliefs about women in positions of power and leadership….and reduces the likelihood of negative workplace experience for women", (LaVoi, 2013, p.2). According to Everhart and Chelladurai (1998), athletes with same gender role models are influencd to attain similar achievements. Muffet McGraw, former head women's basketball coach at the University of Notre Dame, stated:

> "We do not have enough visible women leaders. We do not have enough women in power," "Men have the power. Men make the decisions. It's always the men that is the stronger one and when these girls are coming out, who are they looking up to, to tell them that's not the way it has to be. And where better to do that than in sports," (CBS News, 2019).

Muffet McGraw stepped down from her position as the head women's basketball coach at Notre Dame in 2020. In 2019, she expressed her frustration with the lack of leadership opportunities for women in collegiate athletics. She discussed the importance and impact of the

visibility of women in leadership positions. Thus, indicating that the status of women in collegiate leadership positions needs to improve. Later in that discussion, McGraw noted that college presidents, athletic directors and female head coaches must be intentional in their hiring practices to improve opportunities for women. McGraw at the time, hired an all female coaching staff. She also made it clear that she was not anti-male but wanted to level the career field. Men coach over 99% of men's athletic programs. She believes women should have the same opportunities in women's programs.

Muffet McGraw appears to agree with Grappendorf and Lough (2006) who identify homologous reproduction as a barrier to the pathway to collegiate athletic leadership for women. McGraw indicated that those in power (i.e., male athletic directors, presidents, and coaches) tend to hire those that are similar to them because it is comfortable and familiar. Since women are not the majority in those top leadership positions, they are generally not the ones doing the hiring. Therefore, we need more women in leadership positions.

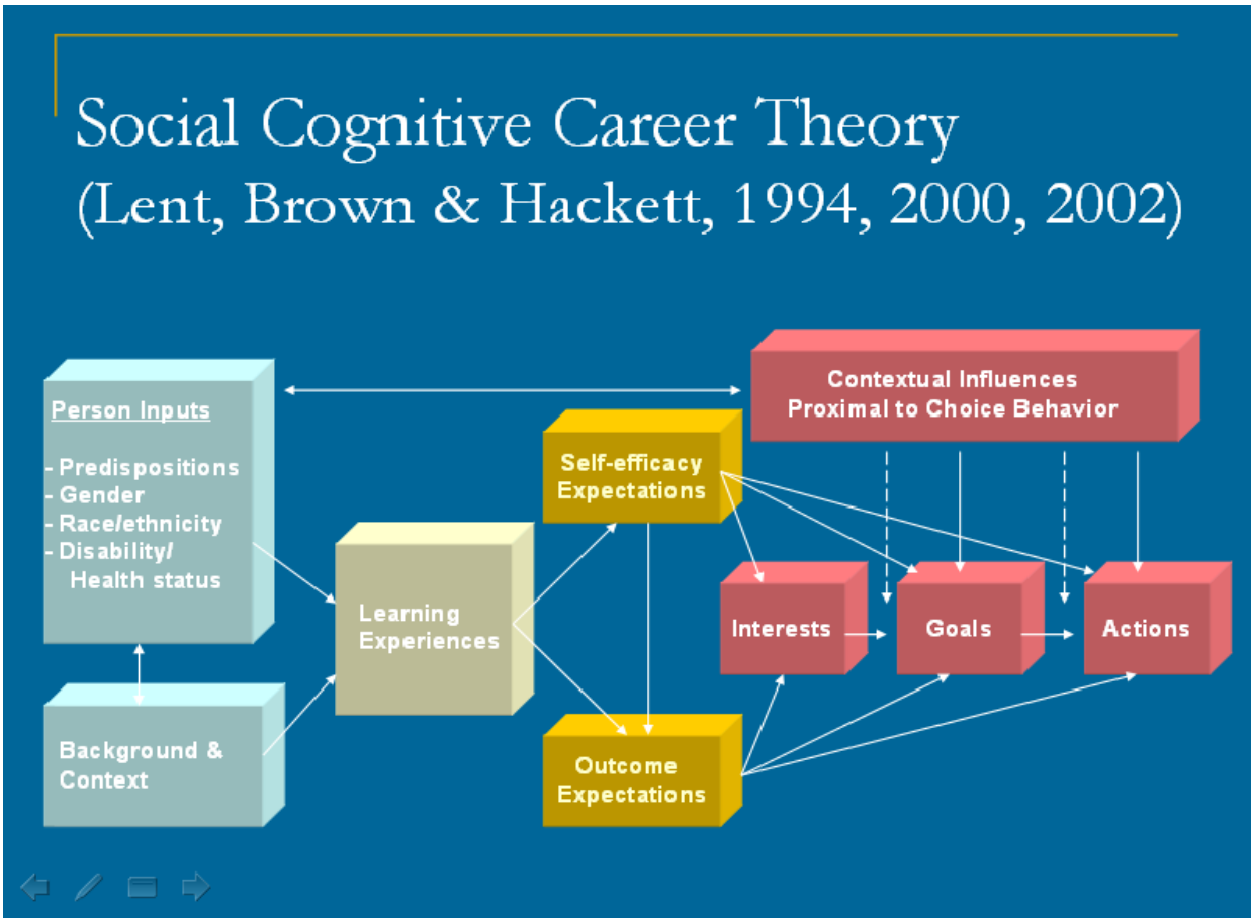
Career Development Theories

The underrepresentation of women in athletic leadership positions has been studied through various theoretical frameworks. Lent, Brown, & Hackett (1994) provide the Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) as a framework for understanding the career development process. The SCCT focuses on the selection, formation, and persistence of career pursuits by examining an individual's self-efficacy, their outcome expectations, and goal mechanisms and how they interrelate with other learning factors (Lent, et. al, 1994). Self-efficacy and valence, of particular interest to Everhart and Chelladuri (1988), are the basis upon which individuals choose and persist in occupations. It is the means through which individuals judge their ability to successfully perform in an occupation using their abilities. When evaluating one's self-efficacy, if women do

not perceive themselves as possessing the skills and talents for success in coaching, they will not choose coaching as a career. Female athletes who were coached by women had a greater valence for coaching.

Figure 2.1 demonstrates the social cognitive career theory's path from input to actions (Lent, et.al, 2002). Personal inputs such as gender, race and health affect learning experiences. Learning experiences have an impact on both self-efficacy and outcome expectations. Both expectations influence career choice, interests, goals, and actions. Interest drives goals and goals drive action.

Figure 2.1.



Children and adolescents build their performance standards from exposure to modeling, feedback, and engaging in activities with others that are important to them (Lent, et al, 1994).

In deciding on a career choice, an individual may make judgments about (a) his or her own abilities to be successful in a given occupation, (b) the opportunities afforded by the focal occupation to fill his or her needs and aspirations, and (c) the barriers (hindrances) to enter into that occupation (Everhart & Chelladurai, 1988, p. 189).

The SCCT is based on Albert Bandura's (1986) social learning theory with a focus on internal cognitive qualities, environmental factors, and overt behavior. People learn by modeling or observing the behaviors of others.

Weiss and Stevens (1993) utilize the social exchange theory, based on Bandura's (1986) social learning theory, to examine the decline of women in coaching. The assumption of the social exchange theory as expressed by Weiss and Stevens (1993) is that a desire to maximize benefits and minimize costs motivates behavior. Burton, Grappendorf and Henderson (2011) use the role congruity theory to examine the affiliation between the perceived expectations of women and the expectations of the male dominated profession of athletics. According to Eagly & Karau (2002) the role congruity theory does not perceive women as possessing the masculine characteristics necessary to be successful in leadership positions (as cited in Burton & Hagan, 2009, p. 89). The role congruity theory blames women and their lack of drive as a cause for underrepresentation.

The social learning theory or some variation of it has been used most often when examining career aspirations in athletics. Studies emphasize self-efficacy and valence to coach. Having role models provides athletes an opportunity to evaluate the skills needed for a career choice. Having a same-gender role model provides the athlete an opportunity to observe someone similar to themselves in athletic leadership careers that may influence their career choice. The SCCT provides an understanding of how individuals learn and make career choices. This theory can be applied to understanding career choices of female athletes.

Summary/Implications

In this post-Title IX era, female representation in positions of athletic leadership continues to lag behind female representation in the pre-Title IX era. The empirical research examining the underrepresentation of women in collegiate athletic leadership is minimal. There are few studies

that examine the factors influencing career choices for female athletes. The studies provided examine self-efficacy, valence, barriers to leadership, mentoring, and perceptions of women in leadership positions. All studies agree on the underrepresentation of women in collegiate athletic leadership. The studies also agree in part that the pathway to career choice is a learning experience. The results of the studies vary on gender preference of coaches, impact of mentoring, and theoretical framework. The purpose of each study was to provide information that will improve the representation of women in collegiate athletic careers.

Women have made gains in career advancement in many industries but athletic career advancement has not kept pace. There continues to be an underrepresentation of women in intercollegiate athletic leadership positions. Discrimination in hiring practices, perceptions of women as collegiate athletic leaders, a lack of female role models, and mentoring have been identified as barriers to career advancement. Little is known about what influences women to pursue careers in coaching and athletic administration. What is known is that a large number of women continue to participate in collegiate athletics in a variety of sports. This number has continued to grow since the enactment of Title IX. The interest in participation has not driven the interest or attainment of professional positions in collegiate athletic leadership. There is no positive correlation between increased participation and an increase in women in athletic leadership positions. Further study is needed to determine what influences athletic career choices, how to increase female representation, and how to retain women in collegiate athletic leadership positions.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this descriptive design was to determine the factors that influence female athletes' career choices as it pertains to athletic leadership positions. The use of a survey research design with descriptive statistics and analysis was most appropriate for this study. All participants were surveyed and data collected to answer the following overarching questions:

- What gender of athletic leadership (coaches and administrators) do female athletes prefer?
- Is there an interaction between female college athletes' exposure to role models, mentors, coaches and administrators and their decision to pursue a career in collegiate sports leadership, and is it statistically significant?
- Do female college athletes identify with the females in current collegiate sports leadership positions as examples for future career path success?

Setting

The study was conducted electronically using a Likert scale survey sent to Senior Women's Administrator (SWA) or Faculty Athletic Representative (FARs) in athletic departments of NCAA Division III colleges and universities in the Midwest. The study covered six conferences and 56 institutions. SWAs and FARs distributed the survey and research information sheet to a potential 2000 female student-athletes at Midwest colleges and universities. Since the survey was not distributed directly to the student-athletes by the researcher, all 2000 female student-athletes may not have received a survey. Participants were able to access the survey on any device using the provided link. Each participant was limited to one email address. The email addresses were encrypted for all of the participants in the study.

The colleges and universities that participated in the study are a subset of the 446 NCAA Division III member institutions. Division III represents the largest group of NCAA member institutions. The number of sponsored sports vary at each institution. The study represents 11 women's sports. Each institution is required to sponsor a minimum 10 men's and women's sports. They must sponsor at least five women's sports with two of them being a team sport. The NCAA, which was founded in 1906 to protect young people from the dangerous and exploitive athletics practices of the time, acts as the governing body for its member institutions (NCAA.org).

Population

The target population sample for this study consisted of undergraduate female student athletes currently participating in sports at NCAA Division III institutions in the Midwest. NCAA Division III institutions have the most NCAA member institutions and do not provide financial aid based on athletics (NCAA.org). The athletes range from 18-26 years of age, who are undergraduates, and freshman through seniors in academic standing. The ethnicity, socioeconomic status, and sexual orientation of the participants varied. Although the data was collected, there was no overt attempt to use or focus upon the participants by racial, ethnic, socio-economic status or sexual orientation. Total number of female athletes participating in NCAA in Division I, Division II and Division III athletics is 207,814 (NCAA 2014).

Sampling Procedure

The Senior Women's Administrator (SWA) and Faculty Athletic Representative (FAR) at NCAA Division III institutions was contacted to request their participation and the participation of their female student athletes. The SWA and FAR only participated as facilitators through which the surveys were sent. The SWA and FAR were provided with a brief explanation of the study and its purpose. Approval was sought from any institutional entities identified by the SWA or

FAR. Once approval was granted, the SWA and FAR were contacted to explain the survey process and emails containing the study materials with a link to the survey instrument was transmitted. Only female athletes that were currently participating in collegiate sports were included. Female athletes that were graduate students or under 18 years of age were eliminated from the study through demographics questions asked in the survey. All potential participants received an informed consent form in compliance with Human Investigations Committee (HIC) regulations.

Research Design

The descriptive design guides the methodology through a social cognitive and transformative theoretical lens by providing a framework for the collection of quantitative data. The transformative paradigm and theoretical lens influences the following five steps of the research process; (1) research questions and the literature search; (2) the research design; (3) data sources and selecting participants; (4) data collection instruments or methods; and (5) analyzing, interpreting, reporting and using the results (Creswell et. al., 2011). Quantitative data was collected and analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The rational for using this design is that the quantitative data would provide a foundation for understanding the problem.

