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<https://doi.org/10.18297/etd/663>

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ROLE MODELS, WOMEN'S LEADERSHIP AND CAREERS OF WOMEN IN THE
MANAGEMENT OF PROFESSIONAL BASEBALL

By
Maki Itoh
B.A., Sophia University, 2004
M.B.A., University of New Haven, 2010

A Dissertation
Submitted to the Faculty of the
College of Education and Human Development
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Department of Leadership, Foundations, and Human Resource Education
University of Louisville
Louisville, Kentucky

August 2014

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B.A., Sophia University, 2004

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A Dissertation Approved on
August 1st, 2014

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DEDICATION

For Mom and Dad

My two greatest role models in my life

You have taught me how to strive for my dream and have always been very close to me to patiently support me throughout my challenge. You are the most important to me.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to return my grateful acknowledgement to my two outstanding role models and Co-chairs, Dr. Hums and Dr. Choi. Dr. Hums, since I met you back in 2010 at the NASSM Conference, I wanted to be just like you and decided to challenge myself into the world of earning my Ph.D. Ever since that day, you have steadily encouraged me and guided me throughout my challenge. It was never possible without your presence and I am immensely proud of being privileged to learn from you. Dr. Choi, I am overwhelmed by your generosity. Thank you so much for your big smile during my difficult times. Your heartfelt verbal persuasions encouraged me multiple times whenever my self-efficacy decreased. I cannot thank you enough for your patient support.

I would also like to extend my appreciation to my committee members: Dr. Chelladurai, for your great guidance and for your beautiful generosity of being my grandpa scholar. (Three generation of scholars with you, Dr. Hums and myself); Prof. Anita Moorman, for thinking about my future research possibilities; Dr. Chris Greenwell, for asking me the question “Japanese Yes, or American Yes.”

To my big-hearted parents who always understood my dream the most and supported me from when I was a little girl always playing sports with boys. Dad, I will never forget how you gave me a tremendous boost by telling me to endure to the finish if I have a dream to pursue when I told you that I wanted to earn a Ph.D. after completing my master's degree. I cannot thank you enough for the consistent support you have given

me throughout my challenge. Mom, thank you for telling me to be grateful to everyone during hard times and advising me to set a personal best every day. I learned from you that the small effort of will each day is important in everyday life. My brothers Hiroki and Toshiki, my encounter with baseball paved the way to broad possibilities, and I would not have started playing baseball if I did not have you as my brothers. My sister Yuki, when I discussed my dream to you, you were the first and best to persuade Mom and Dad that they should let me study abroad. I wouldn't be who I am without you. Thank you, Yuki. The engaging smiles of my adorable nieces and nephews, Karin, Yuzu, Niina and Ichito have encouraged me multiple times. Last but not least, to my Grandma and Grandpa who always guided me to various academic interests. I hope that you are glad and proud that I am able to greet this very day. I would also like to acknowledge my American families, the Wielk family and Mr. and Mrs. Arnold. You have been my support system throughout the past five years and truly are family.

Thank you, Houki, for supporting me and working together with me from the time we were in college, browned by the sun playing baseball and throughout my Ph.D. Journey. You are my awesome teammate and best friend forever. Dr. Justine Siegel, it all started with the email message I sent to you. You gave me the courage to make up my mind and quit my job to move to Canada to study abroad. I am truly grateful for the cooperation I received from you and for triggering me to advance in the direction of my dream. Dr. Ogasawara, my best Japanese role model, you gave me the strength and chance to exert myself in Japanese sports, especially women's sports, which was my lifelong dream. Thank you so much for trusting my potential and recommending me to a path to earning my Ph.D.

I would also like to thank the other members of the Sport Administration faculty, Dr. Hancock, Dr. Hambrick, Dr. Scheffler, Professor Bernstein, and Professor Pressley. A word of thanks also goes out to my fellow doctoral students and extended cohort for their research collaborations and support through this process. Thank you Sun Kang for your encouragement and always being by my side, Jason Rice, Per Svensson, Matt Huml, Chang-Hung Lee, Tara Mahoney, Sungbo Jung, Tetsuo Sato, Yu-Yun Liu, and my wonderful roommate Emy Ng Hang.

Finally, I would like to express my utmost appreciation to the U of L Writing Center, Robin, Adam, Tika and the U of L Graduate School for providing me with valuable funding for this study.

ABSTRACT

ROLE MODELS, WOMEN'S LEADERSHIP AND CAREERS OF WOMEN IN THE MANAGEMENT OF PROFESSIONAL BASEBALL

Maki Itoh

August 1, 2014

Very few women hold leadership roles in North America professional sports. Major League Baseball (MLB) ranks lowest for women in leadership positions among the five major North American professional sports leagues, reinforcing the idea that professional baseball is especially male-dominated. This study surveyed all women working in management positions in professional baseball, at both MLB and minor league levels. The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship of role models with role model existence, role model quality, gender career barriers, business leader self-efficacy, cognitive leader self-efficacy, and future leadership expectations of women working in management positions in professional baseball organizations. The sample included 233 women who worked in administrative positions in professional baseball. Five major findings were (a) the importance of the presence/quality of a role model, (b) participants indicated no gender preference for a role model, (c) women who had a female role model scored significantly different between MLB and minor league levels on business leader self-efficacy, (d) future leader expectation had a positive relationship with leader self-efficacy and a negative relationship with career barriers, and (e) women saw themselves as role models wanting to help newcomers in their organization.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Women in the Work Force

Recently, the number of working women has approached nearly one half of that of working men, and almost 50% of women in the world have their own jobs. Compared to this, it is obvious through statistics that the proportion of women in management positions still remains a precious few. Women's participation in business significantly influences the world's economy, however, various barriers still exist that restrict women from holding management positions. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics 2012, women represent 47% of all workers in the U.S. and statistics show that there has been inequality between men and women in business environments over a period of time (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012). In the meantime, data from Fortune 500 companies indicate that few women hold executive officer positions or high earner positions, and furthermore, there are still companies with no female executive officers. Numbers indicate that women hold 14.4% of executive officer positions at Fortune 500 companies and 7.6% of top earner positions, while 27.4% of these companies have no female executive officers at all (Catalyst, 2010). Since women make up nearly half of the population, they should have equal opportunities to take part in management positions. Recent data from the Bloomberg Rankings show positive

progress in participation by women in management positions. Bloomberg (2013) reported that the number of women CFOs increased by 35% at large U.S. companies in the past years, putting more women in executive management positions. Fifty-four women served as CFOs among Standard & Poor 500 Index companies in 2013 compared to 40 in 2012. While the number of women leaders is gradually increasing, the number of women reaching the management level is still very small. It is necessary to investigate the reasons why there are few women leaders, and dismantle any barriers, such as gender bias and stereotypes, that discourage women from becoming leaders. The statistical data introduced earlier provides a general idea of the status of women in leadership positions. Women are still underrepresented in business generally, and especially in the sports industry, which is the primary interest of this study. It is significant to investigate the reasons for women's underrepresentation in leadership positions in the sports industry, and find out the various limitations and barriers involved.

The sport industry is traditionally considered to be a male dominated industry (Bower & Hums, 2009; Burton, Barr, Fink, & Bruening 2009; Burton, Borland, & Mazerolle, 2012; Burton, Grappendorf, & Henderson, 2011), which has struggled to increase women's representation in leadership positions over a number of years (e.g., Acosta & Carpenter, 2012; IOC, 2012). The under-representation of women within sports organizations has received considerable attention in the recent years (Inglis, Danylchuk, & Pastore, 1996, 2000; Sartore & Cunningham, 2007). Literature indicates that women continue to be underrepresented in leadership positions in intercollegiate athletics (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012; Hancock. 2012; Lapchick, 2010), interscholastic sport (Ladda, 2009; Mather, 2007; Whisenant, Pedersen, & Obenour, 2002), campus recreation (Bower, 2004),

health and fitness (Bower & Coffee, 2007), professional sports (Hums & Sutton, 1998; McDonogh, 2007) and international sports (Hums, Barr, & Döll-Tepper, 1998; Hums, Moorman, & Nakazawa, 1998; IOC, 2012; Itoh, Hums, Bower, & Moorman, 2013). Examining the present status of women's participation in leadership roles makes it is obvious that women leaders are still very few among sport industry segments such as intercollegiate athletics, the Olympic Movement, the Paralympic Movement, and professional sport. Considering the under-representation of women within sports organizations, the next section further examines the proportion of women leaders in the sports industry in detail.

Intercollegiate Athletics

The passage of Title IX significantly encouraged women's participation in sport, especially in interscholastic and intercollegiate sports. Although women gained increased opportunities to participate in sports and hold coaching positions, the percentage of women in coaching positions showed a significant decline after the passage of Title IX in 1972. Before Title IX was passed, women coached over 90% of women's intercollegiate teams, however, currently, women coach only 42.9% of women's teams. There are 3974 female head coaches of women's intercollegiate teams and approximately 200 to 300 female head coaches of men's teams (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012).

International Olympic Committee

Just like intercollegiate athletics, international organizations such as the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and the International Paralympic Committee (IPC) established goals to increase the percentage of women leaders in their organizations. The IOC aims to increase the percentage of women in leadership positions to 20%

whereas the IPC aims to increase it to 30%, but both organizations have not gone beyond establishing this goal. However, these goals did generate attempted progress in aiming to increase the number of women leaders in international organizations. According to the fact sheet distributed about women in the Olympic Movement (2013), 4676 female athletes, or 44.2% of all the athletes, competed in the 2012 Olympic Games in London, which were the first summer Olympic Games where women competed in every sport on the Olympic program. At recent Olympic Games, the number of female athlete participants has increased (IOC, 2013), however, the number of females in leadership position is still small compared to the number of female athlete participants. To address the situation, the IOC established the following objective to be met by a particular deadline - NOCs (National Olympic Committees), IFs (International Federations), National Federations and any other relevant organizations belonging to the Olympic Movement must set a target to secure at least 20% of decision-making positions for women within their organization by the end of 2005 (IOC, 2010). Unfortunately, according to IOC data on women, leadership, and the Olympic Movement, this objective was not completely achieved by the deadline, however, the initial objective to secure 10% of women in decision-making positions by December 2000 was met by 61% of NOCs and 52% of IFs. The IOC and many of its affiliates still have a long ways to go to achieve their objectives and are yet to achieve the 20% target (IOC, 2012).

International Paralympic Committee

Similar to the actions of IOC, the International Paralympic Committee General Assembly of 2003 came up with a policy that ordered the IPC, National Paralympic Committees (NPCs), International Organizations of Sport for the Disabled (ISODs), and

any other relevant sports organizations belonging to the Paralympic Movement to immediately set a goal that women should make up 30% of their decision-making structures by 2009 (IPC, 2009). Despite the fact that most organizations failed to achieve this target by the fixed deadline, the number of female representatives in each organization increased. According to the IPC Women in Sport Committee (2008), the percentage of women in leadership positions as of 2008 was as follows: 19% of positions within all IPC decision making, 29% of IPC Standing Committees and Councils, and 10% of the leadership positions within the IPC Governing Board and National Paralympic Committees' leadership structures.

Professional Sports

In order to examine the existing status of women's leadership roles in the sport industry, the 2012 Racial and Gender Report Card (Lapchick, 2012) serves as a useful reference. In the Racial and Gender Report Card (Lapchick, 2012), the hiring practices in North American professional sports regarding women and people of color were assessed and employment categories received a grade (Lapchick, 2012). According to Lapchick's Racial and Gender Report Card data, the representation of women senior administrators is as follows: National Football League (NFL) 20%: 91 women; Major League Baseball (MLB) 18%: 71 women; National Basketball Association (NBA) 25%: 189 women; MLS 20.7%: 31 women; and Women's National Basketball Association (WNBA) 52%: 30 women (Lapchick, 2012). Senior administration includes, but is not restricted to, directors, senior managers, legal counsel, general counsel, senior advisors, assistant vice presidents, director of community relations, public relations directors, and general managers (Lapchick, 2012). The Racial and Gender Report Card (Lapchick, 2012) grades

following federal affirmative action policies, which state that the percentage of people in the racial or gender group in the population should reflect the same number in the workforce. An A is given if 40% of employees were women, B for 32%, C for 27%, D for 22%, and F for below 22%. The Racial and Gender Report Card (Lapchick, 2012) reported that in the last decade (2001-2010), the representation of women in executive management positions declined in five of the six major North American professional sport leagues [i.e., NFL, MLB, NHL, NBA, MLS].

Women Working in Professional Baseball

Very few women hold leadership roles across all professional sports within the U.S., but amongst the five major North American professional sports leagues, MLB ranks lowest with the percentage of women holding leadership positions as low as 18% in (Lapchick, 2012). On the 2012 Racial and Gender Report Card, MLB received a C+ for the category of gender hiring practice. In 2013, MLB improved its grade to B+ / A- by tremendous effort for diversity initiatives by Commissioner Bud Selig and his team in the League office, led by Wendy Lewis, Sr. Vice President for Diversity and Strategic Alliances. Also, Lapchick (2013) assumed that the release of movie “42” about the life of Jackie Robinson raised awareness about having a diverse mixture of people participating the sport through all levels: on the field as coaches and players, as well in the front office. The film might have helped increase the focus on diversity as the 2013 MLB season began.

Looking into more details, no females work as general managers, or coaches, 155 women make up 35.6 % of league central office workforce in MLB. Moreover 17.7% (59 women) work as team senior vice presidents or vice presidents (Grade F), 26.9% (414

women) work in senior administration (Grade C), and 26.3% (357 women) take part in team professional administration positions. Positions categorized as professional administration include, but are not restricted to: managers, coordinators, supervisors, and administrators in business operations such as marketing, promotions, publications and various other departments. The category excludes the traditional support staff positions such as secretaries, receptionists, administrative assistants, and staff assistants (Lapchick, 2013). Even with the significant improvement of MLB's diversity record, these numbers give an impression that the league is a male-dominated organization in the sport industry and still has room for improvement with an overall gender grade of B+. For women, the most difficult area of baseball management to break into is baseball operations (Hums & Sutton, 1999). For example, no woman has ever been a MLB General Manager. Jean Afterman of Yankees is the only female assistant general manager (Lapchick 2012). According to Kim Ng, a former female assistant MLB Assistant General Manager and current Vice President for Baseball Operations for MLB, "I really think it's up to those in management and positions of power to make the leap of faith" (Bacaj, 2009, p. 9).

This under-representation of women in management levels also occurs in Minor League Baseball (MiLB). According to MiLB (2012), there are only five female general managers among the 160 affiliated Minor League teams. Amy Venuto, a front office veteran who currently serves as an executive director for Ripken Baseball (a group that owns and operates the Aberdeen Iron Birds, Charlotte Stone Crabs and Augusta Green Jackets) explained the under representation of women in leadership positions in MiLB by saying that "Women often choose (or are funneled into) organizational roles with little room for advancement. Women should adopt a whatever-it-takes attitude,

including within the higher-pressure and often particularly testosterone-driven world of sales. If more women are in roles that could lead to general manager, then that could really change things” (Hill, 2013, para.6).

Ferrante (1994) who wrote about the United States and baseball, explained that, “as baseball was transformed from a mere pastime to an important cultural symbol, it was necessary that it be defined as completely masculine” (Ferrante, 1994, p. 241). Women who work in professional baseball need to overcome gender stereotypes such as not understanding the game, being a secretary, and working in baseball to find a future husband (Hums & Sutton, 1999). The professional baseball industry exhibits different elements of a male dominated industry compared to college athletics. In college athletics, females held almost 90% of all head coaching positions for women’s teams prior to Title IX and in the Olympic Movement, participation by female athletes increased to 44.2% of all competitors in the 2012 Olympic Games in London. The professional baseball industry has significant gender stereotypic images of masculinity and no female players on the field, making baseball operation jobs and leadership positions heavily male dominated.