Data Collection

Using a social cognitive/transformative career theoretical lens, quantitative data was collected from the female college athletes participating in the study. The data was collected by distributing an on-line survey created on Survey Monkey for the purpose of research within the guidelines of HIC. The questions asked the participants to focus on coaching and athletic administration on the collegiate level when answering the questions. The survey was sent to individual email addresses. The email addresses were encrypted and no identifiable information

from respondents was recorded. The survey responses were kept on a password protected computer.

Instrument

The instrument was a Likert-scale survey adapted from Everhart & Chelladurai (1998) and modified in Miller (2009). Permission has been acquired from both of these authors. The survey included 72 questions in six sections; (1) demographics, (2) desire to coach scale, (3) desire to be an administrator scale, (4) coaching/administrative self-efficacy scale, (5) occupational coaching and administrative valence scales, and (6) perceived hindrance scales.

Demographics

The demographics section asked participants for age, gender, ethnicity, year in school, and the sport played while in college. The next five sections employed a 5-point Likert scale containing responses ranging from 1-5, with 1 (not interested at all) to 5 (very interested). The 1-5 Likert scale was converted to a scale of 1-100 by Survey Monkey.

Desire to Coach

Participants were asked to indicate their desire to coach at four-year institutions, NCAA Division I, NCAA Division II, and NCAA Division IIII, Junior college, and high school using a desire to coach scale developed by Everhart and Chelladurai (1998). The scale was modified as used in Miller (2009) to say coach instead of basketball coach.

Desire to be an Administrator

Participants were asked to indicate their desire to be an administrator at a four-year institution, NCAA Division I, NCAA Division II, and NCAA Division III, Junior college, and high school using a desire to coach scale developed by Everhart and Chelladurai (1998). The scale was modified to say administrator and coach.

Coaching/Administrative Self-efficacy

Participants were asked to indicate their level of confidence in their ability to perform tasks associated with coaching and administrative duties using the coaching self-efficacy scale developed by Everhart and Chelladurai (1998). The scale was modified to include administrative tasks.

Occupational Coaching and Administrative Valence Scales

Participants were asked to indicate the desirability of various occupation related experiences using an occupational valence scale developed by Everhart and Chelladurai (1998) and modified to include administrative experiences. Cronbach's alpha has been used to measure internal consistency for the occupational valence.

Perceived Hindrance Scale

Participants were asked to indicate if the likelihood that the provided statements would hinder them from entering coaching or athletic administration as a career using a perceived hindrance scale developed by Everhart and Chelladurai (1998) (Miller, 2009). The collected data was analyzed using descriptive and inferential data based on the three research questions.

Reliability

The survey designed by Everhart & Chelladurai (1998) has a Cronbach's alpha that ranges from .87 to .96 for each of the five scales discussed. The acceptable range of Cronbach's alpha is from .70 to .90. The internal consistency of the self-efficacy scale was .96. The occupational valence had an internal consistency of .85. The hindrance scale has an internal consistency of .87. Self-efficacy exceeds the range of acceptability which would indicate that the questions for that scale may be redundant.

Data Analysis

The researcher used a quantitative approach which incorporated descriptive statistics and analysis. Through the descriptive analysis the study was able to analyze the demographics, means, frequencies, and standard deviation for survey questions. This study used path analysis to determine the path from internal and external factors to career choice. Further analysis derived scaled chi-square and bivariate correlations. Upon completion of the statistical analysis, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to determine any between-group variances. The findings were analyzed to determine correlations between identified factors and impact on career leadership choices.

Summary

The study was of a descriptive quantitative design with the collection of data from a Likert-scale survey. The intent of the study was to examine the factors that influence career choices for female athletes in respect to collegiate athletic leadership. Using Midwest colleges and universities, the study was able to examine the perceptions that female college athletes have of current women in collegiate leadership positions and if it impacts their choice for future career paths. The study also examined how female student-athletes view their ability to perform the tasks associated with the coaching or administration and the perceived hindrances. Role model influence as an external factor was examined to identify any impact it may have on self-efficacy, occupational valence, and a career path of coaching or administrative leadership.

The purpose of the study was to identify some factors that impact the choices for career paths in leadership. Identifying these factors, can lead to strategies to improve the underrepresentation of women in collegiate athletic leadership.

CHAPTER 4 DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the factors that impact collegiate female athletes' choices to pursue a career in collegiate athletics. The NCAA has a model that it calls the three D's for Division III athletics; *discover*, *develop*, and *dedicate*. Division III student-athletes are encouraged to actively pursue their interest beyond the classroom and the sport they play to *discover* themselves; to *develop* into well rounded adults through participation in a broad spectrum of sports and activities outside of the classroom; and to *dedicate* themselves to achieving their full potential (NCAA, n.d). Hypothetically, this study will support and enhance the Division III model by revealing quantitative data that provide a foundation for understanding the problems and identifying key factors important to the leadership development of female student-athletes.

The results of the study's 72 question survey, collected from seventy-five female student-athletes from NCAA Division III Midwest colleges and universities, are reported in this chapter. These questions covered six categories: demographics, desire to coach/administrate, occupational valence, perceived hindrance and role model influence.

The data were analyzed to answer the three research questions. What gender of athletic leadership (coaches and administrators) do female athletes prefer? Is there an interaction between female college athletes' exposure to role models, mentors, coaches and administrators and their decision to pursue a career in collegiate sports leadership, and is it statistically significant? Do female college athletes identify with the females in current collegiate sports leadership positions as examples for future career path success?

Collection of Data

A request for participation was sent to SWAs and FARs representing athletic departments at Midwest institutions. Some institutions required additional information be sent to their institutional review board prior to distribution. Upon approval, SWAs and FARs were sent a research information sheet and a link to the instrument to be distributed to female student-athletes. The instrument was a Likert-scale survey containing 72 questions. Approximate time of completion of the survey by for participants was 13 minutes. The questions asked the participants to focus on coaching and athletic administration on the collegiate level when answering the questions. The questions covered six categories: demographics, desire to coach/administrate, occupational valence, perceived hindrance, and role model influence. For each question, a brief interpretation of the categorical data collected appears followed by the table showing the data statistically.

Personal identifiers were encrypted upon completion of the survey. No individual personal identifiers were used or made available during the study. Survey results were kept on a password protected computer. Descriptive analysis, MANOVA, and path analysis were performed on the collected data and the results are provided in the accompanying tables. A Durbin-Watson, Levene test, and Box-Cox were performed to test assumptions. The variables in tables 4.1-4.10, are as follows; df (degrees of freedom), N (total number in sample), M (mean) and SD (standard deviation).

Data Collection Limitations

This study spanned five months and was interrupted by the winter break for colleges, and the Coronavirus shelter in place restrictions. The shelter in place restrictions led to the furlough of workers at some institutions. The furlough caused delayed distribution and follow-up contacts.

Some colleges closed during the Coronavirus (Covid-19) crisis. Also, several institutions chose not to participate for various reasons. Some of the reasons included; current institutional studies; concern for burnout prior to the distribution of future institutional studies; and some had no interest in the study itself. A second group of institutions were solicited to improve respondent participation. The survey instrument did not maintain any identifiable or unencrypted information for participants.

Demographic Data

Seventy-five female student-athletes from NCAA Division III Midwest colleges and universities responded to the survey. For all respondents, the average age was (M = 19.79) years, (SD = 1.19). There were 17 respondents that self-identified as a captain for their team. This represented 21.9% of the participants. There were 16 first year students, nine second year, 17 third year, and 13 fourth year students. Twenty participants did not report their college classification.

There were 20 sports categories represented. The 20 sports categories represented both single sport and multi-sport groupings. Basketball had the most single sport respondents 42.5%, (n = 31). Cross country/Track 6.8%, (n = 5) and Basketball/Track 5.5%, (n = 4) were the most common multi-sport groupings. White/Caucasians represented the largest group 76.7%, (n = 56) of respondents. Black/African Americans were the second leading group with 15.1%, (n = 11) of the respondents.

Table 4.1

Race Frequencies

	Frequency	Percent
Race		
White	56	76.7
Black	11	15.1
Pilipino	2	2.7
Asian	1	1.4

Hispanic	1	1.4
White/Hispanic	1	1.4

Table 4.2

Year Frequencies

	Frequency	Percent
Year		
3	17	30.9
1	16	29.1
4	13	23.6
2	9	16.4

Table 4.3

Captain Frequencies

	Frequency	Percent
Captain		
No	57	78.1
Yes	16	21.9

Table 4.4

Sports Frequencies

	Frequency	Percent
Sport(s)		
Basketball	31	42.5
Softball	7	9.6
Soccer	5	6.8
Basketball/Track	4	5.5
Track	4	5.5
Basketball/Softball	2	2.7
Lacrosse	2	2.7
Basketball/Soccer	1	1.4
Basketball/XC/Track	1	1.4
Diving	1	1.4
Soccer/Lacrosse	1	1.4

Soccer/Swimming	1	1.4
Softball/Track	1	1.4
Swimming/Diving	1	1.4
Tennis	1	1.4
Track/Soccer	1	1.4
Volleyball	1	1.4
Volleyball/Track/XC	1	1.4
Volleyball	2	2.7
XC/Track	5	6.8

Note: XC= cross country

Instrument

The instrument was a Likert-scale survey consisting of 72 questions. The demographics section of the survey asked participants' age, gender, ethnicity, year in school, and the sport played while in college. The rest of the survey was divided into five sections; Desire to Coach or to be an Administrator; Coaching/Administrative Self-efficacy; Occupational Coaching and Administrative Valence Scales; Perceived Hindrance and Role Model Influence.

Participants were asked to indicate their Desire to Coach or to be an Administrator at high school, Junior/community colleges, four-year institutions, NCAA Division I, NCAA Division II, and NCAA Division III using a desire to coach scale. The Self-Efficacy scale consisted of eight questions. The questions addressed assessing the ability of players and staff; evaluating and changing strategies; determining their coaching or administrative strengths and weaknesses; and dealing with problems. Participants were asked to indicate their level of confidence in their ability to perform these tasks associated with coaching and administrative duties using a scale of 1 (no confidence) to 5 (complete confidence). The Self-Efficacy scale was developed by Everhart and Chelladurai (1998). The scale was modified to include administrative tasks.

On the Occupational Coaching and Administrative Valence section, participants were asked to indicate the desirability of various occupation related experiences using an occupational

valence scale developed by Everhart and Chelladurai (1998) and modified to include administrative experiences. The scale consisted of 20 questions covering advancement, respect from others, job security, setting goals, fringe benefits, honesty, directing/supervising others, and overcoming odds. Participants were asked to indicate if the likelihood that the provided statements would hinder them from entering coaching or athletic administration as a career using a perceived hindrance scale from 1 (least desirable) to 5 (most desirable). The Perceived Hindrance scale consisted of 20 questions covering work schedule, travel, work life conflicts, perceived discrimination/biases, support systems, sexuality, training, and role models. Respondents were asked to answer the questions as they pertained to females in current collegiate athletic leadership position. Participants were asked to indicate the likelihood that the provided statements would hinder them from entering coaching or athletic administration as a career using a perceived hindrance scale.

Reliability

The internal consistency for each scale is as follows: occupational valence (α = .94); perceived hindrance (α = .94); desire to coach (α = .95); and role model influence (α = .20). Most of the alpha coefficients were satisfactory by Nunnally's (1978) criterion of .70. Questions 65-66 and questions 68-72 were removed, and question 67 was used to measure role model influence. In the survey designed by Everhart & Chelladurai (1998), self-efficacy exceeded the range of acceptability which indicated that the questions for that scale may have been redundant. The scale was modified by eliminating redundant questions. This resulted in an internal reliability for self-efficacy (α = .91).

Assumptions

The assumption of normality should be satisfied to conduct correlation, path analyses and multiple regression. The skewness and kurtosis for normal variables should be within the values range of -2 through +2 (Field, 2009; George & Mallery, 2010; Gravetter & Wallnow, 2012; Trochim & Donnely, 2006). In the study, the skewness and kurtosis for 'age', 'year', 'race', 'captain', 'perceived hindrance', 'role model influence', and 'desire to coach' are within the values range of -2 through +2. The data is skewed to the left as shown in Table 4.5.

However, the skewness and kurtosis for 'occupational valence' are not within the values range of -2 through +2. The kurtosis for 'self-efficacy' is not within the values range of -2 through +2. Thus, non-normal variables were transformed into normal variables by using rank transformation. Rank transformation is most appropriate for making a normal distribution of data (Cook, 1977).

Table 4.5

Skewness and Kurtosis

	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Age	0.22	0.28	-0.79	0.55
Year	-0.09	0.32	-1.43	0.63
Race	-1.72	0.28	1.68	0.55
Captain	1.38	0.28	-0.08	0.55
Self-Efficacy	-1.23	0.28	2.48	0.55
Occupational Valence	-2.33	0.28	8.97	0.56
Perceived Hindrance	0.03	0.28	0.07	0.56
Role Model Influence	-0.58	0.28	-0.62	0.55
Desire to Coach	0.51	0.28	-1.09	0.56
Number of Female Coaches	0.7	0.29	-0.32	0.57

Conducting a multiple regression analysis requires thar the errors between observed and predicted values are normally distributed and the independent variables are not highly correlated**.** The Durbin-Watson statistic was used to check for these errors. A *Durbin-Watson* statistic falling within the parameters of 1.5 and 2.5 is considered normal. In this study, the statistic fell within the normal range of 1.5 and 2.5 as shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.6

Distribution of Variables

Dependent Variable	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
Occupational Valence	.601[a]	.361	.305	14.31947	1.719
Perceived Hindrance	.430[a]	.185	.114	16.80020	2.443
Desire to Coach	.389[a]	.151	.077	25.55478	2.469

When conducting a MANOVA, there is an assumption of the absence of multicollinearity. Correlations were conducted between the independent variables. The absence of multicollinearity means that the independent variables are not correlated with each other. There was no evidence of multicollinearity, as assessed by Pearson correlation ($|r| < 0.33$) see Appendix A. There should be no significant outliers. In the study, two outliers were detected and removed see Appendix B.

The assumption of homogeneity of variance, which means that variance between two or more samples is equal, has been met. The Levene test was used to examine the null hypothesis that the population variance is equal (O'Neill & Mathews, 2002). For 'perceived hindrance,' p value of > 0.05 validated this assumption. For 'occupational valence' and 'desire to coach,' p value of < 0.05 did not confirm this assumption. Therefore, the Box-Cox transformation was conducted.

Table 4.7

Assumption of homogeneity for Occupational Valence, Hindrance, and Desire to Coach

	F	df1	df2	sig.
Occupational Valence	3.865	38	12	0.01
Perceived Hindrance	1.706	38	12	0.16
Desire to Coach	3.052	38	12	0.02

*Note: $p > .05$

Bivariate scatter plots were used to examine linearity. There is linearity between the variables. The assumption of homoscedasticity should be met to conduct a multiple regression analysis. The assumption of homoscedasticity was examined by using scatterplots. The assumption of homoscedasticity was met.

Descriptive Statistics

Student-athletes had a high Occupational Valence, (M = 74.79, SD = 16.16). "Role model influence" also scored high with (M = 62.48, SD = 31.70). "Perceived hindrance" had a lower score (M = 38.94, SD = 18.84). "Desire to coach" had a score of (M = 32.51, SD = 27.45). Female student-athletes averaged 2.5 female coaches and 3.8 male coaches in their playing experience. Eight female athletes reported having zero female coaches while only 5 female athletes had zero male coaches during their playing experience.

Table 4.8

Mean and Standard Deviation for Each Instrument Category

	N	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD
Age	73	18.00	22.00	19.81	1.18
Self-Efficacy	73	4.00	88.13	63.69	16.77
Occupational Valence	71	3.65	100.00	74.79	16.16
Perceived Hindrance	71	1.90	89.25	38.94	18.84
Role Model Influence	73	0.00	100.00	62.48	31.70
Desire to Coach	70	0.00	95.00	32.51	27.45

Number of Female Coaches	68	0.00	7.00	2.46	1.89

*Notes. *Two outliers were detected and removed. If student did not answer a question, they were excluded from the analysis and considered missing data.*

Table 4.9

Frequency of Female Coaches During Playing Career, (N=70)

Female Coaches	Frequency	Percent
7	2	3
6	5	7
5	3	4
4	8	11
3	12	16
2	12	16
1	20	27
0	8	11

**Note:* If student-athlete did not answer the question, they were excluded from the analysis and considered missing data.

Table 4.10

Frequency of Male Coaches During Playing Career, (N=70)

Male Coaches	Frequency	Percent
14	1	1
10	1	1
9	1	1
8	3	4
7	3	4
6	8	11
5	9	12
4	5	7
3	16	21
2	12	16
1	6	8
0	5	7

Note: If student-athlete did not answer the question, they were excluded from the analysis and considered missing data.

Research Question 1. What gender of athletic leadership (coaches and administrators) do female athletes prefer?

Descriptive statistics were performed to examine the research question. Female players' preference of male coaches has low scores (m = 36.97, SD = 28.89, range = 0-100). Thus, female student-athletes do not prefer male coaches. Female student-athlete's perceptions of female coaches and administrators as role models was positive and high, (M = 62.48, SD =31.70). Female student athletes also identified with current female coaches and administrators, (M =61.31, SD = 31.70).

The areas of perceived hindrance selected for this study have been identified as areas that previously prevented females from pursuing a career in athletic leadership. Although the participants in this study did not perceive these areas as a having a very high degree of hindrance to their career path, there were some areas that are still notable and need improvement. The perception of a lack of support from superiors and female coaches being treated unfairly were above 50%, (M =51.74, SD =27.27) and (M = 50.17, SD =28.22) respectively as seen in Table 4.8.

Table 4.11

Mean and Standard Deviation of Perceived Hindrance

	N	M	SD
Lack of support from superiors	74	51.74	27.27
Female coaches are treated unfairly	75	50.17	28.22
Lack of training for female Administrators	74	48.85	28.95
Lack of training programs for female coaches	74	46.95	27.71
Lack of support system	75	42.95	27.30
Female coaches are discriminated against	74	42.16	28.67
Male coaches do not accept female coached	74	40.59	29.47
Biases of old boys' network	73	37.38	27.76
Female players prefer male coaches	74	36.97	28.89
Lack of role models for female administrators	74	33.80	28.13
Lack of role models for female coaches	74	32.22	26.86

Perception of homosexuality among female coaches	73	27.55	27.72
Female coaches perceived to be unattractive	74	25.81	25.78
Perception of female coaches as unfeminine	73	24.07	26.41

*Notes. *If student did not answer a question, they were excluded from the analysis and considered missing data.*

Table 4.12

Mean and Standard Deviation for Female preference for Male Coaches N =75

	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD
Female players prefer male coaches	0	100	36.97	28.89

Research Question 2: Is there an interaction between female college athletes' exposure to role models, mentors, coaches and administrators and their decision to pursue a career in collegiate sports leadership, and is it statistically significant?

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted using Wilks' Lambda to examine if year in school, captain, number of female coaches, and role model affected occupational valence, perceived hindrance, and desire to coach. There was a significant main effect of the number of female coaches on the combined dependent variables (i.e., occupational valence, perceived hindrance, and desire to coach), $F(21, 32) = 2.46$, $p = .01$, Wilks' $\Lambda = 0.06$, partial $\eta^2 = .601$. There was a significant main effect of role model influence on the combined dependent variables (i.e., occupational valence, perceived hindrance, and desire to coach), $F(6, 22) = 6.69$, $p < .01$, Wilks' $\Lambda = 0.12$, partial $\eta^2 = .64$.

Table 4.13

Interaction Between Variables and Desire to Coach

Variables	Value	*F*	Hypothesis df	Error df	*p*	partial η2
Intercept	0.03	118.11[b]	3	11	0.00	0.97
Year	0.30	1.89	9	27	0.10	0.33
Captain	0.81	.85[b]	3	11	0.50	0.19
Number of Female Coaches	0.06	2.46	21	32	0.01	0.60
Role Model	0.13	6.69[b]	6	22	0.00	0.65
Year/ Captain	1.00	.[b]	0	12	.	.
Year / Number of Female Coaches	0.19	1.69	15	31	0.11	0.43
Year/ Role Model	0.69	.75[b]	6	22	0.62	0.17
Captain / Number of Female Coaches	0.60	2.42[b]	3	11	0.12	0.40
Captain / Role Model	1.00	.[b]	0	12	.	.
Number of Female Coaches/ Role Model	0.49	1.03	9	27	0.44	0.21
Year/Captain/ Number of Female Coaches	1.00	.[b]	0	12	.	.
Year/Captain/Role Model	1.00	.[b]	0	12	.	.
Year/Number of Female Coaches/ Role Model	1.00	.[b]	0	12	.	.
Captain/Number of Female Coaches / Role Model	1.00	.[b]	0	12	.	.

Year/Captain/ Number of Female Coaches/ Role Model	1.00	.[b]	0	12	.	.

Note: b. Exact statistic was developed to provide more accurate results by eliminating procedures based on asymptotic and approximate statistical methods. c. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

In this study, where there are significant main effects, the results were followed up by interpreting the univariate main effects (i.e., the main effects for each dependent variable separately). There was a significant main effect of number of female coaches on desire to coach, $F(7, 13) = 5.77$, $p = .003$, partial $\eta^2 = .75$, but not on occupational valence $F(7, 13) = 2.43$, $p = 0.079$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.56$, and perceived hindrance $F(7, 13) = 1.14$, $p = 0.39$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.38$. There was a significant main effect of role model influence on occupational valence, $F(2, 13) = 21.63$, $p = 0.000$, partial $\eta^2 = .76$, but not on desire to coach $F(2, 13) = 3.47$, $p = .06$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.34$, and perceived hindrance $F(2, 13) = 1.41$, $p = 0.27$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.17$.

A path analysis was performed by using two models (See figure 4.1). Models 2 (i.e., the trimmed model) is nested within Model 1 (i.e., the full model) as follows: In Model 2, the path between year and captain was fixed to zero because it was not significant in the full model (Model 1). The fit of the full model (i.e., Model 1) was satisfactory: χ^2/df ratio = 1.59 (i.e., < 3.00), CFI = 0.91 (i.e., > .90), SRMR = 0.07 (i.e., < .08). The researcher tested Model 2 to see whether it might provide a better fit to the data than did Model 1 (the full model).

Model 2 best fit the data: χ^2/df ratio=1.51 (i.e., under 3.00), CFI=0.91 (i.e., > .90), RMSEA = 0.08 (i.e., =.08), SRMR=0.07 (i.e., < .08). The model with the lowest AIC is preferred (Kline, 1998). Thus, model 2 with the lowest AIC was chosen as the best model of all the models.

Table 4.14

Fit Indices for Path Analysis

Model	χ2	df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR	AIC	BIC
Model 1	19.06	12	0.91	0.8	0.09	0.07	2970.19	3032.03
Model 2	19.69	13	0.91	0.82	0.08	0.07	2968.82	3028.38

Notes. Models 2 is nested within Model 1. CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = NNFI = non-normed fit index; RMSEA = root-mean-square error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root mean-square residual; AIC = Akaike information criterion; BIC = Bayesian information criterion

Age (β = -1.28, p > 0.05), year in school (β = -1.30, p > 0.05), race (β = -1.01, p > 0.05), and captain (β = -8.13, p > 0.05) do not affect role model influence (Figure 1). Age (β = 0.59, p > 0.05), year in school (β = 2.16, p > 0.05), race (β =- 1.94, p > 0.05), and captain (β = -0.29, p > 0.05) do not affect perceived hindrances. Role model influence (β = 0.09, p > 0.05), and perceived hindrances (β = 0.02, p > 0.05) do not affect self-efficacy. Self-efficacy (β = 0.52, p < 0.05) significantly affects occupational valence. The trimmed full model accounted for 27% of the variance in occupational valence (R^2 = 27) (Figure 4.1).