This male-dominated portion of the professional sport industry segment has received little attention from researchers examining women in sport management and women working in professional baseball will be a perfect example to provide useful information on the status of women employed in a male-dominated workplace. Women working in management positions in professional baseball (MLB, MiLB, and Independent Leagues) will be the focus of the present study.

The current status of women leaders was statistically reviewed in the previous

section, demonstrating in detail how the number of women leaders is still very small. The next section will, therefore, further examine the reasons why there are so few women leaders, and look in detail at barriers that discourage women from attaining leadership or decision-making positions.

Career Barriers

Women are usually aware that gender can be an obstacle in their careers compared to men. Since employers tend to select people with masculine characteristics as leaders, it is perceived that women are not identified as suitable to hold leadership positions (Eagly & Carli, 2007). When women demonstrate their traditional feminine characteristics in the workplace, such as weakness and uncertainty, there is little chance for them to be appointed as leaders. When women demonstrate their masculine characteristics in order to progress in their career, they may then receive criticism. This conflict is a result of people's stereotypes of women. Eagly and Carli (2007) explained this conflict by using the concept of "double bind", which makes it difficult for women to seek leadership positions in their careers. Swanson and Woitke (1997) defined barriers as events or conditions that make career progress difficult. Women seeking employment in male-dominated professions face many barriers that decrease their chances of obtaining leadership positions. The glass ceiling, the glass wall, and the leadership labyrinth have been used as symbols to describe the issues of women's leadership in society.

In 1984, Gay Bryant from *Adweek* magazine used a phrase "the glass ceiling" for the first time to describe the invisible barrier women face on the way to reaching leadership positions. A similar idea to the glass ceiling was introduced by Miller, Kerr,

and Reid, (1999) who explained occupational segregation attributed to employment barriers that restrict women's access to certain types of jobs (or agencies), or may trap them within certain types of jobs (or agencies), as a "glass wall" (Miller, et al., 1999, p. 1). Eagly and Carli (2007) used the term labyrinth as a more appropriate symbol than the glass wall to measure women's leadership situations. They explained, "Passage through a labyrinth is not simple or direct, but requires persistent awareness of one's progress, and careful analysis of the puzzles that lie ahead" (p.64).

Hayes (1985) defined non-traditional and male-dominated occupations as those having less than 30-34% women in their ranks. As mentioned in the previous section, the sport industry is considered a male-dominated industry. Women who are eager to become leaders usually face unique challenges in addition to what male leaders have to face (McCauley & Van Velsor, 2004). These unique challenges include extensive domestic responsibilities at home, work-family conflicts, (Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996), and gender discrimination in their organizations (e.g., Eagly & Carli, 2007). Netemeyer, Boles, and McMurrian (1996) defined work-family conflict as "a form of interrole conflict in general demands of, time devoted to, and strain created by the job interfere with performing family responsibilities" (p.401). In addition, especially in male-dominated circumstances, gender stereotyping and apparent gender discrimination may become obstacles for women, and those obstacles must be overcome in order for women to persist in their leadership career (Eagly & Carli, 2007). One potential cause of gender discrimination in male-dominated circumstances may be the permanence of male hierarchies seen in many organizations. Considering the existence of distinctive obstacles confronting women in male-dominated circumstances, it is important to consider the

additional challenges women face and how their challenges can affect personal career development.

In the business setting, “homologous reproduction” and the “old boy’s network” are common barriers women face during their career development. Stangl and Kane (1991) explained, “Homologous reproduction is a process whereby dominants reproduce themselves based on social and/or physical characteristics” (p. 47). A “boys’ network” refers to organizations that have traditionally been male-dominated. These organizations have male-dominated culture, atmosphere, and traditions (Schein, 2001). According to Brass (1985), “because men have historically dominated high-level hierarchical positions, women are less likely to be included in these informal, high-level interactions” (p. 329). There is definitely an old boys’ network where women face difficulties in order to get accepted.

Previous studies have identified barriers to women’s career development in the sport industry especially in intercollegiate athletics, including (a) old boys’ network (Bower & Hums, 2009; Hancock, 2012; Schein, 2001; Shaw, 2006), (b) homologous reproduction (Aicher & Sagas, 2009; Whisenant et al., 2002), (c) work-life balance issues (Bruening et al., 2008; Bruening & Dixon, 2007; Dixon & Bruening, 2007; Sagas & Cunningham, 2004) and (d) gender role stereotypes and perceptions of gendered opportunities (Burton et al., 2009; Burton et al., 2011; Grappendorf et al., 2004; Grappendorf et al., 2008). Sartore and Cunningham (2007) addressed how these gender discrimination and stereotype factors become obstacles to women who have careers in athletics because they obstruct the development of women’s identity as leaders and have consequences for self-limiting behaviors.

Social Role Theory

Eagly (1987) defined social role theory as notions that “are more than beliefs about the attributes of women and men: Many of these expectations are normative in the sense that they describe qualities or behavioral tendencies believed to be desirable for each sex” (p. 13). Since men’s and women’s expectations are gendered, social role theory can be used to better explain gender stereotypes and expectations. Gender role is explained as the expectations and behaviors of men and women in society (Eagly, 1987). The negative and unfavorable expectations of women’s abilities to perform a task are deeply related to traditional gender stereotypes. According to many studies, women are perceived to be less effective leaders whereas men are perceived to be more effective leaders who are suited for decision-making tasks (Eagly & Carli, 2007). This perception that women lack leadership abilities adversely affects them from entering managerial positions, regardless of their self-esteem. According to role congruity theory, traditional gender stereotypic beliefs make people believe that men become better leaders than women because of their masculine characteristics, and therefore, women have little chance to attain leadership positions (Eagly & Karus, 2002).

Role Congruity Theory

As mentioned earlier, according to the gender role expectation concept, women are expected to be nurturing, passive, and sympathetic, whereas the expectations of successful leaders are to be aggressive, ambitious, and dominant with masculine characteristics (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Role congruity theory explains that the gender role expectation concept is deeply related to prejudice toward women leaders. When women are engaged in stereotypically masculine or male-dominant tasks which require

the behaviors of successful leaders and they behave the same way as men, women are evaluated poorly compared to men simply because women are behaving contrary to societal gender role expectations (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Researchers have used role congruity theory to examine how perceptions of gender relate to prejudice against women in leadership positions in intercollegiate athletic administration. These perceptions, which arise from role congruity theory, make it difficult for women to be perceived as leaders in sport industry. Unfavorable stereotypes of others can negatively impact women, regardless of their self-esteem (Morrison & Von Glinow, 1990). Women tend to feel they are not capable of accomplishing certain tasks, and are inclined to avoid leadership roles because they lack confidence in themselves. This tendency is frequently seen in women who work in male dominated business fields (Betz & Hackett, 1981). This lack of confidence can be tied to low self-efficacy.

This study will now focus attention on the hypothesis that women are underrepresented because of their low self-efficacy (Cunningham et al., 2007). Women's low self-efficacy is related to the presence of multiple barriers, some of which were discussed earlier. Thus, increasing self-efficacy will aid in advancing women's leadership and reduce turnover rates. It is important to acknowledge these barriers women have to face and consider recommendations to overcome them. Elements which can help women overcome these barriers include (a) supervisor support (Inglis et al, 1996, 2000; Sagas & Cunningham, 2004), (b) networking, (c) mentoring relationships (Bower, 2008, 2009; Grappendorf & Henderson, 2008; Hums & Sutton, 1999; Lovett & Lowry, 1994; Shaw, 2006)), and (d) professional development training (Moore, Parkhouse, & Konrad, 2004). Therefore, it is necessary to provide women with these opportunities so they can

eventually advance to management positions.

In summary, people still prefer the masculine traits of male leadership and tend to select men for leadership positions. This preference becomes a barrier that women face throughout the phases of their careers. Women generally judge themselves as less suited for many nontraditional occupations than men, even when performance on masculine or scientific tasks does not differ (Bandura, 1997). This suggests that the subjective belief that one lacks leadership skills may predict self-selection out of this type of task. As mentioned above, the support systems for women are important in examining the characteristics and trends of women in leadership positions. Self-efficacy may become one key factor in examining women in leadership positions. One efficient method of increasing self-efficacy is through modeling, which was the focus of this study. The next section will discuss in further detail the concept of self-efficacy and the importance of role model influence on women's career development.

Self-efficacy

The concepts of Bandura's cognitive theory and self-efficacy may become keys that help advance women to leadership positions. Bandura (2000) stated, "perceived efficacy plays a key role in human functioning because it affects behavior not only directly, but by its impact on other determinations such as goals and aspirations, outcome expectations, affective proclivities, and perception of impediments and opportunities in the social environment" (p.1). The following section of this chapter will discuss in detail social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1997), and how this concept influences women to achieve self-efficacy, which encourages women to take part in leadership

positions.

Bandura (1997) discussed four informational sources that construct self-efficacy: performance accomplishments, vicarious learning (modeling), verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal. Firstly, performance accomplishments are “past success experiences.” Successful experiences in the past tend to increase self-efficacy, whereas unsuccessful experiences or failures tend to lower self-efficacy. The second major source of self-efficacy, vicarious learning, is the source through which individuals develop self-efficacy by observing the performance of similar others. Self-efficacy is influenced by observing both successful and unsuccessful performances of others. Vicarious learning is effective in that it also assists individuals who have less experience to estimate their own competence in certain activities by providing examples to use as a reference. A key factor in vicarious learning is the role model whose behavior is instructional for less experienced persons.

The third source, verbal persuasion, is a communication process where significant others intentionally persuade an individual that s/he possesses the capability of succeeding in a certain activity. Although verbal persuasion can contribute to self-efficacy, persuasive advice alone will have limited influence.

The fourth informational source that can influence self-efficacy is emotional arousal. When individuals perform a certain task, various physiological arousals and emotions are involved and these physiological states may also influence efficacy judgments. Extreme emotions such as anxiety, fatigue, or depression experienced during task performance can lower self-efficacy, whereas calmness, resilience, or excitement may work to enhance self-efficacy. Together with the four major factors of self-efficacy

introduced by Bandura (1997), developmental challenges, successes and failures involved in experiences may exert significant influence on the development of self-efficacy.

Social cognitive theory explained that self-efficacy could be helpful in mastering a specific task (Bandura, 1999). Many studies focused on conceptualizing and measuring task-specific self-efficacy, which corresponds to specific performance (Pajares & Miller, 1994). This emphasis on specificity has shaped numerous self-efficacy scales that attempt to measure domain-specific or task-specific self-efficacy (Pajares & Miller, 1994). Consequently, self-efficacy research has focused on the effect of relatively task-specific self-efficacy on criteria performance, such as career self-efficacy (Hackett & Betz, 1989), academic self-efficacy (Lopez & Lent, 1992), math self-efficacy (Pajares & Miller, 1994), and leader self-efficacy (Machida & Schaubroeck, 2011). Based on the understanding of task-specific self-efficacy, the next section will go into depth to analyze leader self-efficacy.

Leader Self-efficacy

According to social cognitive theory and social cognitive career theory, self-efficacy is increased when the individual accomplishes a task, the individual observes a third person accomplish a task, or when the individual is encouraged to accomplish a task him/herself. Self-efficacy beliefs within leaders are the most integral element necessary to advance the development of leader competency. Leader self-efficacy is the ability to lead others effectively and successfully, and the confidence in the capability to lead (Machida & Schaubroeck, 2011). Some studies suggest that leader self-efficacy is related to greater work performances and leaders' effectiveness

(Paglis & Green, 2002; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998) as well as with organizational performance (Wood & Bandura, 1989).

Few studies looked at the effectiveness of self-efficacy in the development of leaders concerning the relationship between leader self-efficacy and leaders' performance and expected outcomes. Researchers point out that it is certain that leader self-efficacy greatly influences leadership development. According to Bandura's social cognitive theory, (Bandura, 1997) one way that self-efficacy influences performance and learning is its impact on actions, efforts, and persistence. Machida and Schaubroeck (2011) developed leader self-efficacy theory and explained that leader self-efficacy is related to career ascendancy of women leaders. Leader efficacy is considered to play a significant role in women's career progress, as it increases women's confidence in pursuing a managerial position. Strong leader self-efficacy beliefs influence women to pursue leadership positions since people with high self-efficacy beliefs tend to have confidence in their own skills and abilities. This research focused mainly on the concept of leader efficacy, to find out how much confidence women actually have in pursuing and holding a leadership position.

Gender Difference in Self-efficacy

Women tend to be less confident and generally have lower self-efficacy compared to men (e.g., Hacket & Betz, 1981; Heilman, 2001; Sartore & Cunningham, 2007). This is obvious in sports settings where studies found that female assistant coaches had lower self-efficacy compared to male assistant coaches when both have access to the same support in becoming a head coach. Cunningham et al. (2007) and also Betz and

Hackett (Betz, 2007; Hackett & Betz, 1981) pointed out that women's restrained positions at workplaces may be one factor that lowers self-efficacy beliefs; however, they argued that women's low self-efficacy belief is directly attributed to the limited opportunity to Bandura's four major informational sources of self-efficacy, including role models (Bandura 1997).

Outcome Expectations

Related to self-efficacy, outcome expectations are important factors for women to advance their career. According to social cognitive career theory, accurate and strong expectations of personal self-efficacy become instrumental for the initiation and persistence of behavioral performance in all aspects of human development.

Outcome expectations refer to the belief that, given the performance of a particular behavior, certain results will eventually follow. An outcome expectation is thus a belief about the consequences of those behaviors. For example, self-efficacy beliefs are concerned with, "Can I do this?" while outcome expectations address, "If I do this, what will happen?" In addition, Lent et al. (1994) pointed out that career interests directly influence career goals and that career self-efficacy both directly and indirectly (through career interests) influences career goals. Low self-efficacy expectations may prevent people from attempting to perform a task even if they are relatively certain the performance of that task would lead to desired outcomes (Hackett & Betz, 1981). Moreover, women's low self-efficacy is usually linked with low future outcome expectancy, and this may be the reason why gender differences exist when talking about career advancement. Even though women have impressive qualifications and experiences,

women tend to hesitate to apply for jobs because they lack confidence in their ability to be successful in a position, resulting in fewer opportunities to receive employment offers.

This study will discuss the issue of low self-efficacy in women by recognizing multiple barriers that negatively affect self-efficacy and by pointing out the importance of determining effective measures to increase self-efficacy. This study examined the hypothesis that role models can function as one of the important factors to increase self-efficacy in women, and how this can advance women to take part in leadership positions.

Role Model Influence on Women's Leadership

Role models are anyone who possesses similarities with oneself and people whom one respects and wishes to be like. Role models are able to influence one's decision and behavior either directly or indirectly (Bandura, 1977), and they serve as significant examples to show various kinds of behaviors and values that one can imitate. Hackett and Betz (1981) first pointed out the importance of the effects of a role model's influence on career development, accomplishments, decision-making, and adjustment for both men and women, and increased self-efficacy. These researchers also suggested that career related self-efficacy expectations were significant in understanding women's career development. The Coaching Association of Canada works to maintain successful role models. According to its 2012 report "Without role models at the higher levels of each and every sport, women will not even consider the possibility of coaching at the highest level because you cannot be what you cannot see" (Croxson, 2012, p. 14).