Table 4.15

Regression Analysis Effect on Occupational Valence

Predictor	b	Beta	Fit
(Intercept)	7.77		
Year	1.21	0.06	
Captain	0.04	0	
Number of female coaches	1.47	0.14	
Role Model Influence	.29*	0.46	R^2=0.24

Notes. * p<0.01. a. Dependent Variable: Transformed variable – Occupational Valence

Table 4.16

Regression Analysis Effect on Perceived Hindrance

Predictor	b	Beta	Fit
(Intercept)	13.37		

Year	3.89	0.25	
Captain	5.08	0.12	
Number of female coaches	-0.42	-0.04	
Role Model Influence	.19**	0.34	R^2=0.18

Notes. * p<0.05. a. Dependent Variable: Perceived Hindrance

Table 4.17

Regression Analysis Effect on Desire to Coach

Predictor	b	Beta	Fit
(Intercept)	2.46		
Year	-4.74	.20	
Captain	25.73*	0.42	
Number of female coaches	0.31	0.02	
Role Model Influence	0.11	0.13	R^2=0.15

Notes. * p<0.01. a. Dependent Variable: Desire to Coach

Table 4.18

Change Strategies

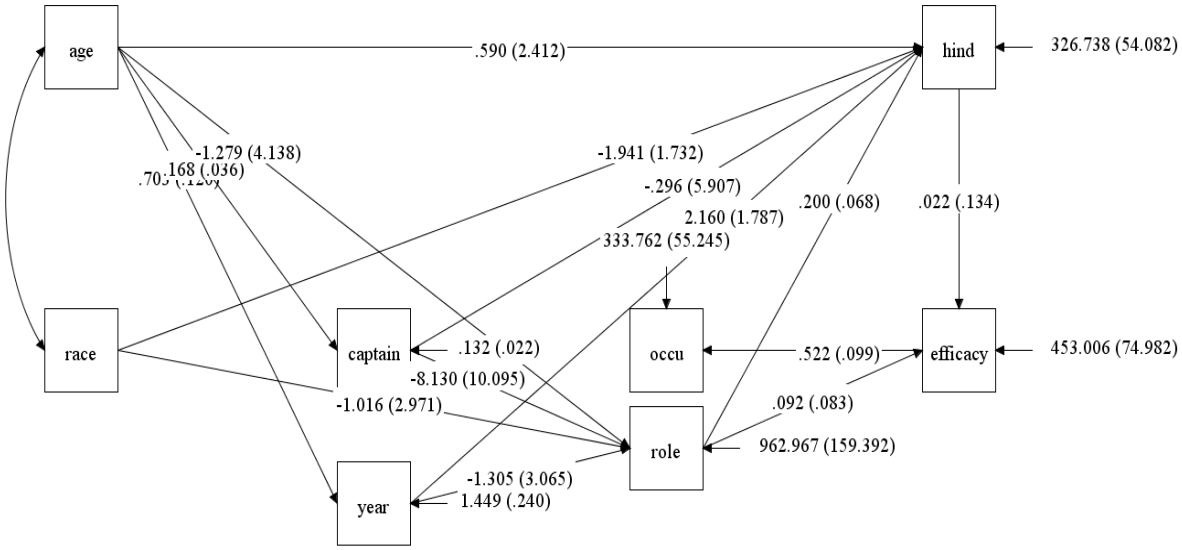
	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Change strategies	4.04	0.86										
2. Coach HS	44.73	28.76	.26*									
3. Coach JC	33.54	27.92	.24*	.68**								
4. Coach DIII	38.57	34.65	.22	.59**	.78**							
5. Coach D II	34.73	34.00	.27*	.58**	.72**	.92**						
6. Coach DI	32.36	32.46	.41**	.49**	.60**	.81**	.88**					
7. AD HS	28.50	30.99	.38**	.67**	.66**	.63**	.68**	.64**				
8. AD JC	23.40	28.30	.35**	.62**	.68**	.64**	.68**	.61**	.90**			
9. AD DIII	30.66	32.86	.29*	.55**	.71**	.74**	.74**	.678**	.83**	.85**		
10. AD DII	29.29	32.40	.35**	.54**	.64**	.67**	.72**	.68**	.81**	.81**	.95**	

11. AD DI	29.58	32.77	.26*	.41**	.57**	.61**	.68**	.61**	.68**	.71**	.88**	.89**

*Indicates p < 0.05, ** Indicates p < 0.01.

Figure 4.1

Path Analysis for Interaction Between Age, Race, Captain, Year, Self-efficacy, Hindrance Occupational Valence, and Role Models.



*Note: hind=perceived hindrance, efficacy=self-efficacy, role=role model influence, occu= occupational career valence

A correlation analysis was performed to measure the relationship between the continuous variables. Age $r(73) = -1.23$, $p > 0.05$) and year in school ($\beta = -.12$, $p > 0.05$) are not correlated with role model influence. Age $r(73) = 0.11$, $p > 0.05$) and year in school ($\beta=0.14$, $p > 0.05$) are not correlated with perceived hindrances. Role model influence $r(73) = 0.14$, $p > 0.05$), and perceived hindrances ($\beta= 0.06$, $p > 0.05$) are not correlated with self-efficacy. Self-efficacy $r(73) = 0.52$, $p < 0.05$) is significantly correlated with occupational valence. Role model influence significantly and positively affected perceived hindrance ($\beta=.34$, $p<0.05$). The model accounted

for 18% of the variance. Those who identified as captain were significantly and positively affected desire to coach (β=.42, p<0.01). The model accounted for 15% of the variance.

Self-efficacy and occupational valence are two areas that can determine if an individual chooses and persists in an occupation. Self-efficacy is the ability to see oneself succeeding at the tasks associated with the occupation. Occupational valence is the ability to see the tasks associated with the occupation as desirable. The study shows that self-efficacy and role model influence have a positive effect on occupational valence. The number of female coaches has a significant effect on desire to coach. An increased number of female coaches and administrators can increase the number of opportunities for female role model influence, thereby, improving occupational valence.

Table 4.19

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations of Subscales

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Age	19.81	1.18	1	.56**	-.12	.11	-.08	-.19
2. Year			.56**	1	-.12	.14	.05	-.14
3. Role Model Influence	62.48	31.70	-.12	-.12	1	.30**	.14	.31**
4. Perceived Hindrance	38.94	18.84	.11	.14	.30**	1	.06	.17
5.Self-Efficacy	63.69	16.77	-.08	.05	.14	.06	1	.52**
6. Occupational Valence	74.79	16.16	-.19	-.14	.31**	.17	.52**	1

Note: *p < 0.01, **p<0.05. N =73

Research Question 3. Do female college athletes identify with the females in current collegiate sports leadership positions as examples for future career path success?

Descriptive statistics were performed to examine the research question. Participants were asked to focus on coaching and athletic administration on the collegiate level when responding to

the questions. Female college athletes' response to "lack of identification with the females in current collegiate sports leadership positions as examples for future career path success" resulted in low scores (M = 31.84, SD = 32.69) and the identification with females in current collegiate sports leadership positions had high scores (M =61.31, SD =31.70). Thus, female college athletes are likely to identify with the females in current collegiate sports leadership positions as examples for future career path success. Role model influence was also positive (M =62.48, SD =31.70).

Although female athletes identified with females in current leadership positions, it did not increase their desire to pursue a position in collegiate sports leadership. An examination of the area: "identifying with current female collegiate sports leaders," does not appear to establish a strong influence on career choice as an individual factor. When combining the factor, "identifying with current female collegiate sports leaders" with other factors such as self-efficacy and occupational valence, there is more of an impact on choosing collegiate sports leadership as a career path.

Table 4.20

Role Model Subscale

	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD
There is no female I am trying to be like in my academic and career pursuits	0	100	31.84	32.69
There is someone I am trying to be like in my academic career pursuits	0	100	61.31	31.70
In the academic or career path I am pursuing, there is someone I admire	0	100	61.65	33.68

Table 4.21

Mean and Standard Deviation for Desire to Coach

Level	N	M	SD
Coach HS	74	44.73	28.758
Coach DIII	74	38.57	34.645

Coach D II	74	34.73	33.999
Coach JC	74	33.54	27.921
Coach DI	72	32.36	32.463
AD DIII	73	30.66	32.86
AD DI	72	29.58	32.771
AD DII	73	29.29	32.401
AD HS	74	28.5	30.986
AD JC	73	23.4	28.302

*Notes. *If student did not answer a question, they were excluded from the analysis and considered missing data.*

Summary

The athletes in this study had a low overall desire to coach across all levels, (M =32.51, SD = 27.45). Their perception of female coaches and administrators as role models was positive, (M = 62.48, SD =31.70). The inference that can be drawn is that with the limited opportunities to see and interact with females in leadership positions, that interaction is mostly positive.

Female college athletes are likely to identify with the females in current collegiate sports leadership positions as examples for future career path success (M= 61.31, SD = 31.70). Self-efficacy ($\beta = 0.52$, $p < 0.05$) significantly affects career valence. Individually, self-efficacy, perceived hindrance, role model influence, occupational valence did not have a significant effect on desire to coach. Number of female coaches and being a captain were the variables that had the main effect on desire to coach, $F(7, 13) = 5.77$, $p = .003$, partial $\eta^2 = .75$ and (β=.42, $p<0.01$). The model accounted for 15% of the variance. Role model influence did not have a significant effect on self-efficacy but, self-efficacy had a significant effect on occupational valence. Although, not all female-student athletes have been directly mentored or coached by female coaches or administrators, they prefer their guidance.

Overall perceived hindrance scored low (M = 38.94, SD = 18.84). There was a significant main effect of the number of female coaches on the combined dependent variables (i.e.,

occupational valence, perceived hindrance, and desire to coach), $F(21, 32.13) = 2.46$, $p = .010$, Wilks' $\Lambda = 0.06$, partial $\eta^2 = .601$. Upon further analysis of the individual dependent variables, the effect of number of female coaches on occupational valence was non-significant, $F(7, 13) = 2.43$, $p = 0.079$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.56$. There was a significant main effect of role model influence on the combined dependent variables (i.e., occupational valence, perceived hindrance, and desire to coach), $F(6, 22) = 6.69$, $p = .00$, Wilks' $\Lambda = 0.12$, partial $\eta^2 = .64$. When the combined dependent variables were separated and analyzed individually, it was discovered that role model influence did not have a significant effect on occupational valence or desire to coach.

Similar to Bower (2009) female student-athletes in this study indicated that conflicts with family commitments and a lack of support from superiors were their top factors of perceived hindrance in the path to a career in collegiate sports leadership, ($M = 52.16$, $SD = 24.97$) and ($M = 51.74$, $SD = 27.27$). Although the female student-athletes were concerned with the conflicts with family commitments that the job presents, they were not as concerned with the unfavorable working hours as a hindrance, ($M = 37.07$, $SD = 26.26$).

The study focused on the female college student athlete's perspective and not the administrative perspective or actions. The majority of female student-athletes are coached by male coaches (60%) but according to the study, they do not prefer male coaches ($M = 36.97$, $SD = 28.89$). They have a stronger preference for female coaches. They also admire the females that are in their academic or career field ($M = 61.65$, $SD = 33.68$). One assumption would be that males hold a majority of the positions because that is the preference of female athletes. The study does not bear those results. The study does show however, a lack of desire to hold future positions of leadership by current female athletes.

Self-efficacy and occupational valence are the two factors that determine if a person chooses or persists in an occupation. Self-efficacy, as a factor, may have the most impact on desire to hold a leadership position in college athletics. The study was able to discover that when asked "could you change strategies if needed", the answer was overwhelmingly no ($M = 4.04$, $SD = .86$). An inherent part of sports leadership is the ability to change strategy. Self-efficacy had a significant effect on occupational valence. The participants appeared to place a high value on the ability to change strategy. The results point to a need to not only increase the number of female college sports leaders that female students have the opportunity to interact with, but also intentionally giving them the opportunity to develop their ability to change from a strategy that doesn't work.

CHAPTER 5 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This study was conducted to address the underrepresentation of females in collegiate sports leadership positions. It examined factors that may impact female collegiate student-athlete's desire to coach or become an athletic administrator. While the participation rates for female athletes have continued to improve, collegiate leadership career opportunities have been stagnant. The Social Cognitive Career Theory was applied to examine how the desire to coach or administrate is impacted by self-efficacy, occupational valence, perceived hindrance, and role model influence. Sixty percent of collegiate women's sports are coached by men and 80% of athletic directors are male. The study examined whether respondents showed preferences for males in leadership positions. Women coach less than half, (40.2%) of women's sports and women account for 19.6% percent of administrators in college athletic departments. The study examined the perceptions female student athletes have of the few females in current leadership positions. Hypothetically, the results of this study will support and enhance the NCAA college sports model by revealing quantitative data that provide a foundation for understanding the problems and identifying key factors important to the leadership development of female student-athletes. This knowledge will be helpful in developing new strategies and supporting existing strategies to improve the representation of females in collegiate leadership positions.

The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, MANOVAs, and path analysis to answer the three research questions. What gender of athletic leadership (coaches and administrators) do female athletes prefer? Is there an interaction between female college athletes' exposure to role models, mentors, coaches and administrators and their decision to pursue a career in collegiate sports leadership, and is it statistically significant? Do female college athletes identify

with the females in current collegiate sports leadership positions as examples for future career path success? The data was tested for the existence of multicollinearity. The statistical analysis provided some correlations that allows the researcher to draw some positive conclusions for growth in the area of women's athletics, particularly in the area of self-efficacy and the ability to change strategy.

Interpretation of the Findings

The study's finding is that collegiate female student-athletes had a high perception of female coaches and female administrators and a preference for female coaches. Female collegiate student-athletes are likely to identify with the females in current collegiate sports leadership positions as examples for future career path success (M = 62.48, SD =31.70) and occupational career valence is significantly affected by self-efficacy. There was also a significant main effect of role model influence on occupational valence.

Female student-athletes' mean scores were high for self-efficacy, occupational valence, and role model influence. Those positive influences did not result in a high desire to coach or become an administrator. The two factors having a significant impact on desire to coach or be an administrator were: 1) the number of female coaches during the respondent's playing experience and 2) being a team captain. When examining their high school and college playing experience, the study showed that 11% of the female athletes did not have a female coach and only 5% of the female athletes did not have a male coach. In women's college athletic programs, 60% are coached by males.

The study found that female athletes perceived the most hindrance to their desire to coach or become an administrator was "conflict with family commitments", (M = 52.16, SD =24.97). The other key factors to hindrance were perceived "lack of support from superiors", (M = 51.74,

SD = 27.27); “female coaches are treated unfairly”, (M = 50.17, SD =21.22) and a “lack of training for female administrators”, (M = 48.85, SD = 28.95). On the other hand, “unfavorable working hours”, (M =37.07, SD =26.26); a “lack of role models for female administrators”, (M = 33.80, SD = 26.13); a “lack of role models for female coaches”, (M = 32.22, SD = 26.86); and “having to do lot of travel”, (M =32.16, SD = 24.81) were perceived as less of a hindrance.