While the lack of female professionals and occupational role models has been

identified as a significant barrier to women's career development and has led to women's underrepresentation at managerial positions in the sport industry, the presence and availability of female role models has received support as an important positive influence on women's self efficacy. In order to examine role model influence on women, it is important to establish a clear understanding of what a role model is. According to Social Cognitive Theory, which is a process where people learn others' attitudes, values, and beliefs and eventually formulate their own, people learn behaviors and skills by observing others, which is termed as "modeling" (Bandura, 1986). "Learning by imitation" and "learning using a role model" in various situations is significant because people are able to learn appropriate ways to behave in certain situations without actually experiencing them, and build up their skills by observing a role model (Bandura, 1977). Role models can provide an introduction for individuals to understand "how men and women should behave or what they should look like" (Biskup & Pfister, 1999, p. 201).

Modeling has a close relationship to women's career choice, and significantly influences women selecting an occupation in a male-dominated field (Buunk, et al., 2007; Greene & Stitt-Gohdes, 1997; Quimby & DeSantis, 2006). The relationship between role models and career choice is based on theoretical and psychological mechanisms. Firstly, role models serve as a useful reference and provide examples for social comparison that have great influence on the observers. For example, individuals observe role models and compare their own situation and experience to those of the role models. This way, individuals are able to evaluate their own abilities, motives, and possible actions, and look at the role model to help imagine their own future (Blanton, 2001; Buunk, Peiró, & Griffioen (2007). Role models provide vicarious learning experiences that increase

self-efficacy in individuals, and eventually increase an individual's interest in selecting careers in various fields. Women are able to enhance their leadership performance by observing role models at their workplaces because women are able to learn leadership qualities from the behavior of role models. From the reasons mentioned above, this observational learning process is absolutely necessary for women's career development (Bandura, 1999, 2000).

The study of role model influence over women's self-efficacy is inevitable in order to enhance women's career development. In fact, role models are important to all stages of one's career. Women may not even consider the possibility that they can move up to a higher ranking position without having the chance to actually observe similar women in those positions ("If I can see one, I can be one"). In this way, role models are essential to the personal growth of individuals as well as their career development. Furthermore, specific career-related behaviors, which are accompanied by a stronger sense of self-efficacy, may broaden women's career options and further enhance effective decision-making and the degree of satisfaction that comes after the decision-making. Very little research has been done in the sport industry examining role model influence on women's career development, especially for women who work in male-dominant occupations. This study focused attention on the hypothesis that women are underrepresented because of their low self-efficacy, and analyzed the fact that women can increase their access to leadership positions by observing and seeking positive female role models in order to increase their self-efficacy.

Statement of the Problem

Statistical data demonstrate the growth in the number of women in the labor force, however, the number of women leaders remains low. The number of women leaders is especially low in traditionally male-dominated occupations where women are expected to exert the "masculine" components of leadership. The reasons for the lack of women leaders are closely related to various barriers women have to face during the process of moving into a leadership position. The significance of research on women working in MLB is that gender stereotypes limit both males and females since baseball is considered as cultural symbol defined as masculine (Ferrante, 1994) and very few women play the sport competitively.

One factor that can help women overcome these barriers is the presence of a role model. Role models are crucial to women's career development. Researchers argue that the lack of female role models becomes a severe barrier for women's career development. For instance, unless women have the opportunity to observe and learn from a female leader, women are unable to imagine whether or not they are able to achieve these same leadership position themselves. Moreover, studies also explained how the presence of female coaches exerted positive influence over career choices of female athletes in both high school and college sports (Everhart & Chelladurai, 1998; Lirgg et al., 1994; Moran-Miller & Flores, 2011). Studies have demonstrated that role models make a significant contribution during the process when women select a career in a male-dominated occupation (DeSantis & Quimby, 2004; Everhart & Chelladurai, 1998; Lirgg et al., 1994; Moran-Miller & Flores, 2011)., however, no studies emphasize the strong influence of role models over women after they select a career in a

male-dominated occupation and actually work in those occupations. Specifically, there is no research available that examines how role models influence the career development of women who actually work in a male-dominated career, especially in professional sport.

The number of women leaders in the professional baseball industry is remarkably low MLB received a C+ for the category of gender hiring process from the 2012 report card. In 2013, MLB improved its grade to B+ / A-. Looking into more details, 26.9 percent of the senior administration of MLB is women (Grade C) and 17.7% of team senior vice presidents or vice presidents are women (Grade F). Compared to the percentage in other major North American professional sports, and it can be said that the work environments in MLB is especially male-dominated. However, the only research that examined the existing circumstances of women leaders in the professional baseball industry are the studies conducted by Hums and Sutton in 1999 and Siegal in 2012. By carrying out research on role model influence over women in a male-dominated career environment, it is possible to reveal whether role models exert influence over women and how that influence is significant to the career development of women. No research so far that correlates role model influence and women's career advancement in professional sports, and this study would be the first.

Study Significance

Role models are important at every step of one's career. If people do not see others like them in higher positions, they may not recognize the possibilities available to them. Therefore, role models are critical in the development of individuals and their career choices. A stronger sense of self-efficacy with regard to specific career-relevant

behaviors may enable women to consider a wider range of career options. Stronger self-efficacy also enhances effective decision-making and improves chances for post-decisional satisfaction. Little quantitative research has examined role model influence on women's career development in male-dominated occupations in the sport industry. This study focused attention on the hypothesis that women are underrepresented because of their low self-efficacy. Increasing self-efficacy by having positive female role models could advance opportunities for women's leadership and reduce turnover rates. Based on previous study results, this paper generated a hypothesis that role model influence increases self-efficacy in women. Since only a few studies are available regarding women's role model influence in the sport industry, especially in professional sports settings, this study aimed to serve as an introduction to stimulate further research for women's role model influence in the sport industry.

Women in the baseball industry likely face barriers similar to women in other segments of the sport industry such as women's underrepresentation in higher levels in sport organizations (Knoppers, Bedker Meyer, Ewing, & Forrest, 1990; Sartore, & Cunningham, 2007), and in athletic administration (Burton, Grappendorf, & Henderson, 2011). Women in management positions in professional baseball also likely face similar barriers as women in other sport industry segments (Bower & Hums, 2009; Hancock, 2012; Schein, 2001; Shaw, 2006).

However, what makes the professional baseball industry different from other sports organizations are the aspects of participation and cultural gender stereotypical ideas. In the sport industry, comparisons between the number of female participants and number of women in leadership positions are common. "Despite an increase in female

participation as athletes, there continues to be a trend in the decline of women in positions of power in sports” (Tucker Center Fall Distinguished Lecture, 2012, para. 1). The absence of female players in professional baseball makes women getting into baseball operation jobs significantly more difficult and creates stereotypical ideas about women such as not understanding the game, being a secretary, and working in baseball to find a future husband (Hums & Sutton, 1999). Moreover, baseball historically was transformed from a mere pastime to an important cultural symbol defined as completely masculine (Ferrante, 1994). It is important to acknowledge these barriers and consider recommendations to overcome them. Given the dearth of information about women in the management of professional baseball, this study attempted to establish basic information about women working in leadership positions in the baseball industry. The results of this study will provide keen insight into the career challenges and work climate for women working in professional baseball. This information can prove to be useful to officials in the sport industry to increase women’s participation in leadership positions. It also will provide researchers useful insight into the status of the careers of women in leadership in a segment of the sport industry that has not yet been explored.

Purpose

When considering sex differences in career-related self-efficacy, it is important to conduct research on the influence of role models on women’s self-efficacy for women’s career development. Current research explains that observing successful role models increases a person’s self-efficacy (DeSantis & Quimby, 2004; Everhart & Chelladurai, 1998; Lirgg et al., 1994; Moran-Miller & Flores, 2011). Research indicates

self-efficacy may be particularly important in understanding women's career development (Cunningham et al., 2007; Betz, 2007; Hackett & Betz, 1981) A stronger sense of self-efficacy with regard to specific career-relevant behaviors may enable women to consider a wider range of career options, including becoming leaders in their field.

Accordingly, the purpose of the present study was to examine the influence of role models on the leader self-efficacy and career development of women working in management positions in professional baseball by measuring leader self-efficacy, perceived barriers, and outcome expectancy.

Research Questions

The study's five research questions addressed the relationship of role model influence on women's career development as leaders. To achieve the study's purpose, the following research questions were addressed:

1. Is there a significant main effect of role model existence on role model information, leader self-efficacy, career barriers, and future leadership outcome expectations?
- 2A. Is there a significant main effect of role model's gender on leader self-efficacy?
- 2B. Is there a significant main effect of work place (Major League Baseball League and Minor league Baseball League) on leader self-efficacy?
- 2C. Is there a significant interaction effect of work place (Major League Baseball League and Minor league Baseball League) and role model gender on leader self-efficacy?
3. Are each of the three factors (role model influence, career barrier, and leader

self-efficacy) significant predictors of future leadership expectations?

The study research questions considered participants' perceptions regarding role model influence on their confidence of leadership behaviors and career development.

Delimitations

This study had the following delimitations:

1. The study is limited to women employed as managerial positions in professional baseball industry.
2. The study is limited to only baseball not other sports industry segments.
3. The sample of this study is limited to North American sample comparisons between leagues.

Limitations

The study has the following limitations:

The study only included women listed in the *2013 Baseball America Directory* as working in management positions in Major League or minor league baseball. For purposes of this study, "minor league baseball" includes teams in National Association of Professional Baseball, as well as Independent League teams. Women who work for major and minor league baseball were selected in order to make meaningful comparisons.

Definitions

1. Self-efficacy: According to Bandura's social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1997), self-efficacy is defined as individual's belief about capability to generate and analyze a desired performance on a task, and have predictive power on performance across different behavioral domains.
2. Outcome expectancy: Outcome expectations refer to the belief that, given the performance of a particular behavior, certain results will follow (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994).
3. Leader self-efficacy: Leader self-efficacy is the ability to lead others effectively and successfully, and the confidence in the capability to lead (Machida & Schaubroeck, 2011).
4. Performance Accomplishment: successful mastery of performance or experience tends to increase one's self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is established by the actual experience of success and fulfillment (Bandura, 1986).
5. Vicarious learning: vicarious learning also significantly influences self-efficacy expectations. Modeling is quite effective and influential when models or their activities are directly related to that of the observer (Bandura, 1986).
6. Modeling: according to the Social Cognitive Theory, which is a process where people learn others' attitudes, values, and beliefs and eventually formulate their own, people learn behaviors and skills by observing others, which is termed as "modeling" (Bandura, 1986). "Learning by imitation" and "learning using a role model" are very significant because people are able to learn the appropriate ways to behave without actually experiencing them in various situations, and

build up their skills by observing the role model (Bandura, 1977).

7. Role model: role models are significant others who are thought to be similar to oneself, and who people respect and wish to be like them. Role models can be anyone who people encounter either directly or indirectly, who can give influence to decisions and behaviors (Bandura, 1977). They encourage people to identify and imitate patterns of interpretation by providing examples of behaviors and values. They also serve as an important example and provide ways of finding oneself in his environment or society (Bandura, 1977).
8. Barriers: events or conditions that make career progress difficult (Swanson & Woitke, 1997).
9. Homologous reproduction: “Homologous reproduction is a process whereby dominants reproduce themselves based on social and/or physical characteristics” (Stangl & Kane, 1991, p. 47).
10. Old Boy’s Network: “because men have historically dominated high-level hierarchical positions, women are less likely to be included in these informal, high-level interactions” (Brass, 1985, p. 329).
11. Work-family conflict: “a type of inter-role conflict wherein at least some work and family responsibilities are not compatible and have resultant effects on each domain” (Dixon & Bruening, 2005, p. 228).
12. Social role theory: Eagly (1987) defined this as “...more than beliefs about the attributes of women and men: Many of these expectations are normative in the sense that they describe qualities or behavioral tendencies believed to be desirable for each sex” (p. 13).

13. Role congruity theory: role congruity theory indicates that prejudice toward female leaders is related to the perceived incongruity between the prescribed gender role expectations for women (e.g. nurturing, passive, sympathetic) and the masculine characteristics that are associated with successful leaders (e.g., aggressive, ambitious, dominant; Eagly & Karau, 2002).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Considering gender differences in career-related self-efficacy, it is important to conduct research on the influence of role models on self-efficacy for women in their career development. Current research explains that observing successful role models increases a person's self-efficacy (DeSantis & Quimby, 2004; Everhart & Chelladurai, 1998; Lirgg et al., 1994; Moran-Miller & Flores, 2011). Research indicates self-efficacy may be particularly important in understanding women's career development. A stronger sense of self-efficacy with regard to specific career-relevant behaviors may enable women to consider a wider range of career options, including becoming leaders in their field.

Accordingly, the purpose of the present study was to examine the influence of role models on the leader self-efficacy and career development of women working in management positions in professional baseball by measuring leader self efficacy, perceived barriers, and outcome expectancy.

In order to examine the current situation of women's leadership and role model influence on women's leadership, the first section of this chapter will examine the small percentage of women working in leadership today, and discuss how women are under-represented in higher positions, especially in business and sports industry organizations including intercollegiate athletics, Olympic and Paralympic organizations,

and professional sport settings. Explanations of the various barriers women encounter in the work place will be presented in accordance with theoretical frameworks such as Social Role theory and Role Cognitive Career theory. Each of these theories will be followed by detailed reviews of relevant literature pertaining to women's under representation in higher positions in sport industry.

One of the major barriers related to women's under representation in leadership positions is the concept of low self-efficacy. The next section focuses on the description of self-efficacy, and how it can be increased according to Bandura's theory of self-efficacy. A brief description of Bandura's social cognitive theory will be followed by detailed analysis of self-efficacy, leader self-efficacy and women's self-efficacy. The review of the theories will also provide a background concerning the impact that a role model has on leader self efficacy. This section will look into role model influence on the career development of women in the sport industry. In order to establish a clear understanding of what a role model is, the last section of this paper discusses the psychological definition of a role model, including the various types of role models, and how they exert influence over women's career choices and interests. The importance of a role model will also be verified in the literature from the business field and sports industry. Based on previous study results, this paper will generate a hypothesis that role model influence increases self-efficacy in women. Since there are few studies available regarding the influence of role models on women in the sports industry, especially in the professional sport setting, this study will aim to serve as an introduction to further research in this area.

Women in the Workforce

This section examines statistical information regarding the underrepresentation of women in business and the sports industry. Women's increased participation in business significantly influences the economy. However, barriers exist for women entering management positions worldwide. According to a recent International Labor Organization report ("Women in Management," 2004), although women represent more than 40% of the world's labor force, their share of management positions remains unacceptably low, as women hold less than 6 % of CEO positions (Jenner & Ferguson, 2009).

In the United States, women make up 47% of all workers (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012). Statistics show consistent inequality between the numbers of men and women holding major leadership roles in business settings. Women hold 14.4% of executive officer positions at Fortune 500 companies and 7.6% of top earner positions, while 27.4% of these companies have no female executive officers (Catalyst, 2010). The number of women in management positions should be higher so that women have the opportunity to hold more decision-making positions. Since women make up slightly more than 50% of the population, it is fair for women to have equal opportunities for promotion to leadership positions. According to Bloomberg (2013), the number of women holding the role of chief financial officer (CFO) increased 35% at large U.S. companies in the past year, putting more female executives in the top ranks of management after decades of slow gains. There were 54 women serving as CFOs among Standard & Poor 500 Index companies as of 2013, up from 40 a year earlier, according to data compiled by Bloomberg Rankings. While the growth marks progress for female managers at a time when there has been little change at the chief executive officer level, men still account for almost 90% of CFOs in the index

(Frier & Hymowitz, 2012).