The Self-efficacy subscale presented information on how female student-athletes perceived their level of confidence in their ability to perform tasks associated with coaching and administrative duties. The categories of “making intelligent choices”, (M =78.65, SD =22.04) and “identifying individuals or groups who could help their program”, (M = 74.26, SD = .86) were the strongest factors. The athletes had the least confidence in their ability to “change strategies if those strategies do not work”, (M =4.04, SD = .86). A correlation analysis was performed to measure the relationship between the variables of “change strategies” and desire to coach/administrate. There was a correlation between the ability to change strategies and coaching or being an administrator across all levels from high school to Division I four-year colleges. The results showed the strongest correlation between ability to change strategies and desire to coach at Division I, $r(72) = .41$, $p < .01$ and desire to be an athletic director at a junior college, $r(73) = .35$, $p < .01$. Self-efficacy is affected by personal success and failures with specific tasks and social reinforcement (Lent, Brown, Hackett, 2002). Since the athletes in this study view the specific task of “changing strategies” as a task that they are incapable of being successful doing, it is a barrier to choosing a career in collegiate sports leadership. The participants in the study were NCAA Division III athletes. Prior to 2020, based on NCAA rules, Division III athletes have not had preseason and post season team leadership development opportunities. NCAA legislation has changed allowing for leadership development outside of the playing season. This may allow for

female athletes to have the opportunity to develop skills that will allow them to be more confident in changing strategy.

Bower (2009) identified; a lack of training and career development; balancing work and family; a need to prove themselves; and the lack of mentors as barriers to career advancement. Massengale and Lough (2010) cited a lack of support systems and Lent et al (1994) cited role modeling as barriers to career advancement. This study supported most of those findings but did not find the lack of mentors as a barrier. The female student athletes in this study identified conflicts with family commitments as the greatest hindrance to choosing a career in collegiate sports leadership.

Same gender role modeling is essential as it presents an opportunity for female athletic leaders to instill confidence in female athletes and influence their career choices (Massengale and Lough 2010). The study found that female college athletes are likely to identify with the females in current collegiate sports leadership positions as mentors. This is a change from previous studies (Bower 2009, Massengale and Lough (2010). There is a positive shifting of the perception of females in collegiate sports leadership by female student-athletes. Perceptions are influenced by education, cultural cues, and experiences. External factors such as visibility and accessibility of females in collegiate leadership have increased through cultural and social changes. The increase is not due to an increase in the number of female staff members in athletic departments. The increase is due to an increase in visible coverage of females through media and social media. Female athletes have a physical access to women in leadership in athletic department and virtual access to other female leaders through social media and media. Television coverage of successful positive female athletes in college and professional sports influence how females are viewed. It is an opportunity for college athletes to see themselves in those televised images. Social media has

given female athletes the ability to be notified in real time about the about the events involving women in sports.

When examining occupational valence, self-efficacy, and role model influence, the athletes were confident in their ability and positive about their role models. Athletes were certain that they could successfully complete the task and that the duties associated with the career were desirable. Consistent with these findings, perceived hindrance was low. With the positive results of these findings, the expectation would be a high desire to coach. Contrary to expectations, the category of desire to coach/administrate did not result in positive findings (M =32.51, SD = 27.45). The effect of occupational valence, self-efficacy, and role model influence on desire to coach/administrate, was non-significant. These data, alone, do not give the complete picture or explain what contributed to this result. An examination of the responses in the subscales provided some information that would account for some of the discrepancy. One area that stands out as a contributing factor in the discrepancy is in the self-efficacy scale; "ability to change strategy if the strategy doesn't work". The responses in this category were so low, that if it were excluded, the self-efficacy mean score would be considerably higher. I view it as a hidden deterrent to desire to coach. The participants did not have confidence that they could change strategies if the original strategy did not work (M = 4.04). The value they place on this skill and its importance to the job serves as a deterrent to choosing athletic leadership as a career path.

Limitations of the Study

The study is focused on Division III female student-athletes and does not include female student-athletes from Division I and Division II institutions. Division I and Division II institutions provide athletes with partial and full scholarships and are provided the opportunity to develop leadership skills in the off season. The female athletes who attend Division I and Division II

institutions may have placed a different emphasis on the role athletics play in their lives. The study also does not include male student-athletes. The male perspective may serve to support or contradict that of the females in the study. The study does not account for the impact of the evolving promotion and visibility of female athletes in professional sports on the decision-making process. The research may show a statistical correlation but is not a longitudinal study which may determine if the variables studied are causal.

Due to the timing of the distribution of the survey, the response rate was affected by the winter break for many institutions. Also, the shelter at home mandate presented challenges to the response rate, resulting in 75 out of a possible 2000 respondents. Many institutions furloughed staff and some institutions were closed. The low response rate affects how the researcher interprets the findings. The findings are based on the study and not generalized over the entire populations. Although, it may have broader implications.

Recommendations

Female student-athletes are positively impacted by female role models in athletic administration and coaching. Conversely, 60% of female sports programs are coached by males and 80% of athletic directors are male. Progress for the representation of women in leadership positions in collegiate athletics has been slow and is far from the 90% prior to Title IX. The factors that impact the underrepresentation of women have been evolving. As a result of Title IX, the funding for women's athletic programs has increased. The increased funding has attracted the interest of males to lead women's programs. The budgets have increased and the salaries have gone from being voluntary prior to Title IX to the highest paid coach receiving 2.6 million dollars. Often for convenience, the assistant coach from men's athletic programs is given the head coaching position of a women's program.

The findings of this study show that female college athletes perceive women in collegiate leadership positions as positive role models. They also perceive that they have the self-efficacy to be successful. They view the duties assigned to the careers as desirable. They no longer view the past perceived hindrances as strong deterrents. The area that stood out in the study is their lack of confidence in their ability to change strategy when needed. Developing, implementing, and changing strategy are learned skills.

The NCAA, Women Leaders in College Sports (WLCS), and WeCoach provide leadership training and development programs. The NCAA provides free leadership programs for student athletes such as; the Career in Sports Forum, the Student-Athlete Leadership Forum, and the NCAA Postgraduate Internship Program. The Career in Sports Forum is an educational forum hosted by the NCAA to help student-athletes explore potential careers primarily in college athletics, (NCAA, n.d). Only 200 student athletes are selected to attend this forum annually. The Student-Athlete Leadership forum provides leadership skills for personal, professional and athletic development. These programs are open to both men and women. The NCAA Postgraduate Internship Program focuses on women and ethnic minorities. College graduates are given the opportunity to learn on the job experiences at the NCAA national office in Indianapolis, Indiana. WeCoach is an organization for women coaches. They provide coaching academies and mentor programs at a cost. Women Leaders in College Sports (WLCS) provides leadership development programs for females from high school through professional careers. These programs are also at a cost with some scholarships available. These NCAA, WLCS, and WeCoach are organizations that can help change the dynamic and trend of women in collegiate sports leadership.

Based on the responses of the female student-athletes in the study, they are not aware of the available programs. Lack of training programs for coaches and administrators was perceived

as a hindrance. Without having done the research myself, I would not know that these opportunities exist.

There needs to be an intentional improvement in the promotion of leadership programs by college administrators and coaches so that female student-athletes are better informed. The existing programs serve a very limited number of female athletes each year. There needs to be an increase in the number of free programs targeting female student-athletes. Lack of affordability can be a deterrent to low income and minority students. This might be best solved by providing institutional programs on member campuses. Women Leaders in College Sports direct a high school girls leadership academy in Kansas City, Missouri. This program is limited to only Kansas City residents, but I believe it can be a model for female leadership growth nationally because, it starts at the high school level. The level of confidence displayed by the female student-athletes in this study signify a trend toward leadership. They perceive current women in leadership positions as favorable but do not perceive them as being supported or having training opportunities. Educating the female-student athletes on the opportunities available is an obvious and easy step to take for administrators and coaches.

A more difficult item that needs to be addressed is the perception of a lack of support from superiors. Improving this perception can also be a part of the education process. Without education, perception can become reality. If there are policies and programs in place of which athletes are not aware, educating them would solve this problem. If appropriate policies and programs are not in place or if lack of support in other areas (i.e., budgets, travel, staff) is being expressed, then, more than educating the student-athlete will be required. Clearly, the education of the executive staff (i.e., athletic administrators, presidents, and the president's executive staff) is highly recommended.

It is important that women in leadership positions in collegiate athletics are supported. They are the examples that student-athletes see and draw inferences from. With women representing just 24% of coaches and 19.6% of athletic directors in athletic departments, support has to be intentional and visible. Female athletes are not seeing the support for women in leadership positions. Historically, sports were male dominated activities. Coaching and directing programs were an extension of playing and a succession program for administration. Since the enactment of Title IX, many departments are still based on a male sports model led by former male coaches or businessmen. That model makes it difficult to reimagine the structure and design of athletic departments to organically include and promote women. There is a natural development of unstructured mentorship opportunities for men in athletic departments simply based on the number and variety of men in athletic departments. Relationships are developed and support is stronger because connection is natural and not forced. Mentors and mentees often seek out people similar to them and with whom they are comfortable. Female student-athletes don't see that type of relationship, mentorship or support for female coaches and administrators because there aren't enough women in athletic departments to allow those relationships to develop through natural selection. Women are left to benefit only from structured mentorship. Structured mentorship can be very helpful but is not as in-depth. To increase the interest in collegiate sports leadership as a career choice, female athletes need to see more women in the departments and see that they are effectively supported. Women have to be in athletic departments or in leadership positions in larger numbers, to allow the development of an unstructured mentorship culture.

A longitudinal study containing a population of female athletes from high school freshmen through seniors in college could give a better picture of the leadership trends. Examine if there is a correlation between high school captains, college captains and their desire to become coaches or

administrators. Also, include Division I and Division II female athletes in the study to examine if NCAA Division of play has an effect on females' perceptions regarding collegiate sports leadership positions as examples for future career path success.

Implications

Understanding what female athletes identify as critical to their decision-making process when choosing a career, will help in the designing and development of programs for females pursuing leadership positions. Increasing the number of women in leadership positions will add to the diversity in athletic departments. Diversity tends to bring different perspectives, increased collaboration, creativity, and mentoring opportunities. Women would be able to develop the structured and unstructured relationship culture enjoyed by the men in athletic departments. Women in leadership positions would be able to hire other women and develop succession programs. Now that women are playing in stable professional sports organizations, female athletes can aspire to coach and hold executive positions in both men's and women's professional sports. Potentially, collegiate sports can be the developing ground for athletes, coaches and administrators to develop leadership skills with several positive female role models to show them the way.

Conclusion

Change starts from the top down and the bottom up. Female athletes' perceptions are shifting. Everhart and Chelladurai (1998) stated that female athletes preferred male coaches and that female athletes that had male coaches were more likely to perceive discrimination as a barrier. The good news is that the perceived barriers appear to be changing. Although female athletes still see discrimination as a hindrance, many of the previously perceived hindrances have declined. They do not view the old boys network as a deterrent. Although they value the ability to participate in family commitments, they are not deterred by the potential work schedule. Helping others,

respect from others, and helping athletes achieve their potential are what they value most about a career in collegiate athletics.

Female athletes no longer prefer male coaches. Why their perceptions and preference for male coaches have changed was not a focus of the study. The study focused more on how they perceived females in coaching and administration and why. The study finds that they have a stronger preference for female coaches. They view female coaches and administrators as favorable leaders and mentors. I see this area as a critical change. If female athletes did not want to be coached by women in leadership positions, it would logically follow that they did not envision themselves in leadership positions. Wanting to be coached by women signals a change that female athletes are starting to envision themselves in leadership position and value the learning experiences that come with being coached and mentored by women. Although the study did not produce results with a high desire to coach, it did produce high self-efficacy and occupational valence. These are factors that can determine if a person chooses and persists in a career. There is also a positive connection between being a captain and desire to coach. Being a captain is a leadership position and athletes may connect their responsibility as captains with the duties of coaches and administrators. We have not seen a major increase of women in leadership positions in college athletics but, we have experienced an improvement in the perception of women on leadership positions in college sports. The increased visibility, coverage and accessibility of women in collegiate and professional sports through media and social media, may be a contributing factor to the improved perception of women in leadership positions.

The findings discovered a lack of self-efficacy in a critical aspect associated with careers in college athletics. The participants did not have confidence in their ability to change the strategies that do not work. The value that they place on this skill and its importance to the job

serves as a deterrent from choosing athletic leadership as a career path. The majority of participants of this study may not seek careers in collegiate sports leadership based on this lack of confidence, but they show a high propensity for being leaders in other fields.