Research by Catalyst (a New York City based nonprofit organization which seeks to advance women in business) on Fortune 500 companies indicated that companies with the greatest gender diversity in executive ranks perform better financially than less diverse organizations (Jenner & Ferguson, 2009). Diverse groups include people who come from different perspectives, and this breadth of thought enhances opportunity for creativity and problem solving. Increased women's representation in leadership positions enhances diversity. Recent research suggested a threshold effect. This means that the performance of companies increases significantly once a certain critical mass is attained. In business, this critical mass seems to be at least three women on management committees that have an average of ten people (Desvaux, Devillard-Hoellinger, & Baumgarten, 2007). When there is a critical mass of women, their identities as women become less important and they are more likely to be seen for their competencies (Eagly & Carli, 2007).

These numbers provide a backdrop for the status of women in leadership positions generally. Although the number of women in leadership positions is on the rise overall, women are still underrepresented in both business generally and sports industry, specifically. There is limited research on women's leadership in the sports industry, and it is important to address the reason for this lack of representation of women in leadership positions and to understand the limitations and barriers women face in leadership positions in sports industry. The focus of this study is on the influence of role models on the status of women in leadership positions in the sport industry. The following discussion shows that women are underrepresented in leadership positions in sport organizations such as intercollegiate sports, international sport, and professional sport. Hence, there is a need to

determine strategies, such as the influence of role models, to increase women's representation in the sport industry.

Sport Industry

Girls and women have made substantial gains in participation rates at many levels of sport and physical activity (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012). Not only do more female athletes participate in sports, they compete successfully at elite levels such as the Olympic and Paralympic Games. At the London Olympic and Paralympic Games female athlete participation rates broke previous records. Despite these gains, women are clearly under-represented in leadership positions in the sports industry. There has been little or no change in the numbers of women who work their way to the top. The sport industry is traditionally considered a male dominated industry (Bower & Hums, 2009; Burton, Barr, Fink, & Bruening 2009; Burton, Borland, & Mazerolle, 2012; Burton, Grappendorf, & Henderson, 2011). The under-representation of women within sports organizations has received considerable attention (Inglis, Danylchuk, & Pastore, 1996, 2000; Sartore & Cunningham, 2007). The literature indicates that women continue to be underrepresented in leadership positions in intercollegiate athletics (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012; Hancock, 2012; Lapchick, 2010), interscholastic sport (Ladda, 2007; Mather, 2007; Whisenant, Pedersen, & Obenour, 2002), campus recreation (Bower, 2004), health and fitness (Bower & Coffee, 2007), professional sports (Hums & Sutton, 1998; McDonogh, 2007) and international sports (Hums, Barr, & Döll-Tepper, 1998; Hums, Moorman, & Nakazawa, 1998; IOC, 2012; Itoh, Hums, Bower & Moorman, 2013). The next section will further examine in detail the proportion of women leaders in the sports industry.

Intercollegiate Athletics

As in other sports organizations, the number of women is increasing in intercollegiate athletics. In 2012, 13,792 female were employed within intercollegiate athletics (including coaches, assistant coaches, SIDs, Athletic Trainers, athletics administrators, and Strength and Training Coaches) - the highest number ever (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012). Acosta and Carpenter (2012) reported the following descriptive statistics on women holding administrative positions in intercollegiate athletics: (a) 3974 females are employed as coaches, (b) 7024 females are employed as assistant coaches, (c) 215 females are employed as athletics directors. Due to the influence of Title IX, girls and women have had an increased opportunity to participate in sports, especially in interscholastic and intercollegiate sports. Correspondingly, the number of coaching positions for female teams has also increased (Acosta & Carpenter, 1985). Although sport participation opportunities for girls and women have dramatically increased as well as coaching positions for women's sports, the percentage of women in coaching positions significantly decreased.

According to Acosta and Carpenter (2008), women occupy only 21% of all head coaching positions in intercollegiate athletics of both men's and women's teams, and only 43% of head coaching positions in women's intercollegiate athletics. These numbers represent a decrease from women holding 90% of coaching positions in women sports before the passage of Title IX (Acosta & Carpenter, 2008). Because of the absence of female leaders in sport, female athletes may perceive that opportunities for coaching and leadership within sport are limited (George, 1989). Because there are fewer female than male coaches coaching girls' and women's sports, especially at the interscholastic and

intercollegiate levels, the opportunity to have a same-gender role model in sport has decreased for girls (Lirgg, DiBrezzo, & Smith, 1994). According to survey data (Women's Sports Foundation, 2001), unfortunately, young female athletes have two-thirds fewer same sex role models than boys. In a qualitative exploration of female athletes' interest in sport-related careers, coaching role models emerged as an important factor influencing athletes' perception about career possibilities (Lee, 1999). Even though there is information concerning the importance of having a female role model for female athletes, very few studies have specifically examined the impact of female coaching role models. Because current female athletes represent the largest pool of potential female coaches (Everhart & Chelladurai, 1998; Pastore, 1991), it seems especially important to better understand the specific factors that might influence their interest in the coaching profession as a crucial step toward reversing the steady decline of women in leadership positions and bridging the gender gap in sports.

International Olympic Committee

According to the IOC (2012), 42% of the more than 11,000 athletes assembled in Beijing in 2008 were women. That number is up from less than 26% in 1988, illustrating the success of an aggressive campaign by the International Olympic Committee to move towards gender equality. However, Strawbridge (2000) stated that national and international sports organizations made slow progress incorporating women into leadership positions. The first two female members of the International Olympic Committee (IOC) were not elected until 1981 (IOC, 2012), and for 87 years the IOC was exclusively male (Davenport, 1996). To remedy this situation, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) set the following objectives: NOCs (National Olympic Committees), IFs

(International Federations), National Federations and sporting bodies belonging to the Olympic Movement must set the objective of reserving at least 20% of decision-making positions for women (particularly in all executive and legislative bodies) within their structures by the end of 2005. This objective was not achieved by 2005. However, the first objective (having at least 10% of women in decision-making positions by December 2000) was met by more than 61% of NOCs and 52% of IFs (IOC, 2012). According to Loughborough's research (2010) entitled "Gender Equality and Leadership in Olympic Bodies", the Olympic Movement has yet to attain the 20% target for women in decision-making positions. The IOC itself and its affiliates have not done well, falling short of their own goals. According to IOC data on women, leadership, and the Olympic movement, of the IOC's 110 members, 16 are women and only one serves on the powerful 15-member executive board. The majority of the 205 National Olympic Committees (NOCs) have executive bodies that are at least 80% male, and only two of the 35 Olympic sports federations have women presidents (IOC, 2010). Although female athletes' participation numbers have increased, the percentage of women in leadership positions still remains much lower compared to the number of women participants.

International Paralympic Committee

Similar to the International Olympic Committee, in 2003 the International Paralympic Committee General Assembly adopted a policy stating that the IPC, National Paralympic Committees (NPCs), International Organizations of Sport for the Disabled (ISOD), and sport entities belonging to the Paralympic Movement should immediately establish a goal that women hold 30% of all offices in their decision-making structures by 2009 (IPC, 2009). Though many member organizations have missed the target deadline,

the number of female representatives has increased. According to the IPC Women in Sport Committee (2008), the percentage of women in leadership positions is as follows: 19% of positions within all IPC decision making, 29% of IPC Standing Committees and Councils, and 10% of the leaderships positions within the IPC Governing Board and National Paralympic Committees' leadership structures. Also, only 19% of countries have women as Presidents or Secretaries General. In 2008, 17% of NPC staff members were women, and that number rose to 23% in 2010 (IPC, 2012). As of 2013, three women are on the IPC governing board - Ann Cody of the United States, Rita van Driel of Netherlands, and Kyung-won Na of South Korea (IPC, 2013).

Although the number of women in leadership position is on the rise overall in the Olympic and Paralympic Movements, women are still underrepresented in both business and the sport industry. There is limited research on women's leadership in sports industry, and it is important to address the reason for lack of representation of women in leadership positions and to understand the limitations and barriers women face in leadership positions in sports industry. One industry segment where women in leadership positions have not been studied is professional sport.

Professional Sport

According to Lapchick 's Racial and Gender Report card data, the representation of women in senior administrators (senior administration includes, but is not restricted to, the following titles,: directors, assistant general managers, senior managers, general counsel, legal counsel, senior advisors, assistant vice presidents, public relations directors and directors of community relations) is as follows: NFL 20% (91women), MLB 18% (71 women), NBA 25% (189 women), MLS had 20.7% (31 women) and WNBA had 52%

(30women) (Lapchick, 2012). The Racial and Gender Report Card (Lapchick, 2013) reported that in the last decade (2001-2010), the representation of women in executive management positions declined in five of the six major North American professional sport leagues [i.e., National Football League (NFL), Major League Baseball (MLB), National Hockey League (NHL), National Basketball Association (NBA), Major League Soccer (MLS)]. The Women's National Basketball Association (WNBA) was the only exception, reporting a 19% increase in the number of women in executive management (Lapchick, 2012). The percentage of women who were senior team administrators in the WNBA increased from 33 to 52 percent in 2012, a 19 percentage point increase. Lapchick stated that "The standard for racial and gender diversity amongst all professional leagues is led by the WNBA" (Lapchick, 2013, p 1). Laurel J. Richie, the first woman of color to become president of a professional sports league, continued the WNBA's proud tradition as professional sport's most diverse organization. Only a small proportion of women leaders take part in the professional sports industry, especially in MLB. Moreover, there is only limited research concerning women's leadership in the professional sports industry, and Hums and Sutton's (1999) research is the only major research done on women working in management positions in MLB.

It is important to address the lack of representation of women in leadership positions and to understand the limitations and barriers women face in leadership positions in sports industry. This research paper is significant for examining women's leadership in the professional sports industry, particularly in regards to the MLB. This under representation of women in management also occurs in MiLB (Minor League Baseball) as well. According to MiLB (2012), there are only five female general managers among the

160 affiliated Minor League teams. Amy Venuto, a front office veteran who currently serves as an executive director for Ripken Baseball, a group that owns and operates the Aberdeen Iron Birds, Charlotte Stone Crabs and Augusta Green Jackets, explained the under representation of women holding leadership positions in MiLB by saying that “Women often choose (or are funneled into) organizational roles with little room for advancement. Women should adopt a whatever-it-takes attitude, including within the higher-pressure and often particularly testosterone-driven world of sales. If more women are in roles that could lead to general manager, then that could really change things” (Hill, 2013, para, 6).

Women Working in Professional Baseball

Very few women take part in leadership roles across all professional sports within the U.S., but amongst all, MLB ranks lowest of the five major North American professional sport leagues with the percentage of women taking part in leadership positions is as low as 18% in 2012 (Lapchick, 2012). On the 2012 Racial and Gender Report Card, MLB received a C+ for the category of gender hiring practice. In 2013, MLB improved its grade to B+ / A– by tremendous effort for diversity initiative of Commissioner Bud Selig and his team in the League office, led by Wendy Lewis, Sr. Vice President for Diversity and Strategic Alliances. Also, Lapchick (2013) assumed that the release of movie “42” about the life of Jackie Robinson raised awareness about the diverse mixture of people participating in the sport through all levels: on the field as coaches and players, as well as those in the front office might have helped increase the focus on diversity as the 2013 MLB season began. Looking into more details, no females work as general managers, or coaches, although 155 women make up 35.6 % of the MLB league office workforce. Moreover

17.7% (59 women) of team senior vice presidents or vice presidents are women (Grade F), 26.9% (414 women) of the senior administration are women (Grade C), and 26.3% (357 women) of team professional administration positions (Positions categorized as professional administration include, but are not restricted to: managers, coordinators, supervisors, and administrators in business operations such as marketing, promotions, publications and various other departments) are women. Traditional support staff positions such as secretaries, receptionists, administrative assistants, and staff assistants are not included in these categories (Lapchick, 2013).

Even with the improvement in MLB's diversity record, these numbers still give the impression that MLB is a male-dominated organization in the sports industry and the organization still has room for improvement with an overall gender grade of B+. For women, the most difficult area of baseball management to break into is baseball operations (Hums & Sutton, 1999). For example, no woman has ever been a MLB General Manager. Jean Afterman of Yankees is the only female assistant general manager (Lapchick 2012). According to Kim Ng, a former female assistant MLB Assistant General Manager and current Senior Vice President for MLB Baseball Operations, "I really think it's up to those in management and positions of power to make the leap of faith" (Bacaj, 2009, p9).

This under representation of women in management levels also occurs in Minor League Baseball (MiLB). According to MiLB (2012), there are only five female general managers among the 160 affiliated Minor League teams. Amy Venuto, a front office veteran who currently serves as an executive director for Ripken Baseball (a group that owns and operates the Aberdeen Iron Birds, Charlotte Stone Crabs and Augusta Green Jackets) explained the under representation of women in leadership positions in MiLB by

saying that “Women often choose (or are funneled into) organizational roles with little room for advancement. Women should adopt a whatever-it-takes attitude, including within the higher-pressure and often particularly testosterone-driven world of sales. If more women are in roles that could lead to general manager, then that could really change things” (Hill, 2013, para.6).

Ferrante (1994) wrote about the United States and baseball, explaining that, “as baseball was transformed from a mere pastime to an important cultural symbol, it was necessary that it be defined as completely masculine” (Ferrante, 1994, p. 241). Women who work in professional baseball need to overcome gender stereotypes such as not understanding the game, being a secretary, and working in baseball to find a future husband (Hums & Sutton, 1999). The professional baseball industry exhibits different elements of a male dominated industry compared to college athletics. In college athletics, female held almost 90% of all head coaching positions for women’s team prior to Title IX and in the Olympic Movement, participation by female athletes increased to 44.2% of all competitors in the 2012 Olympic Games in London. The professional baseball industry has significant gender stereotype images of masculinity and no female players at the field, making baseball operation jobs and leadership positions heavily male dominated. Plus, there is no parallel law such as Title IX which regulates women’s participation as athletes or managers in professional sport. Title IX only applies to sport in educational settings.

This male-dominated portion of the professional sport industry segment has received little attention from researchers examining women in sport management and women working in professional baseball will be a perfect example to provide useful information on the status of women working in a male-dominated workplace. Women

working in management positions in professional baseball (MLB, MiLB, and Independent Leagues) will be the focus of the present study.

The current status of women leaders was statistically reviewed in the previous section, demonstrating in detail how the number of women leaders is still very small. The next section will, therefore, further examine the reasons why there are so few women leaders, and look into detail at barriers that discourage women from attaining leadership or decision-making positions. However, what makes the professional baseball industry different from other sports organizations are the aspects of participation and cultural gender stereotypical ideas. In the sport industry, comparison between number of female participants and number of women in leadership positions are often discussed. "Despite an increase in female participation as athletes, there continues to be a trend in the decline of women in positions of power in sports" (Tucker Center Fall Distinguished Lecture, 2012). The absence of female players in professional baseball makes women getting into baseball operation jobs significantly more difficult and causes stereotypical ideas about women such as not understanding the game, being a secretary, and working in baseball to find a future husband (Hums & Sutton, 1999). Moreover, baseball was transformed from a mere pastime to an important cultural symbol defined as completely masculine (Ferrante, 1994). It is important to acknowledge these barriers and consider recommendations to overcome them. Given the dearth of scholarly information about women in the management of professional baseball, this study attempts to establish baseline information about women working in leadership positions in the baseball industry.

Summary

The current status of women leaders was statistically reviewed in this section, demonstrating in detail how women leaders in the sport industry are still few in number. Women working in management positions in professional baseball (MLB, MiLB, and Independent Leagues) were the focus of the present study. This male-dominated portion of the professional sport industry segment has received little attention from researchers examining women in sport management and women working in professional baseball present a perfect example to provide useful information on the status of women working in a male-dominated workplace. The next section will, therefore, further pursue the reasons why there are too few women leaders, and look into detail at what barriers are actually discouraging women to take part in leadership or decision-making positions.

Barriers to Women's Advancement

This section will describe barriers to women's advancement to leadership positions and analyze the gender role stereotypes and perceptions of the gendered opportunities that are major impediments for women's career development. Swanson and Woiatke (1997) defined barriers as events or conditions that make career progress difficult. Women seeking employment in male-dominated professions face many barriers, which decrease the chances of obtaining leadership positions. Hayes (1985) and Hums and Sutton (1999) defined non-traditional and male-dominated occupations as those having less than 30-34% women in their ranks. Many researchers examined the structural organizational barriers women encounter in advancing to higher-level management positions in business and the sports industry such as (a) old boys network (Bower & Hums, 2009; Hancock,

2012; Schein, 2001; Shaw, 2006), (b) homologous reproduction (Aicher & Sagas, 2009; Whisenant et al., 2002), (e) work-life balance issues (Bruening et al., 2008; Bruening & Dixon, 2007; Dixon & Bruening, 2007; Sagas & Cunningham, 2004) and (d) gender role stereotypes and perceptions of gendered opportunities (Burton et al., 2009; Burton et al., 2011; Grappendorf et al., 2004; Grappendorf et al., 2008). The next section provides more detail about barriers women face in attaining leadership positions.

Old Boys' Network

According to Brass (1985), “because men have historically dominated high-level hierarchical positions, women are less likely to be included in these informal, high-level interactions” (p. 329). Business communities that have traditionally been male-dominated have their own individual cultures, atmospheres, and traditions that are cultivated within each organization. Usually, these are not written down in any way, but are implicitly developed, shared, and carried on amongst the majority, usually the male members. A term used to refer to this exclusive, informal human relations and organizational structure is “Old Boys’ Network.” Networks such as factions within offices, drinking partners, business workshops, and management friendship associations come in a variety of forms. A network in an organization usually includes culture and unspoken rules. These are typically poorly conveyed to women since women are often excluded from the networks. On the other hand, men are able to exchange information and facilitate business relations using their network of personal connections. In order for women to overcome the “Old Boys’ Network” barrier, they should depend not only on company activities which promote diversity, but should focus on the importance of networking regardless of gender, and re-form their consciousness by taking measures such as positively developing a

network of connections with key persons in their organization (Gamba & Kleiner, 2001).

Homologous Reproduction

Stangl and Kane (1991) defined homologous reproduction as “a process whereby dominants reproduce themselves based on social and/or physical characteristics” (p. 47). This process becomes a career barrier that prevents the women from advancing in many occupations and “reproduces male hegemony” (Stangl & Kane, 1991, p. 59).

Kanter (1977) stated that managers use action that sets in “motion forces leading to the replication of managers of the same kind of social individuals”(p. 48). Kanter (1977) explained homologous reproduction is an idea regarding organizational behavior whereby power, opportunity, and proportion influence the hiring process. Power is the concept that one maintains an influential position in his/her respective organization and may also indicate influence over media, society, and other significant fields (Kanter, 1977).

Opportunity is the possibility that an individual can achieve top-level leadership positions in his/her organization under equal chances. According to Kanter (1977), the proportion of certain individuals in powerful positions influences the opportunities for any under-represented groups in the hiring process. In the sports field, it is typically men who possess power and tend to hire other men who have the same qualification as themselves. Therefore, men have the opportunity to advance to top-level leadership positions whereas women, who do not originally have power, are not given the same opportunities as men. For instance, the proportion of men in powerful positions such as athletic directors and head coaches negatively influences women’s opportunities because, under homologous reproduction, men are likely biased to hire other men for powerful positions instead of women. Men, who hold higher-level positions, have more power and control over athletic

departments. In this way, continued sex segregation occurs in high-level management positions in intercollegiate athletics (Kanter, 1977). Knoppers et al. (1991) indicated that opportunity is gendered in sports organizations and this is one of the main factors that limit women's career development and growth in the sports industry. Other studies have also identified homologous reproduction as a barrier to women's career development within the sport industry (Aicher & Sagas, 2009; Stangl & Kane, 1991; Whisenant, 2008; Whisenant et al., 2002).

Work-Life Balance

Work-life balance has recently become the focus of attention in the sport management literature since it seen as a barrier to women's career development and growth (Bruening & Dixon, 2007; Bruening et al., 2008; Dixon & Bruening, 2005, 2007; Inglis et al., 2000; Greenhill et al., 2009). Dixon and Bruening (2005) defined work-family conflict as "a type of inter-role conflict wherein at least some work and family responsibilities are not compatible and have resultant effects on each domain" (p. 228). Women's participation in business has created a type of inter-role conflict within families that makes it difficult to balance work life and family life. Demands of work negatively limit the time women and men have to spend with the family, and time with the family may also negatively restrict time to spend for work. Female coaches particularly face serious difficulties with balancing work life and family life because they are expected to manage travel requirements and schedules, long working hours, and certain commitments, which make them experience conflict between their role as employees and family members (Bruening & Dixon, 2008; Inglis et al., 1996). Work-life conflict is a major barrier that affects women's career progress and growth for women in coaching (Bruening & Dixon, 2008; Inglis et al., 1996),

intercollegiate administration (Bruening et al., 2008; Inglis et al., 2000), and professional sport management (Hums & Sutton, 1999).

Gender Role Stereotypes and Perceptions of Gendered Opportunities

The glass ceiling, the glass wall and the leadership labyrinth have been used as symbols to describe issues in women's leadership. In 1984, Gay Bryant from *Adweek* used the phrase "the glass ceiling" for the first time to describe the invisible barrier women face on the way to reaching leadership positions. Wirth (2001) explained the glass ceiling as an invisible upper limit in corporations and other organizations, above which it is difficult or impossible for women to rise in the ranks. It is *glass* because it is not usually a visible barrier, and a woman may not be aware of its existence until she "hits" the barrier. In other words, it is not an *explicit* practice. Similar to the glass ceiling, Miller, Kerr, and Reid, (1999) explained the situation describing occupational segregation attributed to employment barriers that restrict the access of women to certain types of jobs or that trap them within certain types of jobs as a "glass wall" (Miller, Kerr, Reid, 1999, p1). Glass walls are likely to persist when (a) organizational cultures create impediments to change, and/or (b) skills necessary to perform jobs in a given agency are not highly valued elsewhere (Miller, Kerr, Reid, 1999).

Previous research (Grappendorf, Lough, & Griffin, 2004; Hancock, 2012) reported the glass wall metaphor in the sports industry. Women rarely get positions in the financial area, which is an important career path to the top level. The research demonstrated that experience with financial matters is an important contributor to career advancement for women in intercollegiate athletic administration.

In order to help women advance in intercollegiate athletics, the National

Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) created the title of the Senior Woman Administrator (SWA) in 1981. The purpose was partly to ensure representation of women, and also to have a woman's voice within the administrative ranks of athletic departments (Hawes, 2002). The NCAA also indicated that the SWA designation must be held by "the highest ranking female administrator involved with the conduct of a member institutions intercollegiate athletic program" (NCAA, 2005, p. 37). Grappendorf, Burton, and Henderson (2008) examined the perceptions of Senior Woman Administrators' (SWA) actual involvement versus desired level of participation in financial decision-making areas (operations, budgeting, capital outlay, salary considerations, media broadcast contracts, and sponsorship advertising) by utilizing gender role stereotyping as a framework. The results from both the quantitative and qualitative analyses of Grappendorf, et al., (2008) indicated SWAs wanted more opportunities to participate in financial operations than they actually were allowed. The qualitative results partially supported the quantitative analysis, as nearly half (48.9%) of respondents believed they were mostly involved in the financial positions, while 43% believed they had limited involvement or were excluded from decision making.

Eagly and Carli (2007) saw the labyrinth as a more appropriate symbol than the glass ceiling to represent women's leadership situations. They highlighted the difference between the glass ceiling and the labyrinth. First, the glass ceiling describes an absolute barrier at a high level in organizations, yet women have still become CEOs of companies, and also presidents and prime ministers of various countries. The barrier is therefore at least permeable, since some women have made it to the top. Second, the glass ceiling implies that women and men have equal access to entry-and middle level positions, but in

reality men enjoy more opportunities (Eagly & Carli, 2007). With these reasons, these authors saw the labyrinth as the more appropriate description of current women's leadership situation. They explained, "Passage through a labyrinth is not simple or direct, but requires persistent awareness of one's progress, and careful analysis of the puzzles that lie ahead" (p.64). The "glass" image can mislead people about opportunities available to women. The transparency of a glass ceiling insinuates that obstructions can be seen, which may not always be possible. They can be complex and invisible. Third, the glass ceiling implies a single, unvarying obstacle and fails to incorporate the challenges which cause many women to drop out at earlier stage on the way to top positions (Eagly & Carli, 2007).

Another barrier women face in the workplace is stereotyping. Taking male stereotypes of women as an example of a barrier, Schein (2001) claimed, "probably the single most important hurdle for women in management in all industrialized countries is the persistent stereotype that associates management with being male" (p. 63). If the managerial position is viewed as a "masculine" one, then, all else being equal, a male candidate appears to have an advantage over a female candidate because people prefer male leaders' masculine characteristics to female leaders' feminine characteristics (Schein, 2001). Schein (1973) developed three forms of the Schein Descriptive Index (SDI) to define both the sex role stereotypes and characteristics of successful middle managers. The research hypothesis was that successful middle managers were perceived to possess those characteristics, attitudes, and temperaments more commonly ascribed to men in general more so than to women in general (Schein, 1973). In similar research Brenner, Tomkiewicz, and Schein (1989) replicated Schein's earlier work. Their sample consisted of 420 male middle-line managers and 173 female middle line managers from four manufacturing

companies, four service-oriented companies, and one combined service and manufacturing company in the United States. The results revealed that attitudes toward male managers' leadership remained the same as in the early 1970s. Dodge, Gilroy, and Fenzel (1995) replicated the research using a sample of 113 male and 77 female adult Master's in Business Administration (MBA) students. They obtained similar results to Schein's previous research (1989). For example, the male managers in the replication studies held attitudes similar to those of male managers in the 1970s. While men referred to women's lack of general management experience as an obstacle for women's rise to top leadership positions, women identified male stereotyping as the major barrier. Based on the outcomes, the authors predicted that as women's participation rate in management improved, women would see men and women as equally likely to be qualified as managers. Despite all the societal, legal, and organizational changes in the almost 20 years between the studies, male managers continue to perceive that successful managerial characteristics are more likely to be held by men in general than by women (Dodge et al., 1995). Unlike male management students, female management students did not consider female managers as inferior to male managers in terms of leadership qualities (Dodge et al., 1995). Female leaders showed leadership attitudes dominated by masculine characteristics. In the 1990s compared to 1970s, female students saw female leaders possessing masculine characteristics. Like male management students, U.S. corporate executives prioritize masculine characteristics in leadership. The nature of managerial sex typing among males should be of concern to those interested in promoting gender equality (Dodge et al., 1995).

It appears that some negative beliefs about a female's ability to perform certain tasks are deeply rooted in traditional gender stereotypes. Research demonstrates that

women are still often viewed as less effective leaders, and men are viewed as better suited for decision-making tasks (Eagly & Carli, 2007). Beliefs that women lack leadership abilities may keep them from entering into managerial positions. Thus, unfavorable stereotypes of others can negatively impact women, regardless of their self-esteem. In addition, occupational barriers to females' success exist (Morrison & Von Glinow, 1990). A recent study of women in a variety of occupations reported that 40% of the women in the study had been denied a raise or promotion because of being a woman (Klonoff & Landrine, 1995). Women face barriers due to the existence of sex-based stereotypes related to masculine traits. These stereotypic beliefs are problematic because they are overgeneralizations that are often inaccurate, leading those in powerful organizational positions to limit opportunities for females. Male managers' unchanged perceptions about female managers leadership characteristics from 1970s remain one of major barriers to female leaders today. Male managers' unchanged perceptions can be more thoroughly analyzed through the lens of social role theory.

Social Role Theory

Eagly (1987) defined social role theory as the concept that there "are more than beliefs about the attributes of women and men: Many of these expectations are normative in the sense that they describe qualities or behavioral tendencies believed to be desirable for each sex" (p. 13). Because normative expectations are gendered, social role theory helps better explain existing gender stereotypes and expectations. The term gender role thus refers to the collection of both descriptive and injunctive expectations associated with women and men (Eagly, 1987). Cialdini and Trost (1998) explained that roles include descriptive and injunctive norms. While descriptive norms refer to consensual expectations

about what members of a group actually do, injunctive norms point out consensual expectations about what a group of people ought to do or ideally would do. Descriptive norms are thus synonymous with psychologists' usual definitions of stereotypes of group members. The descriptive aspect of gender roles originates in perceivers' corresponding inferences from the observed behavior of men and women about their personal qualities. This aspect ranges from activities such as men working outside the home and women staying home as gendered social roles, to the personal qualities that are apparently required to undertake these activities (Eagly, 1987; Eagly et al., 2000). Gender stereotypes thus follow from observations of people in sex-typical social roles, especially men's occupancy of breadwinner and higher status roles and women's occupancy of homemaker and lower status roles (see Eagly et al., 2000).

A key proposition of social role theory is that the majority of these beliefs about the sexes pertain to communal and agentic attributes (Bakan, 1966; Eagly, 1987). Following the concepts introduced by Bakan (1966) about communal and agentic attributes, women, more so than men, are thought to be communal—that is affectionate, helpful, kind, sympathetic, interpersonally sensitive, nurturing, and emotionally expressive. Men, on the contrary are thought to be agentic—that is, aggressive, ambitious, dominant, forceful, independent, self-sufficient, and self-confident (Eagly & Karus, 2002). Social role theory explains how people tend to expect gender stereotypic roles for men and women. Based on social role theory, role congruity theory suggests gender stereotypic beliefs make people prefer to see men in leadership positions because of masculine traits. Such gender stereotypical beliefs prevent women from earning leadership positions (Eagly & Karus, 2002).

Role Congruity Theory

Role congruity theory indicates that prejudice exists toward female leaders related to the perceived incongruity between prescribed gender role expectations for women (e.g. nurturing, passive, sympathetic) and the masculine characteristics associated with successful leaders (e.g., aggressive, ambitious, dominant). If women engage in stereotypically masculine or male-dominated behaviors such as those perceived as necessary in management and leadership positions, they are evaluated less favorably than men exhibiting the same behaviors because the women are violating their societal gender role expectations (Eagly & Karau, 2002). According to role congruity theory, leadership qualities are more agentic and less communal. Men are, therefore, seen more as similar to leadership stereotypes than women because of agentic characteristics. Women get less approval of their agentic leadership behavior, unlike men (Eagly & Karus, 2002). Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell, and Ristikari (2011) showed people's stereotypical beliefs that men are more likely to be leaders because of their masculine traits. The findings demonstrated that stereotypes of leaders were decidedly masculine. Higher status leadership positions were expected to have a more masculine stereotype, as they seemed stereotypically more similar to men rather than women. Hence, women entering higher status positions could face more prejudice because of the greater stereotypical mismatch between women and leadership. Eagly and Karus (2002) examined the effect of perceived incongruity between the female gender role and leadership roles relative to the occurrence of prejudice in the work place. The findings from Eagly and Karus' (2002) work demonstrated less favorable attitudes toward female than male leaders. According to Eagly, prejudices can be explained by role congruity theory, whereby women possess fewer leadership abilities than men, and women

are evaluated less favorably than men as leaders. Such prejudices produce the following consequences: (a) less favorable attitudes toward female than male leaders, (b) greater difficulty for women to access leadership positions, and (c) greater difficulty for women to be recognized as effective leaders. This role incongruity between women and the perceived demands of leadership underlies biased evaluations of women as leaders (Eagly & Karus, 2002).