The goal of the study was to identify factors that female athletes perceive are helpful or harmful in their decision-making process. There are some clear findings: female role models are positive and strategy skills need to be developed. If we want more female athletes to choose a career in collegiate sports leadership, we must intentionally educate them toward that choice. There already exists a culture for males to develop strategy skills and they are confident in implementing those skills. Athletic departments must provide young women with a variety of female role models in a variety of positions to allow for structured and unstructured mentoring. Just changing the decision process of female athletes will not result in improved representation of women in leadership positions. The other part of the equation is the hiring process. Institutions of higher education must be intentional in their commitment to unbiased succession planning, their search committee appointees and hiring processes. Athletic departments must move away from hiring from convenience. Too often, male assistants are hired to head women's programs or male head coaches are given positions as athletic directors without a hiring process. Also, fewer women may apply for positions. Fewer women in the pool does not equal less qualified female candidates. Being intentional means reaching out to some coaching organizations or search firms to increase the applicant pool. In the end, a male may be hired, but young women applicants will have been given a valuable opportunity to be part of the process. The process, if opened up, may benefit everyone.

APPENDIX A

Multicollinearity of Independent variables

	Collinearity Statistic	
	Tolerance	VIF
Captain	0.99	1.01
Number of female coaches	0.99	1.01
Role Model Influence	0.98	1.02

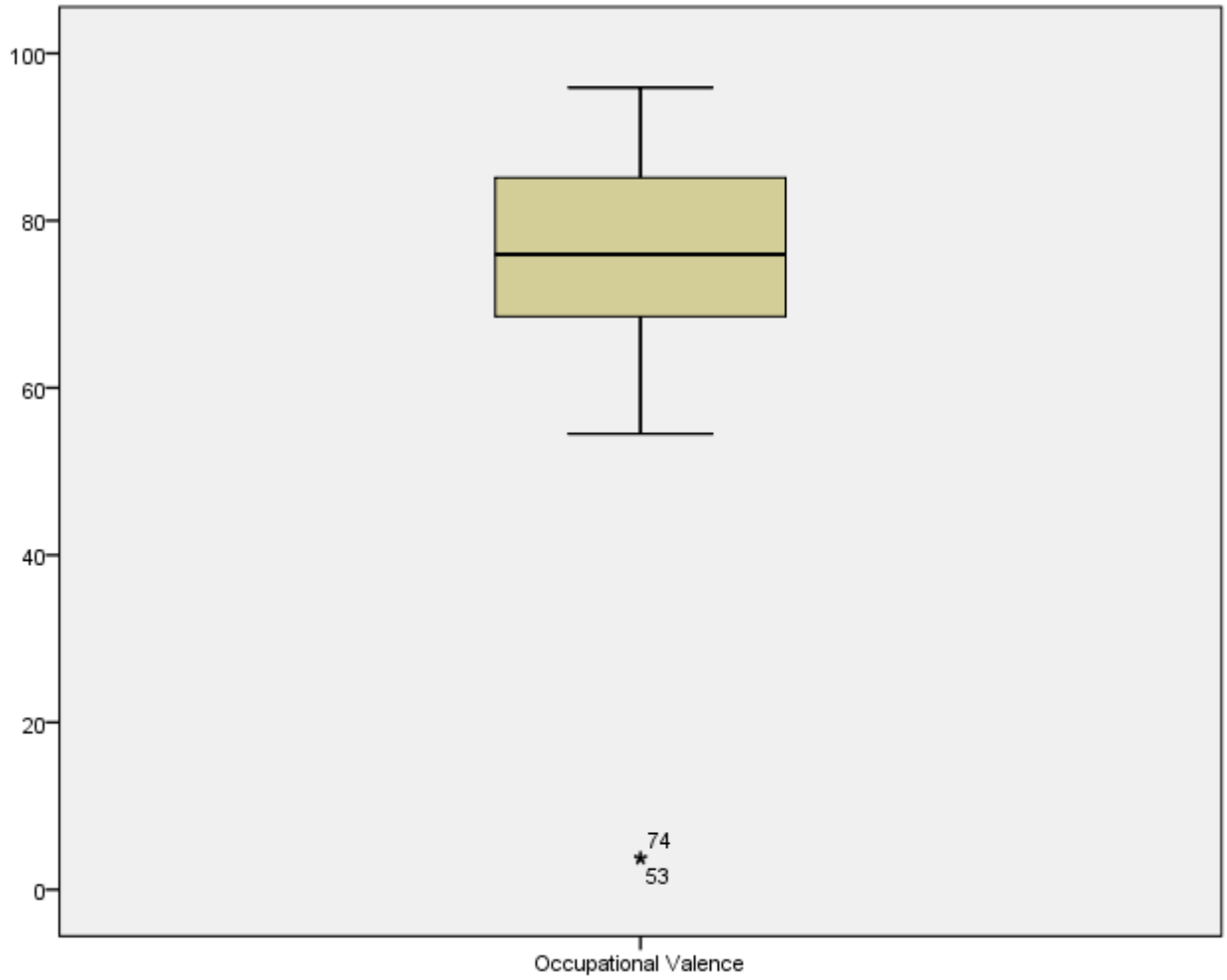
Note: *VIF=variation in Inflation*

Multicollinearity of Independent variables

	Occupational Valence	Perceived Hindrance	Desire to Coach
Occupational Valence	1		
Perceived Hindrance	.323** 0.006	1	
Desire to Coach	.315** 0.008	-0.078 0.523	1