As in leadership positions in general, stereotypic beliefs prevail in the sport industry. Burton, Barr, Fink, and Bruening (2009) examined the “think manager–think male” paradigm (Schein, 1973) in intercollegiate athletics by evaluating managerial sub-roles. The think manager–think male paradigm compared the similarity of male and leader stereotypes and the dissimilarity of female and leader stereotypes. This research examined the influence of gender stereotyping on administration positions. The study hypothesized that in a male-dominated organization such as intercollegiate athletics, particularly Division I athletics, management is stereotyped as a masculine domain. The results indicated that women are as qualified as men to hold athletic director positions, but men continue to be overrepresented in those positions.

Although women tend to be considered as possessing communal leadership characteristics, the majority of women in Sachs, Chrisler and Devlin’s (1992) study were androgynous (52%) or masculine (33%) in their gender-role orientation. The authors surveyed 95 female managers’ biographic and personal characteristics by using the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI), the attitudes toward women scale (AWS) (Spence, Helmreich & Stapp, 1973), and a biographic questionnaire. The Bem Sex-Role Inventory consisted of 20 stereotypically masculine, 20 stereotypically feminine, and 20 neutral adjectives. The

attitudes toward women scale (AWS; Spence, Helmreich & Stapp, 1973) consisted of 25 statements about roles of women and men. A biographic questionnaire designed by the authors asked age, birth order, marital status, and family information. According to the results of the BSRI, only 11% of the women were classified as feminine and 4% were undifferentiated. This finding showed that women in leadership positions possess more masculine traits than feminine traits. Yet, people's persistent preference of men's masculine trait for leadership roles arises from prejudice promoted by gender role expectations (Eagly & Karus, 2002).

Considering role congruity theory, Sartore and Cunningham (2007) tried to understand the factors causing the lack of presence of women in leadership positions in sport organizations. Their study demonstrated that female workers in sport organizations displayed self-limiting behaviors, valuing themselves as inferior to their male counterparts. These same women may also fail to value themselves as adequate and appropriate leaders and/or coaches. Sartore and Cunningham (2007) applied role congruity theory to indicate underrepresentation of women as leaders within the sport context. Role congruity theory introduces stereotypical beliefs that women are typically communal, and men, on the other hand, are commonly stereotyped as agentic. Sartore and Cunningham (2007) proposed three factors as responsible for women's underrepresentation in higher levels at sport organization, (a) the disproportionality between the number of men and women employed in sport organizations, (b) socially held communal attributions towards women in general have led to the belief that women are less preferable as leaders, and (c) the beliefs of inappropriate categorizations between men and women in sport organizations.

In the same manner, Burton, Grappendorf, and Henderson (2011) examined the

unequal representation of men and women in athletic administration positions at NCAA Division I institutions based on role congruity theory. Their study, which involved a total of 158 female and 118 male ($n = 276$) athletic administrators, evaluated a male or female candidate for an athletic director, compliance director, or life skills director position within athletics. The authors hypothesized that while participants preferred candidates with masculine characteristics for athletic director and compliance director positions, they preferred candidates with feminine characteristics for life skills positions. The findings supported the hypothesis that participants prefer more feminine characteristics in female candidates than in male candidates for life skills positions. There was no significant gender difference in terms of masculine characteristics of both male and female candidates for athletic director positions. For example, the participants gave a 5.06 rating to masculine characteristics for female candidates for athletic director positions and a 5.03 rating to masculine characteristics for male candidates for the same positions. However, there was significant difference in feminine characteristics for life skills director positions. Participants preferred female candidates to possess more feminine characteristics than male candidates. In life skills positions, participants gave a 5.03 rating to feminine characteristics for female candidates, they gave a 4.88 rating to feminine characteristics for male candidates for the same positions. In addition, male and female candidates were perceived as similar in potential and likelihood of success in all three positions. This article indicated that female candidates possess similar leadership characteristics to men. Despite similar leadership characteristics among men and women, women continue to be perceived as significantly less likely to be selected for the athletic director positions.

Women's communal characteristics and desired feminine roles and

characteristics prevent them from attaining leadership positions. However, Eagly and Carli (2003) argued that women's communal characteristics were not always negative. They explained communal traits of women leaders could be effective in leading workers, and may actually be advantageous. Eagly and Carli (2003) explained different advantages in women's leadership style. Women's leadership style, defined as transformational leadership style, may appeal to women because of its communal characteristics (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003). Bass (1990) explained that women's transformational leadership style is more favorable than men's typical transactional leadership style.

In summary, people still prefer the masculine traits of male leadership. This preference becomes a barrier that women face throughout the phases of their careers. Women generally judge themselves as less suited for many nontraditional occupations than men, even when performance on masculine or scientific tasks does not differ (Bandura, 1997). This suggests that the subjective belief that one lacks leadership skills may predict self-selection out of this type of task. As mentioned above, the role of self-efficacy is important in examining women in leadership positions.

Ways to Overcome Barriers

It is important to acknowledge barriers and consider recommendations to overcome them such as (a) supervisor support (Inglis et al., 1996, 2000; Sagas & Cunningham, 2004), (b) networking, (c) mentoring relationships (Bower, 2008, 2009; Grappendorf & Henderson, 2008; Hums & Sutton, 1999; Lovett & Lowry, 1994; Shaw, 2006)), and (d) professional development training (Moore, Parkhouse, & Konrad, 2004).

In the end, the section will closely examine in detail the importance of increasing self-efficacy, which is the main topic of this research paper.

Supervisor Support

Sagas and Cunningham (2004) showed that women increased career satisfaction by receiving support from their supervisors and as a result, fewer women are likely to leave their job or profession in administration (Inglis et al., 1996, 2000) and coaching (Inglis et al., 1996, 2000; Sagas & Cunningham, 2004). Receiving feedback is a very important concept (Bandura, 1977). The increase in the proportion of women participating in administration and coaching may lead to greater networking opportunities, an increased number of mentors, and opportunities for professional development.

Networking

Researchers have suggested that access to and participation in networks are necessary for women to advance in sport organizations (Bower, 2009; Grappendorf & Henderson, 2008; Hums & Sutton, 1999; Judd, 1995; Shaw, 2006). Women are able to access organizational and industry resources, which eventually gives women more power. However, exclusionary networks divide the opportunities for women to collaborate with men (Grappendorf & Henderson, 2008). Without organizational knowledge and the chances to accumulate professional skill development, women lack the factors that are important to achieve influence and power, therefore, women are usually excluded from opportunities to make important organizational decisions. It is significant for women to build networks by collaborating with men in order to obtain influential information and knowledge, and accumulate power in order to gain the opportunity to participate in their organization (Kanter, 1977). Some of the most important people in one's professional

network are mentors.

Mentor

Kanter (1977) suggested that the primary function of a mentor was “to make introductions or train a young person to move effectively through the system” (p. 181). Greenhill, Auld, Cuskelly, and Hooper (2009) proposed that women in senior positions who are able to support other females in the organization can produce organizational change, and Whisenant et al. (2002) also stated that women in management positions are likely to eventually become mentors and role models for women, giving favorable influence over the organization.

Professional Development Opportunities

In order for women to advance to management levels, gaining practical experience and relevant knowledge are said to be necessary when talking about careers of women in sport organization. Researchers such as Moore, Parkhouse, and Konrad (2004) stated that by increasing the number of women participating in sport management preparation programs, women will achieve the opportunities to access to quality training and professional development experiences. Therefore, it is necessary to provide women with these opportunities so that women can eventually advance to management positions.

Summary

In summary, people still prefer the masculine traits of male leadership and tend to select men for leadership positions. This preference becomes a barrier that women face throughout the phases of their careers. Women generally judge themselves as less suited for many nontraditional occupations than men, even when performance on masculine or scientific tasks does not differ (Bandura, 1997). This suggests that the subjective belief

that one lacks leadership skills may predict self-selection out of these types of tasks. As mentioned above, support systems for women are important in examining the characteristics and trends of women in leadership positions. Support systems are indeed very significant in stimulating women's leadership, however, this study takes a step further to focus on the point that the underlying cause that prevents women from gaining leadership positions is women's low self-efficacy. As an ultimate method to cope with the situation, this study proposes measures to increase self-efficacy in women. Especially in the next section, self-efficacy will be explained in detail including the four specific measures that effectively increase self-efficacy. Among the four measures, observational learning is of great significance as it enables women to learn from a role model and as a result, women are able to increase their self-efficacy. The main purpose of this study was to verify this hypothesis by investigating the relationship between the presence of role models and self-efficacy.

This study will focus simply on the hypothesis that women are underrepresented because of their low self-efficacy. Multiple barriers cause women's low self-efficacy. Increasing self-efficacy will help to advance women into leadership positions and reduce turnover rates. Self-efficacy is a key factor in examining women in leadership positions. As mentioned above, one efficient method of increasing self-efficacy is through modeling, which was the focus of this study. The next section will discuss in further detail the concept of self-efficacy and the importance of role model influence on women's career development.

The following section explains the main theoretical framework for this study which is social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1997) as it relates to self-efficacy

and specifically how these studies present the role self-efficacy may play in women advancing into leadership positions and how role models can positively influence women's self-efficacy.

Self-efficacy

This study will focus attention on the hypothesis that women are underrepresented in leadership positions because of their low self-efficacy (Swanson & Wotke, 1997). Multiple barriers cause women's low self-efficacy. Increasing self-efficacy can advance the number of women in leadership positions and reduce turnover rates. One method of increasing self-efficacy is through modeling. Hence, this study looks at the impact of role models on women in leadership in sport.

Self-efficacy is a key factor in examining women in leadership positions. Bandura (2000) stated, "perceived efficacy plays a key role in human functioning because it affects behavior not only directly, but by its impact on other determinations such as goals and aspirations, outcome expectations, affective proclivities, and perception of impediments and opportunities in the social environment" (p.1). According to Bandura's social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1997), self-efficacy is defined as individual's capability to generate and analyze a desired performance on a task, and have predictive power on performance across different behavioral domains. The following section will explain social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1997), which is the main theoretical framework for this study, and discuss how this theory specifically influences women to achieve self-efficacy, which advances women to take part in leadership positions. The previous section of this study explained in detail the reasons

why so few women hold leadership positions, and one reason mentioned for this was that women tend to have lower self-efficacy compared to men. The next section will give a detailed explanation of what self-efficacy is, and how this influences women in leadership positions.

Bandura (1986) maintained that self-efficacy influences people's positive psychological adaptation through performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal (Bandura, 1986). Bandura (1977, 1986, 1997) theorized that successful performance accomplishments are the strongest source of information for self-efficacy judgments. However, three other self-efficacy sources may become more powerful in exerting influence over career efficacy beliefs depending on circumstances and conditions. Vicarious learning, especially under the condition where a role model has much in common with the observer, and verbal encouragement are also very effective in nurturing stronger efficacy by preventing anxiety or negative emotional arousal. When the four sources of information (performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal) are present over time, career self-efficacy is increased and enhanced. Enhanced confidence in oneself will dramatically increase work efficiency and increase the quality of career-related performance (Bandura, 1997). Moreover, strong career self-efficacy produces positive outcome expectations, increases interests in one's efficacious fields, and fosters confidence and endurance to face obstacles and difficulties.

Following this brief description of Bandura's social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1997) and its influence on self-efficacy, this study will now focus on the four major sources of self-efficacy - performance accomplishment, verbal persuasion,

emotional arousal, and vicarious experience. Each of these sources, which are necessary to increase self-efficacy, is defined in detail below followed by specific examples from the Coaching Association of Canada. The Coaching Association of Canada organizes the Women in Coaching program, a national campaign aimed to increase the number of coaching opportunities for women at all levels of sport (Croxon, 2012; Robertson & Cayer, 2012; Whitehead, 2011). This organization provides clear illustrations of how increasing self-efficacy can positively influence career development.

Performance Accomplishment

The first information source to increase one's self-efficacy is performance accomplishment. Successful mastery of performance or experience tends to increase one's self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986). Self-efficacy is established by the actual experience of success and fulfillment. Bandura (1986) postulated that when performance is recognized as closely related to outcomes, strong self-efficacy beliefs demonstrate positive outcome expectations. The stronger one's efficacy expectations, the higher the likelihood that a person will successfully complete a particular task. Furthermore, people with strong self-efficacy tend to make additional efforts even under restricted circumstances. Repeated successes develop strong efficacy expectations and reduce the negative impact of occasional failures. Moreover, strong efficacy can result in successful performance despite expectations of barriers and impediments such as racism and discrimination (Bandura, 1986). In contrast, failure potentially lowers a person's self-efficacy. If performance is recognized as unassociated to outcomes, negative outcome expectations may be produced even if the person has positive efficacy beliefs. Decreased outcome expectations alone or together with weakened efficacy can

discourage people from achieving the skills that are necessary in order to succeed in completing future tasks, consequently resulting in lowered motivations. When people achieve a series of successes or failures, these experiences (past performance) become a major source of self-efficacy. For example, women's self-limiting behaviors reduce their self-efficacy, and also lower their performance accomplishments and outcome expectations. Low performance also negatively impacts women's performance accomplishments and outcome expectations, thereby worsening their future performance.

The Coaching Association of Canada emphasizes providing women coaches with professional development opportunities. Placing women coaches in charge of a new project to attempt a new challenge helps them achieve higher goals and develop more self-confidence, which will eventually convince women to establish even higher goals. Self-efficacy weakens if the outcome is unsuccessful, therefore, it is necessary to provide encouragement for a person if the attempt results in failure. However, there are few opportunities available where women are offered the chance to challenge themselves because the opportunities are more likely to go to male counterparts. It is undeniable that there are limited chances for women to experience performance accomplishment. Therefore, it is important to introduce and delegate tasks that will change women's current beliefs that they are not confident in their ability and provide women more opportunities for challenges in a safer environment for taking risks (Croxson, 2012; Robertson & Cayer, 2012).

Verbal Persuasion

The second source of information concerning self-efficacy derives from verbal persuasion such as verbal messages, encouragement, and discouragement.

Encouragement or persuasion from others increases self-efficacy, while a lack of encouragement or persuasion may decrease it. Verbal persuasion helps people believe they possess capabilities that will enable them to achieve what they seek. People who believe in their capabilities to achieve success are likely to put forward greater sustained effort than people who doubt their capabilities. Lack of encouragement and, obviously, discouragement risk further lowering any originally low or weak efficacy levels and may even damage strong career-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1986; Hackett, 1995). Verbal persuasion suggests that women possess lower self-efficacy expectations than men if they are involved in nontraditional occupations such as accountant, mathematician, engineer, and drafter compared to traditional career options such as dental hygienist, social worker, home economist, and secretary. Women's lower self-efficacy may also result from lack of encouragement or because of less involvement in sports and other traditional masculine domains (Hackett & Betz, 1981). Phrases like, "You can do this," and "You have the ability to do this," which are spoken by a third person, are examples of verbal persuasion. Whenever problems arise, people accept pieces of advice and encouragement from a third person and try their best to face the difficulty. However, people with low self-efficacy accept none of these and do not believe in their abilities. They do not make efforts to increase their capability and give up easily. Moreover, they tend to restrain their motivation to take action to new challenges.