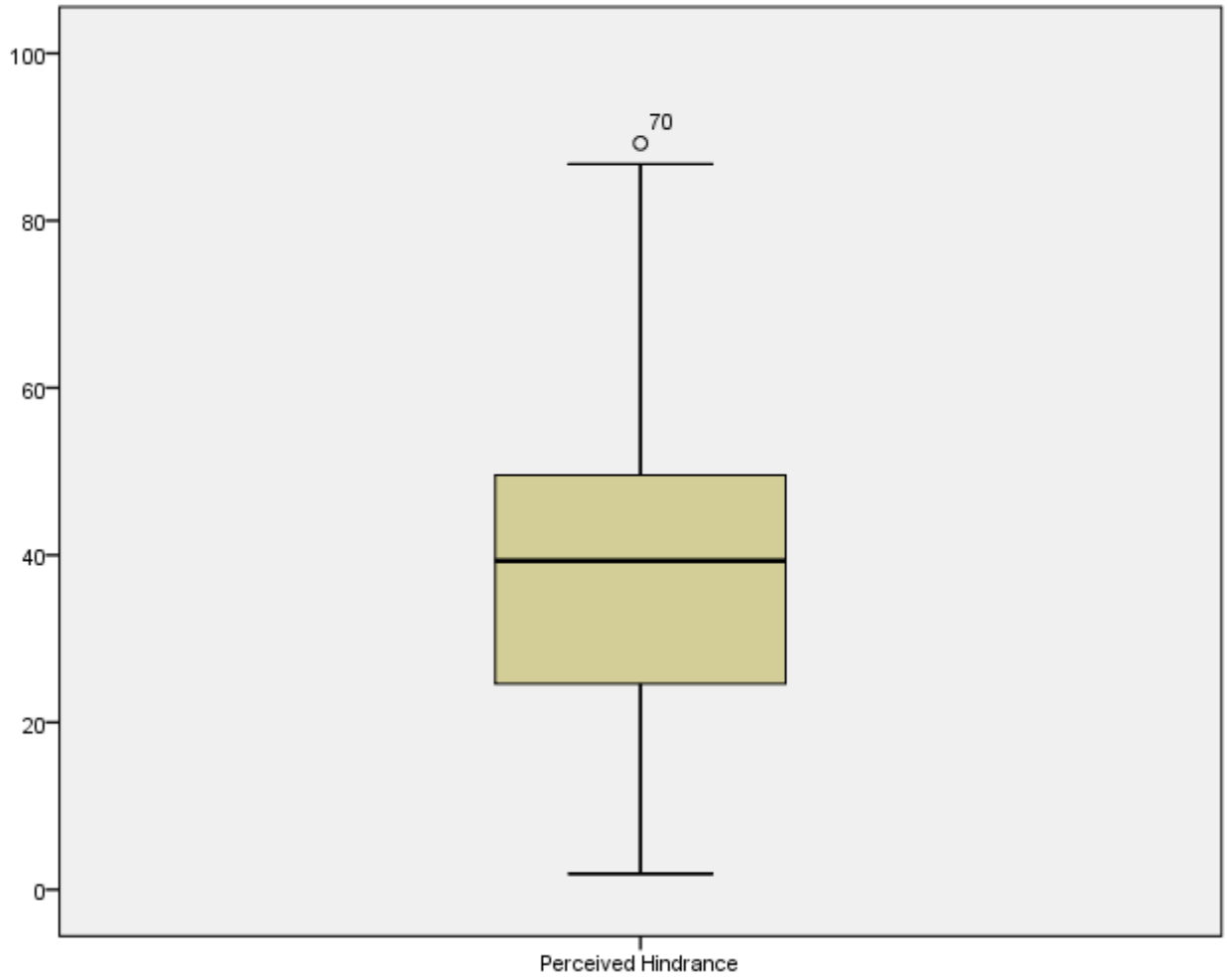
APPENDIX B

Outliers for Occupational Valance



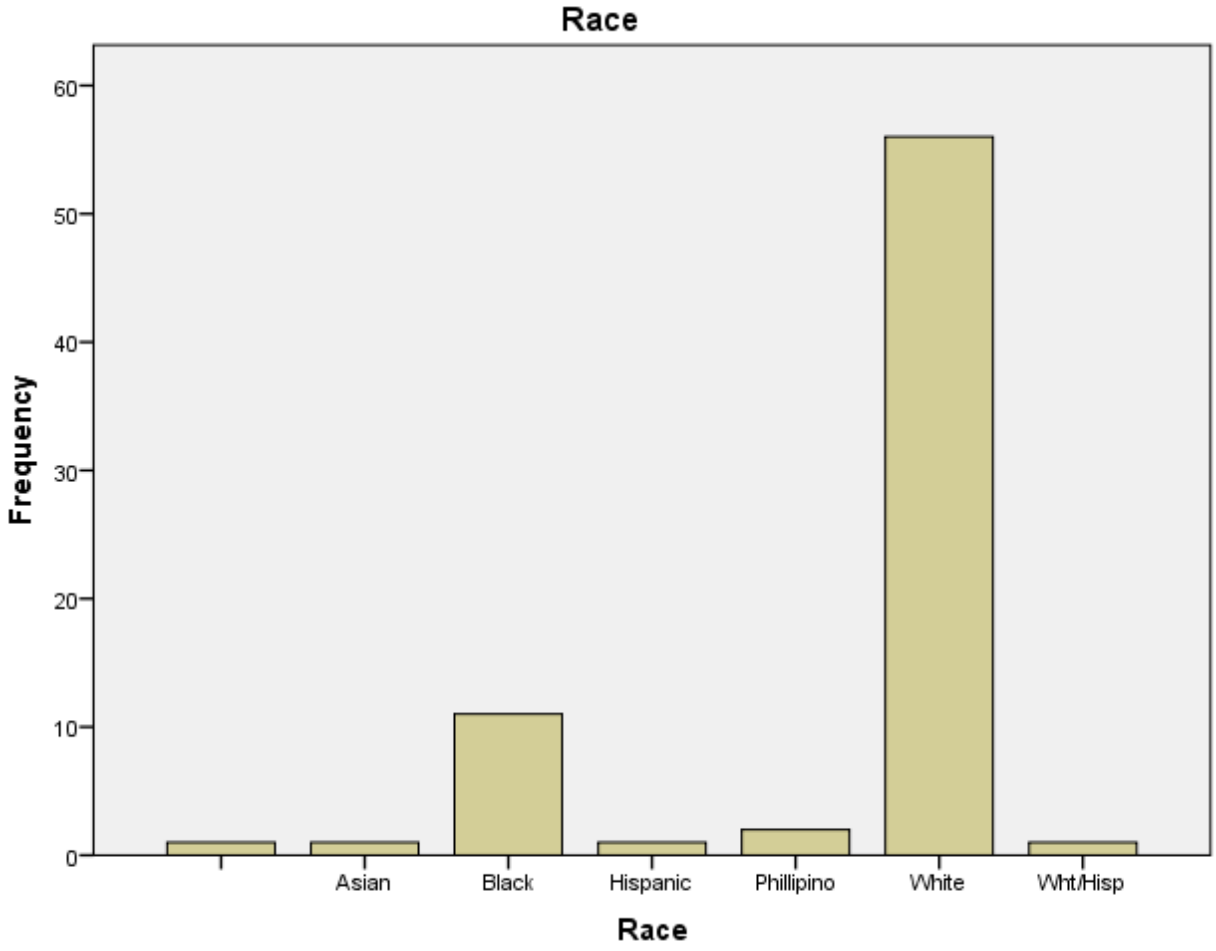
Note: *Outliers

Outliers for Perceived Hindrance

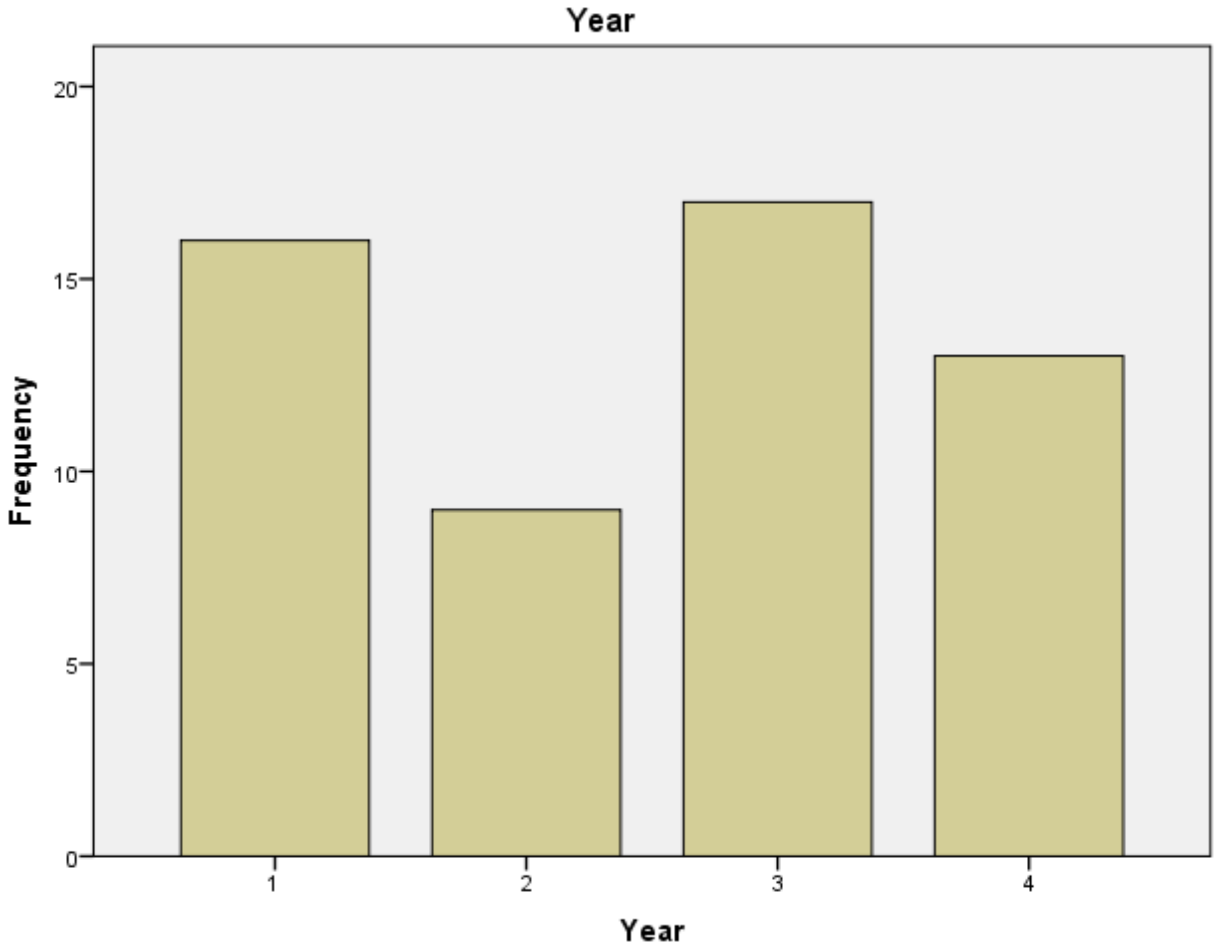


APPENDIX C

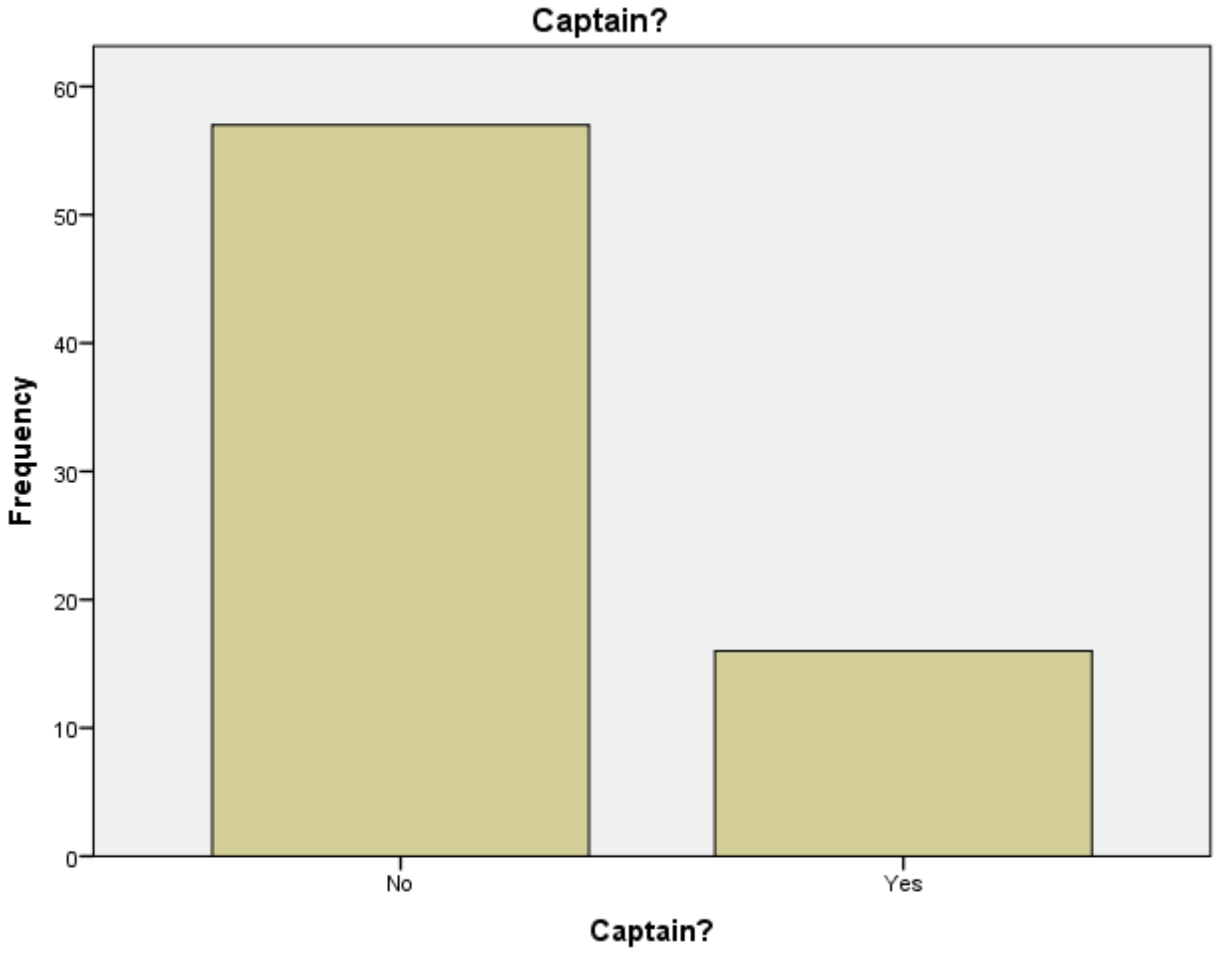
Race Frequency Bar Graph



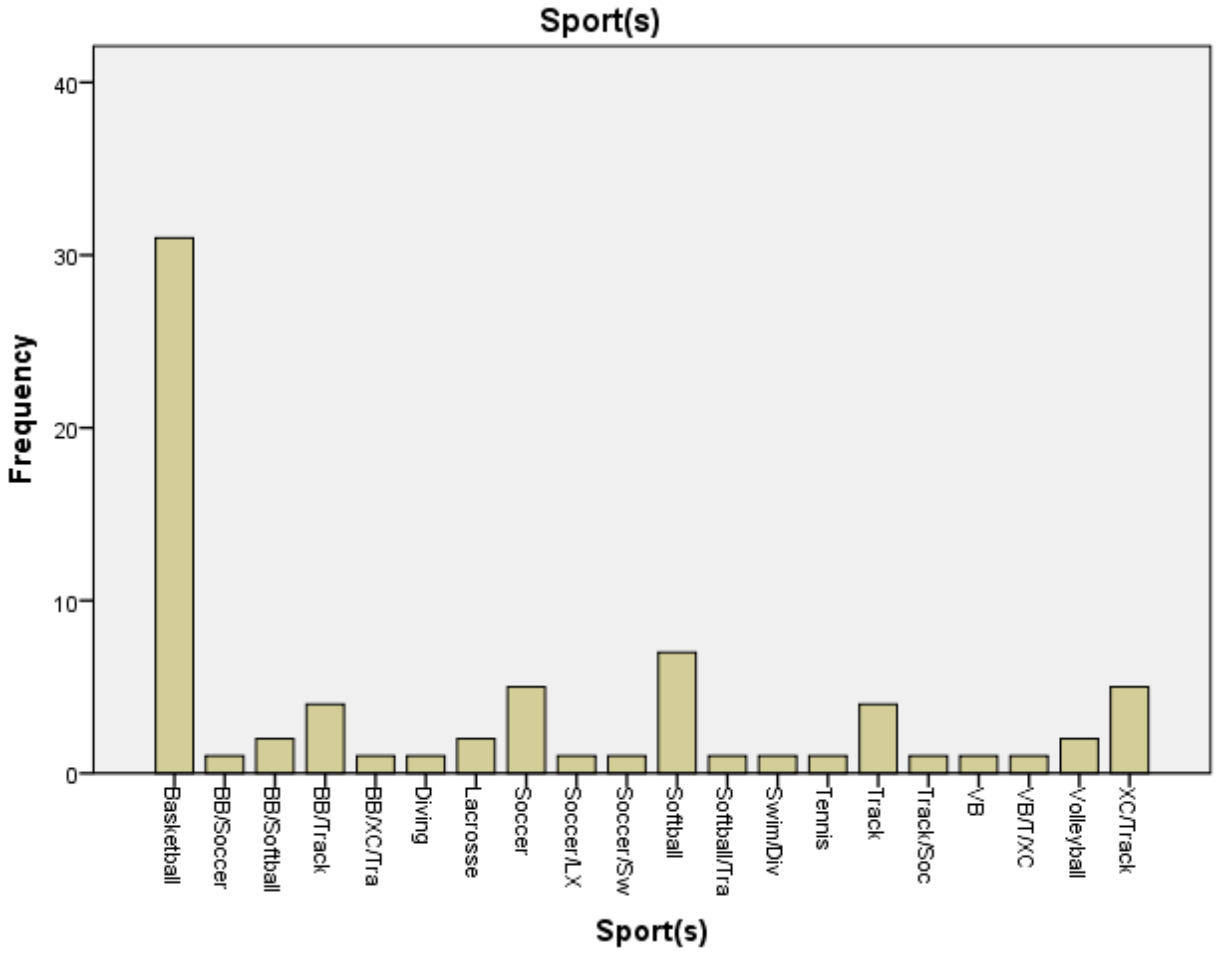
Frequency Bar Graph for Year in School



Frequency Bar Graph for Captain



Frequency Bar Graph for Sports



APPENDIX D

Self-Efficacy Mean and Standard Deviation

Question	N	M	SD
Make intelligent choices	75	78.65	22.04
Identify individuals/groups who could help program	74	74.26	0.86
Accurately assess the ability of your players	75	71.64	20.87
Be self-assured in dealing with problems	75	70.87	22.98
Select an effective staff	75	70.77	20.87
Determine your administrative strengths	75	69.40	24.07
Determine your coaching strengths	75	68.27	25.56
Change strategies if they do not work	75	4.04	0.86

Occupational Valence Mean

Question	N	M	SD
Helping others	73	94.37	8.85
Respect from others	70	93.31	8.80
Helping athletes attain their potential	71	90.68	14.06
Being honest	73	90.27	12.94
Personal growth and development	73	89.55	12.04
Overcoming odds	73	86.38	14.13
Making the best of available talent	75	84.53	17.93
Setting goals yourself	75	84.43	20.54
Job Security	75	83.35	21.09
A sense of achievement	75	83.09	19.47
Using your ingenuity and inventiveness	75	79.51	19.95
Advancement to higher position	75	77.91	21.32
Good Fringe benefits	73	71.19	24.70
Being important in the organization	75	67.41	29.47
Recognition from the profession	75	62.31	27.49
Prestige among peers	75	61.77	26.87
Being independent in thought and action	75	59.56	26.78
Directing others	75	57.87	24.79
Supervising others	75	55.83	25.29
Being able to work alone	75	50.08	26.41

Perceived Hindrance Means

Question	N	M	SD
Conflicts with family commitments	75	52.16	24.97

Lack of support from superiors	74	51.74	27.27
Female coaches are treated unfairly	75	50.17	28.22
Lack of training for female Administrators	74	48.85	28.95
Lack of training programs for female coaches	74	46.95	27.71
Lack of support system	75	42.95	27.30
Female coaches are discriminated against	74	42.16	28.67
Male coaches do not accept female coached	74	40.59	29.47
Working evenings and weekends	75	40.21	27.84
Coaching interferes with social Life	75	38.19	26.36
Biases of old boys' network	73	37.38	27.76
Unfavorable working hours	74	37.07	26.26
Female players prefer male coaches	74	36.97	28.89
Coaching takes too much time	75	35.67	26.67
Lack of role models for female administrators	74	33.80	28.13
Lack of role models for female coaches	74	32.22	26.86
Having to do lot of travel	74	32.16	24.81
Perception of homosexuality among female coaches	73	27.55	27.72
Female coaches perceived to be unattractive	74	25.81	25.78
Perception of female coaches as unfeminine	73	24.07	26.41

Role Model Influence Means

Question	N	M	SD
There is someone I am trying to be like in my academic career pursuits	75	63.31	31.70
In the academic or career path I am pursuing, there is someone I admire	74	61.65	33.68
I have a mentor in my academic or career field	74	61.49	32.66
I know someone who has a career I would like to pursue	73	58.84	33.45
There is no one particularly inspirational to me in the academic career path I am pursuing	74	34.32	33.71
There is no female I am trying to be like in my academic and career pursuits	73	31.84	32.70

APPENDIX E

Instrument

The Role of Sport Experience in the Choice of Coaching as an Occupation: Coaching Self-Efficacy, Valance, and Perceived Barriers

In this study, perspectives on occupational choice are used to examine the perceptions of female collegiate athletes regarding a career in coaching an athletic administration. First, occupational self-efficacy suggest that individuals estimate their talents in terms of the job requirements. Second, occupational valance is used to examine the attractiveness of the coaching or administrative job to the individual. And third, perceived barriers in regard to entering an occupation are examine.

You are requested to respond to questions relating to these perspectives and to your own sport experience. Please be assured that your responses will be kept in strict confidence. No individual responses will be identified in reporting results.

Please feel free to omit any information that you feel would be overly identifying or that you do not wish to provide.

Age_____ Race/Ethnicity_____ Sexual Orientation/Gender Pronoun_____

Rank in School _____Fr. _____So. _____Jr. _____Sr.

Sport(s) in which you participate in college_____

Are you a Captain ____yes ____ No If yes, sport (s) _____

Section I: Desire to Coach/Athletic Administration

The following questions are designed to identify your preference to be a paid full-time coach at various levels. Some people prefer to be a coach and other may not. There are no right or wrong answers. Please check the response which indicates your desire to coach a sport on a full-time basis.

How much would you like to coach a sport team on a full-time basis?

	Not at all				Very Much
High School	1	2	3	4	5
Two-year college	1	2	3	4	5
Division III institutions	1	2	3	4	5
Division II institutions	1	2	3	4	5
Division I institutions	1	2	3	4	5

How much would you like to be an athletic administrator on a full-time basis?

	Not at all				Very Much

High School	1	2	3	4	5
Two-year college	1	2	3	4	5
Division III institutions	1	2	3	4	5
Division II institutions	1	2	3	4	5
Division I institutions					

Section II: Coaching and Athletic Administration Self-efficacy

Instructions

The following section contains a list of questions associated with coaching or athletic administration on the collegiate level. Please read each item carefully and indicate how much confidence you have that you could accomplish each of these tasks by circling the appropriate number on the right side. There are no right or wrong answers. Please remember to focus on coaching or athletic administration on the collegiate level when responding to each item.

EXAMPLE:
Confidence that you could:

	No Confidence		Neutral		Complete Confidence
Develop a new offensive strategy	1	2	3	4	5

On a scale of 1 to 5, one being the lowest, and five being the highest, answer the following questions.

For each statement below, circle only one number.

Confidence that you could:

		No Confidence		Neutral		Complete Confidence
1	Make intelligent choices	1	2	3	4	5
2	Accurately assess the ability of your players	1	2	3	4	5
3	Select an effective staff	1	2	3	4	5
4	Change strategies if they do not work	1	2	3	4	5
5	Identify individuals/groups who could help your program/team	1	2	3	4	5
6	Be self-assured in dealing with problems	1	2	3	4	5
7	Determine your coaching strengths	1	2	3	4	5
8	Determine your administrative strengths	1	2	3	4	5
9						
10						

Section III: Occupational Valence

Instructions

When a person is employed in any job, she may have several experiences from that employment. Some of the experiences may be desirable while others may be undesirable. Below is a list of some of those experiences. Using the scale provided, please indicate the extent of your desire for each outcome by circling the appropriate number on the righthand side. There are no right or wrong answers.

On a scale of 1 to 5, one being the lowest, and five being the highest, answer the following questions.

		Least Desirable				Most Desirable
1	Advancement to higher positions	1	2	3	4	5
2	Respect from others	1	2	3	4	5
3	Using your ingenuity and inventiveness	1	2	3	4	5
4	Making the best of available talent	1	2	3	4	5
5	Overcoming Odds	1	2	3	4	5
6	Setting goals yourself	1	2	3	4	5
7	Personal growth and development	1	2	3	4	5
8	A sense of Achievement	1	2	3	4	5
9	Helping athletes attain their potential	1	2	3	4	5
10	Helping others	1	2	3	4	5
11	Recognition from the profession	1	2	3	4	5
12	Prestige among peers	1	2	3	4	5
13	Job Security	1	2	3	4	5
14	Good Fringe benefits	1	2	3	4	5
15	Being important in the organization	1	2	3	4	5
16	Being able to work alone	1	2	3	4	5
17	Being independent in thought and action	1	2	3	4	5
18	Directing others	1	2	3	4	5
19	Supervising others	1	2	3	4	5
20	Being honest	1	2	3	4	5

Section IV: Perceived Hindrance

Instructions

The following statements refer to some possible drawbacks to coaching at a college or university. Indicate the extent to which each of the following statements would hinder you from entering a coaching or athletic administration career. Please mark your answers according to the following 5-point continuum. There are no right or wrong answers.

On a scale of 1 to 5, one being the lowest hinderance, and five being the highest hinderance, answer the following questions.

		Would not Hinder at all				Would Hinder Completely
1	Coaching takes too much time	1	2	3	4	5
2	Having to do a lot of traveling	1	2	3	4	5
3	Working evenings and weekends	1	2	3	4	5
4	Coaching interferes with social life	1	2	3	4	5
5	Unfavorable working hours	1	2	3	4	5
6	Conflicts with family commitments	1	2	3	4	5
7	Female coaches are discriminated against	1	2	3	4	5
8	Female coaches perceived to be unattractive	1	2	3	4	5
9	Lack of support system	1	2	3	4	5
10	Lack of support from superiors	1	2	3	4	5
11	Perception of homosexuality among female coaches	1	2	3	4	5
12	Lack of training programs for female coaches	1	2	3	4	5
13	Lack of training for female administrators	1	2	3	4	5
14	Female players prefer male coaches	1	2	3	4	5
15	Biases of old boys' network	1	2	3	4	5
16	Lack of role models for female coaches	1	2	3	4	5
17	Lack of role models for female administrators	1	2	3	4	5
18	Male coaches do not accept female coaches	1	2	3	4	5
19	Perception of female coaches as unfeminine	1	2	3	4	5
20	Female coaches are treated unfairly	1	2	3	4	5

Section V: Role Model Influence

Please list any sport in which you have participated since 9th grade and indicate the number and gender of each coach (include both head and assistant coaches) for whom you played.

EXAMPLE:

Sport _Basketball_	Number & gender of all head coaches	_0_ female _2_ male
	Number & gender of all assistant coaches	_2_ female _1_ male
Sport _Softball_	Number & gender of all head coaches	_1_ female _1_ male
	Number & gender of all assistant coaches	_0_ female _1_ male
Sport_____	Number & gender of all head coaches	___ female ___male
	Number & gender of all assistant coaches	___ female ___male
Sport_____	Number & gender of all head coaches	___ female ___male
	Number & gender of all assistant coaches	___ female ___male
Sport_____	Number & gender of all head coaches	___ female ___ male
	Number & gender of all assistant coaches	___ female ___ male
Sport_____	Number & gender of all head coaches	___ female ___ male
	Number & gender of all assistant coaches	___ female ___ male

Next, please think about the one FEMALE coach or administrator that has had the greatest impact on your career development and consider her when responding to the following questions. On a scale of 1 to 5, one being strongly disagree, and five being strongly agree, answer the following questions."

		Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1	There is someone I am trying to be like in my academic career pursuits	1	2	3	4	5
2	There is no one particularly inspirational to me in the academic career path I am pursuing	1	2	3	4	5
3	In the academic or career path I am pursuing, there is someone I admire	1	2	3	4	5
4	There is no female I am trying to be like in my academic and career pursuits	1	2	3	4	5
5	I have a mentor in my academic or career field	1	2	3	4	5
6	I know someone who has a career I would like to pursue	1	2	3	4	5
7	In the academic or career path I am pursuing, there is no one who inspires me.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX F

Research Information Sheet

Title of Study: Factors That Impact the Choices of Female Athletes in Pursuit of a Career in Collegiate Sports

Principal Investigator (PI): Gloria Bradley
Administrative and Organizational Studies

You are being asked to be in a research study of the factors that influence female athletes to pursue careers in collegiate leadership because you are a female college athlete. This study is being conducted at Wayne State University.

If you take part in the study, you will be asked to take an online survey. The questions will be based on your experience as a high school and college athlete. The Survey will take 15-20 minutes. It is strictly voluntary.

As a participant in this research study, there may be no direct benefit for you; however, information from this study may benefit other people now or in the future.

There are no known risks at this time to participation in this study.

There will be no costs to you for participation in this research study.

You will not be paid for taking part in this study. The first ten teams with the most responses will be put in a lottery for a chance to win a $200 gift certificate

All information collected about you during the course of this study will be kept without any identifiers.

Taking part in this study is voluntary. You may choose not to take part in this study, or if you decide to take part, you can change your mind later and withdraw from the study. You are free to not answer any questions or withdraw at any time.

If you have any questions about this study now or in the future, you may contact Gloria Bradley research at the following phone number 313-595-5221. If you have questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant, the Chair of the Institutional Review Board can be contacted at (313) 577-1628. If you are unable to contact the research staff, or if you want to talk to someone other than the research staff, you may also call the Wayne State Research Subject Advocate at (313) 577-1628 to discuss problems, obtain information, or offer input.

By completing the questionnaire, are agreeing to participate in this study. Please go to this link.

https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/VC6BC22

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ABSTRACT

AN EXAMINATION OF FACTORS THAT IMPACT THE CHOICES OF FEMALE ATHLETES IN PURSUIT OF A CAREER IN COLLEGIATE SPORTS LEADERSHIP

by

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The Social Cognitive Career Theory was applied to examine how the desire to coach or administrate are impacted by self-efficacy, occupational valence, perceived hindrance, and role model influence. This study was conducted to address the underrepresentation of females in collegiate sports leadership positions. The study examined if being coached by males or if males in leadership positions is preferred. Women coach less than half, (40.2%) of women's sports and women account for 19.6% percent of administrators in college athletic departments. Hypothetically, the results of this study will support and enhance the NCAA college sports model by revealing quantitative data that provide a foundation for understanding the problems and identifying key factors important to the leadership development of female student-athletes. The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, MANOVAs, and path analysis. Everhart and Chelladurai (1998) stated that female athletes preferred male coaches and that female athletes that had male coaches were more likely to perceive discrimination as a barrier. The study's finding is

that collegiate female student-athletes had a high perception of female coaches and female administrators and a preference for female coaches.

AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL STATEMENT

Gloria Bradley is a native of New Jersey where she completed her Bachelor's degree in secondary education/mathematics at Seton Hall University. While at Seton Hall, she was a scholarship athlete on the women's basketball team, garnering her player of the year in New Jersey. She played one year of professional basketball with the Atlanta Comets before returning to Seton Hall as a part time assistant coach. Her love for teaching and education took her to Ferris high school where she began her teaching career. She moved on to teach mathematics at East Orange High School and coached their girls basketball team. After five years, she realized that the collegiate level was where she belonged. She transitioned back to collegiate sports and completed a Master's degree in Administration and supervision from Montclair State University. She was the Head women's basketball coach for Montclair State for seven years while leading the program to its first conference championship in school history and several ECAC championships.

Gloria is currently a Doctoral Candidate at Wayne State University where she was the head women's basketball coach for 11 years while leading the program to the first NCAA tournament appearance in school history and coaching the programs first two All-Americans. Gloria moved on to Chicago State University as an assistant women's basketball coach. Currently a basketball coach at Beloit College, she has 32 years of coaching experience, 27 of those on the collegiate level.

Gloria has an interest in student athlete leadership development and athletic administration. She has attended numerous leadership workshops and symposiums and has had the opportunity to develop and implement leadership workshops at Beloit College. Pursuing a doctorate in Educational Leadership supports the passion she has for education leadership development and growth.