The Coaching Association of Canada's mentor system encourages mentors to deliver constructive feedback and criticism to their proteges in a non-judgmental fashion. Feedback does not necessarily have to be positive. For instance, strict suggestions that come from constructive discussions are productive and important. This example indicates

how significant it is to provide regular feedback to people so they can build confidence in themselves and generate motivation for new challenges. Women who participate in a male dominated field often tend to feel isolated, therefore, it is extremely important to encourage them in order to increase self-efficacy. The CAC reports that the percentage of women coaches has been increasing since they organized this mentor system, suggesting that a consideration of women's self-efficacy can go a long way (Croxsom, 2012; Robertson & Cayer, 2012).

Emotional Arousal

The third source of information influencing efficacy expectations is emotional arousal. Emotional arousal occurs when people judge their level of anxiety and vulnerability to stress. High levels of anxiety weaken self-efficacy and consequent performance; however, reasonable anxiety levels may enhance them. As reported by Hackett and Betz (1981), feminine sex-typed individuals, who are assumed to be more emotional, demonstrate higher levels of anxiety. Emotional arousal is described as a state where an individual is cognizant of his or her advantages and disadvantages, and is able to adapt to sudden psychological changes. When people are fully aware of their own advantages and disadvantages, they are able to control the rise and fall of emotions and, therefore, are able to cope well under circumstances where psychological changes occur.

For instance, a person may become nervous when talking in front of people, but is able to evaluate this weakness by experiencing and realizing this physiological state. For activities requiring stamina and endurance, the degree of exhaustion and pain are some signs of this awareness. What is important is not how people respond physiologically and emotionally, but to recognize how they accept the change.

The Coaching Association of Canada's mentor system emphasizes a safer environment for coaches taking risks, resulting in coaches who feel free to make mistakes without losing self-efficacy. Women in male-dominated occupations tend to feel isolated and inferior to their male counterparts; therefore, they tend to fear failure and lose their chance to take on a challenge. For the Coaching Association of Canada, it is significant to provide comfort and create an assuring environment open for women to take part in new challenges (Croxxson, 2012; Robertson & Cayer, 2012).

Vicarious Experience

The last source of self-efficacy is vicarious experience. According to Bandura (1986), vicarious learning significantly influences self-efficacy expectations. Modeling is quite effective and influential when models or their activities are directly related to that of the observer. When the modeled activity has less to do with the observer culturally or socially, there is less possibility that the observer will learn vicariously from a particular model. Types of models that dominate in a particular social context are key to determining which qualities and behaviors are valued in that social context. Viewing and learning from the success of an individual similar to oneself in terms of gender, job duty, character, etc., will motivate a person to take the challenge to demonstrate his or her ability. For example, one can be encouraged to believe that s/he can accomplish a task without actually experiencing it, but by observing the behavior of people aiming for the same goal or who have achieved that goal. However, if the individual recognizes the model to be totally different from him/herself, not much influence can be expected from the model. In that case, the model needs to positively teach the person necessary knowledge and effective techniques, and the recipient, who is the observer, must accept

the lesson. Only then will there be behavioral transformation.

The Coaching Association of Canada works to maintain successful role models. According to its 2012 report “Without role models at the higher levels of each and every sport, women will not even consider the possibility of coaching at the highest level because you cannot be what you cannot see” (Croxson, 2012, p. 14). A female executive in the male-dominated sports industry, where there are few top-level female workers, will quickly become a valuable role model. Her working habits and how she developed her career will become superb examples to both elementary- and management-level women, making them feel confident that they can become a leader just like her if they perform in the same way (Croxson, 2012; Robertson & Cayer, 2012).

In order to solidify the understanding of role model influence on women’s leadership, the next section examines vicarious learning in much more detail by proposing better explanations of what observational learning is, and how this factor influences role models.

Observational Learning

Performance accomplishment and vicarious experience (modeling) are several aspects of observational learning that influence the development of self-efficacy. Learning may take varied forms, including new behavior, judgmental standards, cognitive ability, and general rules for conducting behavior (Bandura, 1977). Modeling occurs where people observe the successful performances and working habits of the model without actually performing a task themselves. According to Bandura (1997), performance of observationally learned behavior is influenced by three sources: incentives-direct, vicarious, and self-produced. People learn more from the modeled

behavior if the results have valued outcomes and learn less if they do not gain merit from them or if they have punishing effects. Since people can consider what to do beforehand by observing their models, they can potentially save wasted effort when performing a given task. Social learning theory proposes that people tend to select models who offer helpful tips for learning new tasks, skills, attitudes, and norms (Bandura 1977, 1986). As Bandura (1997) said, “Observers may benefit more from seeing models overcome (or discuss overcoming) their difficulties by tenacious effort than from observing only facile performances by adept models” (p.82). These others’ actions provide guidance for action on future occasions. A wide variety of modeled successful performances give a reasonable basis for increasing the observer’s own self-efficacy. In addition, self-efficacy is enhanced when observers learn from others who share desired skills. Observers will be able to exhibit a similar behavior, which they do not originally possess, by observing the behavior of a corresponding model. The strength and direction of the impact of observational learning strongly depends on three elements of people’s self-control: observers’ judgment of their ability to perform modeled behavior, their recognition of rewards and/or punishment, and their likelihood to reproduce similar actions in different situations (Bandura, 1977).

Bandura (1986) explained that observational learning includes four elemental processes. People cannot learn much from simple observation and learning requires careful attention to the appropriate aspects of modeled activities. Firstly, attention process is a mechanism where an individual carefully observes the various behaviors of the model and evaluates what information is particularly beneficial to him/her. During the attention process, individuals decide what information is productive to them and evaluate

whether the behavior of the model is worth learning or not, and select the most efficacious model for their reference. It can be stated that selective attention is an essential sub-factor in observational learning (Bandura, 1986).

Secondly, retention processes convert observations to memory. If people do not remember the observations learned from the modeled activities, chances are small that those activities will influence them, hence the retention of knowledge about activities in symbolic form is very important. In order for the observer to learn from others, modeled information must be imprinted in their memory (Bandura, 1986).

Thirdly, the production process organizes appropriate sub-skills and one's reaction to new response patterns. Modeled activities are mostly represented as guidance to dictate what to do in terms of specific actions. Organizing responses in accordance with the concept of the activity aids in achieving desired behavior (Bandura, 1986).

Finally, motivational processes determine whether the skills and competencies that were acquired by observation will actually be performed or not (Bandura, 1986). According to social cognitive theory, skill acquisition and performance are different because people do not necessarily carry out everything they learn. They may learn and retain the skills in order to execute modeled activities but it is up to them to actually perform the modeled skills. More than likely, people will choose not to perform the modeled activities if the acquired behavior is not worth performing or is associated with high-risk punishment. On the other hand, people will immediately perform observational learning when positive factors are provided (Bandura, 1986).

Specificity of Self-Efficacy

Based on the fundamental principles of social cognitive theory, researchers have studied the characteristics of self-efficacy and its distinctive patterns in various disciplines. In order to get a better understanding of self-efficacy, the next section will examine specific self-efficacy elements in different disciplines. Social cognitive theory explains that self-efficacy could be helpful in mastering a specific task (Bandura, 1999). Many studies focused on conceptualizing and measuring task-specific self-efficacy, which corresponds to specific performance (Pajares & Miller, 1994). This emphasis on specificity has shaped numerous self-efficacy scales that attempt to measure domain-specific or task-specific self-efficacy (Pajares & Miller, 1994). Consequently, self-efficacy research has focused on the effect of relatively task-specific self-efficacy on criteria performance, such as career self-efficacy (Hackett & Betz, 1989), academic self-efficacy (Lopez & Lent, 1992) or math self-efficacy (Pajares & Miller, 1994). Self-efficacy, which is specific to the task being attempted, can be reflected in various tasks in various fields such as mathematics, careers, athlete performance, etc. It is the judgment about being confident that one has the capability to perform a particular activity. The most important point about leader efficacy is to heighten one's capability to be a leader in order to confidently performs the necessary tasks as a leader.

Self-Efficacy Serves As a Predictor of Intention and Behavior

The next section of this literature review will further discuss the concept of leader self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is affected by the judgment of whether an individual possesses the skills and abilities to perform a certain task, and people with higher self-efficacy tend to have confidence in their own skills and abilities. According to social

cognitive theory and social cognitive career theory, self-efficacy increases in three ways - when a task is accomplished by an individual, an individual observes a third person accomplish a task, or when an individual is encouraged to accomplish a task.

Self-confidence or self-efficacy beliefs within leaders are the most integral element necessary to advance the development of leader competency (Machida, 2012).

Leader Self-Efficacy

Leader self-efficacy is the ability to lead others effectively and successfully, and the confidence in the capability to lead (Machida & Schaubroeck, 2011). Some studies suggest that leader self-efficacy is related to higher work performance and leaders' effectiveness (Paglis & Green, 2002; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998) as well as organizational performance (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Researchers point out that it is certain that leader self-efficacy has a great deal to do with leadership development. According to Bandura's (1997) social cognitive theory, one-way self-efficacy influences performance and learning by its impact on actions, efforts, and persistence. Machida et al. (2011) explained that leader self-efficacy is related to women leaders' career ascendancy. Leader self-efficacy is considered to play a significant role in women's career progress, as it increases confidence in women to pursue managerial positions. Strong leader self-efficacy beliefs are likely to influence women to pursue leadership positions, since people with high self-efficacy beliefs tend to have confidence in their own skills and abilities. This dissertation will focus mainly on the concept of leader efficacy, specifically the impact of role models on leader efficacy, and will examine how much confidence women actually have in entering and pursuing a leadership position.

Related to self-efficacy, outcome expectations are important factors for women

to advance in their careers. According to social cognitive career theory, accurate and strong expectations of personal self-efficacy become instrumental for the initiation and persistence of behavioral performance in all aspects of human development.

Outcome Expectations

Lent et al., (1994) extended Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory and Hackett and Betz's (1981) career self-efficacy theory to develop a social cognitive career theory (SCCT). SCCT hypothesizes the influence of personal, contextual, and social cognitive factors on interest formation, career goals, and performance. Outcome expectations refer to the belief that, given the performance of a particular behavior, certain results will follow. An outcome expectation is thus a belief about the consequences of behavior. For example, self-efficacy beliefs are concerned with, "can I do this?" while, outcome expectations address, "if I do this, what will happen?" According to SCCT, accurate and strong expectations of personal self-efficacy become instrumental for the initiation and persistence of behavioral performance in all aspects of human development. In addition, Lent et al. (1994) pointed out that career interests directly influence career goals and that career self-efficacy influences career goals both directly and indirectly (through career interests). Low self-efficacy expectations may prevent people from attempting to perform a task even if they are relatively certain performing that task would lead to desired outcomes (Hackett & Betz, 1981). Women's low self-efficacy is usually linked with low future outcome expectancy, and this may be a reason why gender differences exist when talking about career advancement. Even though women have impressive qualifications and experiences, women tend to hesitate to apply for jobs since they lack the confidence to be successful in the position, resulting in

fewer opportunities to receive employment offers.

The next section of this paper will analyze studies that examine women's self-efficacy, especially on how self-efficacy exerts influence over women in their career development.

Gender Difference in Self-Efficacy

Hackett and Betz (1981) examined the potential power of self-efficacy theory for understanding women's career development, and outlined how each of the four self-efficacy related sources of career information for women may be influenced by traditional, mainstream gender socialization. In their 1981 article, the authors demonstrated occupational gender differences and women's underrepresentation in work environments in terms of self-efficacy. Hackett and Betz's work on self-efficacy provides a useful means for examining why some females may lack confidence in their ability to master difficult tasks. Women continue to be seriously underrepresented in many professions, e.g., law, medicine, mathematics, science, engineering, the skilled trades, and managerial and administrative positions. The authors also suggested that women may lose confidence in their ability to successfully complete nontraditional tasks (Hackett & Betz, 1981). This lack of confidence has potentially far reaching consequences because individuals who believe they lack the skills to master certain tasks may avoid them and turn to less challenging tasks (Bandura, 1977). This is supported by research indicating self-perceived ability to perform tasks is a determinant of task choice (Betz & Hackett, 1981, 1983). If one perceives s/he can be a leader, then s/he may pursue leadership positions. On the other hand, avoiding leadership roles is one form of self-limiting behavior that may negatively influence career opportunities. Women often fail to fully

utilize their individual capabilities, talents, and interests in career pursuits (Farmer, 1976). According to Hackett and Betz (1981), socialization-based differences lead to women's underutilization of their career talents and their underrepresentation, particularly in leadership positions, in many male-dominated, especially higher status, higher paying fields.

According to Bandura (1989), it is important for women to have certain levels of self-efficacy in order to hold leadership positions. Lent and Brown (1996) suggested that unrealistically underestimated low efficacy compared with a person's skills, performance, or both, may result in decreased career performance. Strong self-efficacy produces positive outcome expectations (Lent & Brown, 1996; Lent et al., 1994, 1996). Moreover, strong efficacy expectations are required for effective goal setting, particularly when striving for challenging, achievable goals (Bandura, 1986). However, women's self-limiting behavior reduces their self-efficacy, lowering their performance accomplishments and outcome expectations. Low performance also negatively impacts women's performance accomplishments and outcome expectations, thereby worsening their future performance. Research suggests that negative beliefs about their abilities may underlie females' lower aspirations in careers that are typified as superior, involving authority, and commanding higher pay (Epstein & Bronzaft, 1974; Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989). In general, women are more likely to evaluate their own performance less favorably than men and are more prone to use good luck as an explanation for superior performance (Deaux & Farris, 1977; Vancouver & Ilgen, 1989). For women who doubt their competence, low self-esteem becomes self-limiting. Because the self-limiting woman avoids tasks requiring abilities she believes she lacks, she does not provide

herself with the opportunity to experience the successful completion of the very tasks that could raise her confidence in her abilities. Without a self- or other-initiated intervention, self-limiting behavior can be self-perpetuating. However, Bandura's (1997) work on self-efficacy suggests that negative beliefs about competence are changeable.

In relation to women's self-efficacy in the sport industry, Sartore and Cunningham (2007) revealed that women have a limited capacity to view themselves as leaders and/or coaches. Women's self-limiting behavior reduces their self-efficacy, which, in turn, may result in lower levels of resolve when faced with barriers and adversity, thus resulting in higher rates of turnover. Women who are viewed as incompetent and doubt their own leadership abilities may be passed over for leadership positions. Although some progress has been made in integrating women into nontraditional careers, inequities persist. Moreover, Sartore and Cunningham (2007) indicated that the adversity faced by females within such organizations and resulting levels of self-efficacy result from gender role stereotypes about women and leadership. A related concern is that women could internalize these negative beliefs, leading them to lose confidence in their ability to perform challenging tasks.

Although it is important for women to have certain levels of self-efficacy in work place environments, they often cannot achieve this due to negative factors hindering their ability to increase self-efficacy and develop career paths and aspirations. Swanson and her associates (Swanson, Daniels, & Tokar, 1996; Swanson & Woitke, 1997) suggested that perceived barriers could negatively influence the development of self-efficacy beliefs. Swanson, Daniels, and Tokar (1996) defined barriers as events or conditions that make career progress difficult. They explained "Barriers are not

impenetrable, and they can be overcome, although with varying degrees of difficulty according to the nature of the specific barrier and characteristics of the individual” (Swanson et al., 1996, p. 236). Expectations about one’s ability to accomplish certain career-related activities are undoubtedly influenced by the types of barriers one perceives as interfering with those accomplishments. There seems to be a strong relationship between outcome expectations and perceived barriers. This may be particularly true when assessing the likelihood of confronting barriers in one’s career, but the degree to which barriers will hinder an individual’s career progress is unexplored. Lent et al. (1997) stated that individuals probably consider both their capabilities and possible outcomes in making important decisions. On the Career Barrier Instrument (CBI; Swanson & Tokar, 1991), women typically scored higher on a number of scales such as sex discrimination, multiple role conflict, and conflict between children and career demands, indicating greater perceptions of barriers. Some of the scales measure perceived barriers that have been documented as more likely to exist for women than men. Similarly, scores on other Career Barrier scales such as those measuring lack of confidence, inadequate experience or training, decision-making difficulties, and dissatisfaction with careers also are higher for women (Swanson, Daniels, & Tokar, 1996; Swanson & Woitke, 1997).

According to Ackah and Heaton (2003), for women, the greatest single barrier, experienced by 26% of respondents (human resource management diplomats of the University of Ulster who had graduated between 1993 and 2000) was “lack of confidence.” Interestingly, this was also cited by 15% of men. The negative influence presented by lack of development opportunities was the single greatest barrier for men and the second greatest barrier for women. This study also revealed that lack of role

models and mentors was a frequently quoted negative influence for women. This leads to the important examination of the influence of role models in women's career development.

Leeming and Barruch (1998), in their study of MBA graduates, found that senior women felt isolated and unsupported in male dominated organizations, and their leaving created a gap in terms of role models and mentors for younger women. In addition, an Institute of Management survey also highlighted a lack of career guidance and the existence of a male network as significant career barriers for women (Ackah & Heaton, 2003). Women were much more likely than men to perceive barriers to their careers and have experienced specific barriers, such as "lack of role models," and "confidence."

In the sport setting, Everhart and Chelladurai (1998) found out that long working hours and sex discrimination were the top two reasons why both men and women did not choose college coaching as a career. Everhart and Chelladurai (1998) also pointed out that coaches' genders had an interesting effect on females' perceptions of discrimination. They shared the fact that more female players whose coaches were male answered that they consider perceived discrimination as a significant barrier to entering coaching jobs than those who had female coaches. This is a good example that supports the importance of female role models.

Positive Influence of Role Models

While the lack of female professionals and occupational role models has been identified as a significant barrier to women's career development and has led to women's underrepresentation in managerial positions in the sports industry (Inglis, Danylchuk, & Pastore, 2000; Moran-Miller & Flores, 2011), the presence and availability of female role

models has received support as an important positive influence on women's self efficacy (Everhart & Chelladurai, 1994; Moran-Miller & Flores, 2011). This study formulates an assumption that role model influence on women's leadership could considerably improve women's confidence, outcome expectations and career aspirations. For example, Inglis, Danylchuk, and Pastore (2000) explored the multiple meanings associated with women's coaching and management work experience. To obtain insight into this issue, the researchers conducted semi-structured interviews with eleven women who quit coaching or management positions in women's intercollegiate athletics. A number of respondents discussed the importance of role models. According to their results, "we heard too of how important it was to the women to see other women in administrative or coaching positions, but how frustrating it was when it was perceived the women were letting an undesirable situation keep going" (p.5). The importance of role models for female student-athletes was also raised, and the results suggested that female coaches and administrators can be valuable role models. Unfortunately, a lack of female role models is often seen as a barrier to success (Catalyst Conference Board, 2002). The lack of female role models in the sports industry is related to issues such as the high level of female coach turnover rate (Sartore & Cunningham, 2003), and lack of opportunities for females in scholastic and professional sports (Cunningham, 2003). Thus, role models can make a dramatic difference to a female's future, especially in sports. In addition, the quality of female role models may be as important as the quantity (Quimby & DeSantis, 2006).

The next section analyzes in detail the positive influences a role model can have on women's self-efficacy. Social cognitive theory specifies the relationship between self-efficacy and observational or vicarious experience. Specifically, self-efficacy beliefs

are shaped, in part, by vicarious learning, that is, “observing similar others succeed or fail at a particular activity” (Lent et al., 1994, p. 102). Thus, in theory, exposure to successful role models facilitates the development of positive self-efficacy beliefs. Further, in the absence of opportunities to observe similar others’ successes, self-efficacy may be hindered, especially when an individual lacks direct personal experience with successful performances. A similar relationship is proposed for the development of outcome expectations, with the presence of successful role models facilitating the development of positive outcome expectations (Lent et al., 1994).

Hackett and Betz (1981) first proposed that self-efficacy might be an important variable in role models’ influence on both men’s and women’s career development, achievement, decisions, and adjustment. They strongly stated that career related self-efficacy expectations were important to understand because women’s self-efficacy expectations were significantly higher than men’s for occupations traditionally considered to be female occupations such as nursing and teaching. Women’s self-efficacy expectations were significantly lower than men’s for non-traditional occupations such as engineering and medicine. In the sport industry, research on coaches demonstrated the importance they place on coaching role models. Female coaches are considered role models for young athletes, and the role model influence of coaches motivates female athletes entering the coaching profession (Everhart & Chelladurai, 1998; Lirgg et al., 1994, Moran-Miller & Flores, 2011).

The latter part of this section will look into role model definitions and further examine the role model influence on career aspirations of women in sports-related careers (Cunningham et al., 2003; Everhart & Chelladurai 1998; Lirgg et al., 1994; Moran-Miller

& Flores, 2011).

Theoretical Considerations of the Meaning of Role-Models

In order to examine role model influence on women, it is important to establish a clear understanding of what a role model is. As such, this section discusses the psychological definition of a role model, including the various types of role models, and how they can influence women's career choices and interests.

Role models are significant others who are thought to be similar to oneself, and who people respect and wish to be like. Role models can be anyone people encounter, either directly or indirectly, who can influence a person's decisions and behaviors (Bandura, 1977). They encourage people to identify and imitate patterns of interpretation by providing examples of behaviors and values. They also serve as important examples and provide ways of finding oneself in one's environment or society (Bandura, 1977). According to Social Cognitive Theory, which is a process where people learn other's attitudes, values, and beliefs and eventually formulate their own, people learn behaviors and skills by observing others, which is termed as "modeling" (Bandura, 1986). "Learning by imitation" and "learning using a role model" in various situations are very significant because people are able to learn appropriate ways to behave without actually experiencing them, and build up their skills by observing a role model (Bandura, 1977). Role models can provide an introduction for individuals to understand "how men and women should behave or what they should look like" (Biskup & Pfister, 1999, p 201).

Role models are classified into five different types - partial, charismatic, stage, option, and negative role models. Partial role models, the most common type among the five types, serve as role models to show specific skills and characteristics to the observer.

Charismatic role models such as sport heroes and celebrities simply inspire people and attract the attention through their appealing ability and character. Stage role models serve as examples to show how people should behave at a certain age. Option role models provide multiple views and patterns of behavior that people can apply to different situations. Lastly, negative role models, which are quite different from the other types and a type that no one would wish to become, are models who show how not to behave like them. Given the definition of a role model stated in the previous section, the next section discusses how the necessity and importance of a role model are commonly understood in the sport industry by looking at statistical data. It can be seen that a role model exerts significant influence for people of all ages in the sport industry.

Toward An Understanding of the Role Model

Before going into more detail on role model influence in business, it is important to have an overview of role model influence. One place this can be seen in sport is how athletes/coaches are seen as role models. The Miller Lite report on American attitudes toward sports (Research & Forecasts, Inc., & Miller Brewing Company, 1983) showed that 75% of people in the United States surveyed answered that athletes are good role models for children, and 59% expressed that athletes are often the best role models a child can have. Many studies show that especially male children and adolescents place famous athletes at the top of their list of people they most admire or want to be like (Harris, 1994). Lopiano (2007) suggested that parents see female athletes as even better role models for their children. Wann (2001) stated that the potential for influence of athletic role models is great and it should be quite promising. However, only few studies examine public athlete role models, so there is not much evidence to understand how and

why public athletic role models (such as famous or professional athletes) are chosen and what influence they have on the children who admire them (Harris, 1986). Children have the tendency to select athletic role models who play the same sport and position as themselves, whereas college students tend to select favorite sports performers of the same race (Vander Velden, 1986). In another survey done by Duck (1990) children from grades five through nine were asked to list the names of three people that they, "most want to be like" (including famous people, people who they personally know, and fictional characters or imaginary people). Results indicated 96% of the boys and 83% of the girls listed the names of people who were the same gender as themselves. Moreover, Erkut and Mokros (1984) asked sophomores and seniors at five coeducational and one women's liberal arts college to choose one professor in their faculty who has the most impact on them, and the results turned out to be like many other studies. Most men chose male professors as their role models, whereas females chose female professors. In schools where women made up one-fifth of the faculty, 20% of the student population chose female professors as their role models, and 51% of the students of a women's college (where female professors make up half of the faculty) chose female professors as their role models as well. Erkut and Mokros (1984) explained that women choose female role models to the extent that they are available, and that men actively avoid female role models, preferring instead the higher status and power afforded by male role models. Cuevas' (2012) study revealed same sex peer relationships for intercollegiate female athletes are impacted by leadership behaviors of female coaches (30.6%) slightly more than the female athletes with male coaches (24.5%). For athletes of both male and female coaches, same sex peer relationships are improved with higher levels of social

support—an important indication for increasing positive team dynamics between female athletes. These findings produced new information that same-gender role models could also influence one's confidence in future coaching ability. Studies offer an idea that having a same-gender role model can influence important outcomes, such as students' professional development, career aspirations, and self-esteem (Gilbert, 1983).

Few studies clearly explain the mechanisms for this, but Gibson and Cordova (1999) support the idea that effects for women may be more indirect than direct. They gave an example using a laboratory study by Geis, Boston, and Hoffman (1985) that demonstrated how a female authority figure can subsequently influence the potential of women to practice leadership roles in mixed-gender group interaction. Gibson and Cordova also offered an idea that a public athletic role model may have great influence on his/her admirers, especially in regards to these admirers' future athletic success. Individuals who selected an athlete role model during their growing years were more likely to play sports at a higher level later on, compared to people who did not select an athlete role model during childhood. By having a similar athletic role model to follow, females may become more confident and committed, and not drop out of sports due to gender-role related pressures. As previously discussed, role models exert various positive effects. The next section focuses on the positive impacts of a role model in the business field, and the various ways the presence of a role model positively influences women's leadership.

Role Model Influence on Women's Leadership

The influence of role models on an individual's development and behavior is another variable needing consideration. Within Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory,

role models are seen as a source of vicarious learning through which behaviors are learned and efficacy beliefs are formed. Role models may also exert some influence on individuals by providing verbal persuasion and encouragement to engage in certain types of behavior. Female role models are important for what they stand for - the possibility of success (Quimby & DeSantis, 2006). The subliminal message of these role models is: “If she can do it, so can I” (Hewlett, 2007). It is important for women to share their stories and “secrets” so that awareness can be raised about how to manage careers in androcentric environments. Modeling has been linked to vocational choices (Buunk, et al., 2007; Quimby & DeSantis, 2006) and to women’s choices to select male-dominated occupations (Greene & Stitt-Gohdes, 1997). The relationship between role models and career choices is grounded in several theoretical and psychological mechanisms. The first is that role models provide a good reference point for social comparisons and, as such, will exert influence. Specifically, individuals look at role models and compare their own situations and experiences to those of the role models. This kind of comparison is associated with an evaluation of their own abilities, motives, and possible actions, such that they often find in the role model an image of their own potential future or of what they could achieve in future (Blanton, 2001; Buunk et al., 2007). By observing role models in the workplace, women can adopt or learn leadership qualities in a way that enhances their own leadership performance. This learning process becomes crucial for women’s leadership development.

Gilbert (1983) offered the idea that having a same sex role model can influence important outcomes for people, such as work commitment, research productivity, and self-esteem. Few studies clearly explain the mechanisms for this, but Gibson and

Cordova (1999) supported the idea that the effects of having a same sex role model for women may be more indirect than direct. Dasgupta and Asgari's (2004) study supported Gilbert's same sex role model influence and showed detailed results in their study. Dasgupta and Asgari (2004) investigated (a) whether exposure to women in leadership positions can temporarily decrease women's automatic gender stereotypic beliefs, and (b) whether this effect is mediated by the frequency with which female leaders are encountered. Their study revealed that when women were in social contexts that exposed them to female leaders (i.e., female faculty), they were less likely to automatically express stereotypic gender-biased beliefs. This means that by observing female leaders, female students did not feel inferior to male counterparts, challenging automatic stereotypic beliefs regarding academic performance. They also found that while female students enrolled at coed colleges had less exposure to female leaders (which increased automatic stereotypic beliefs), female students at women's colleges did not have such automatic stereotypic beliefs, likely because they were exposed to more female leaders. Importantly, the existence of female instructors mediated gender biases. These findings underscore the role of exposure in shaping women's non-conscious beliefs about gender stereotyping. The authors concluded that women's regular exposure to female leaders reduced automatic gender biases.

According to Gilbert et al. (1983), female graduate students who identified female professors as role models viewed themselves as more career-oriented and confident than female students who identified with male role models. Furthermore, Gilbert (1985) found that female students rated the role model relationship as more important to their professional development than did male students. Female students

considered the model's personal attributes, life-style, and values as more important than male students when they were asked to select role models. Gilbert (1985) assumed the findings reflected real world factors: having a viable role model may in fact be more essential to female students than to male students, especially since pursuing a professional career can be more problematic for women than for men. Gilbert (1983, 1985) showed that similarity in personal and professional qualities such as career decisions, professional aspirations, and life-style between female workers and their female role models suggested the significance of role models.

However, Hoyt and Simon (2011) explained the importance of similarity of role models by analyzing selected negative aspects. Although having role models has significant positive effects for women, Hoyt and Simon (2011) suggested that elite, high-level female leaders may have a negative impact on women's leadership perceptions and aspirations, unlike high-level male leaders or mid-level female leaders. These research findings showed that exposure to superior female role models (i.e., top-level leaders) can have deflating effects in terms of self-perceptions as well as leadership aspirations. Women exposed to these outstanding female role models reported greater feelings of inferiority compared to women exposed to outstanding male role models and mid-level female role models. If high-level female leaders become more successful as role models, they may do more harm than good to common women's leadership perceptions and aspirations. The similarity of role models and individuals is an important element for women since women tend to feel inferior if the role model is superior to them (Hoyt & Simon, 2011).

A role model's positive influence on career aspirations can be seen in the sport

setting. Observing other positive female leaders improves female athletes' career aspirations. Moran-Miller and Flores (2011) stated that a single positive female coaching role model may positively influence female athletes' perceptions about career possibilities. Career research has demonstrated that role models positively influence women's self-efficacy beliefs, especially those related to nontraditional careers (Quimby & DeSantis, 2006). Likewise, researchers suggested that female role models may encourage women to pursue careers in sports (Nelson, 1991). However, the lack of role models in sport offers fewer opportunities for female athletes to positively aspire to higher positions within their career path. Also, the underrepresentation of women in non-traditional occupations has been cited as a barrier to women's entry into the sport industry (Quimby & DeSantis, 2006).

Role Models and Career Choice

As previously mentioned, Hackett and Betz (1981) extended social cognitive theory to career choice and development, suggesting that role models influence women's career choices. Individuals tend to seek role models who are similar to them in some easily identifiable ways, such as gender or race (Bandura, 1986; Hackett & Byars, 1996; Karunanayake & Nauta, 2004). Karunanayake and Nauta (2004) suggested that role models who are similar in terms of gender and ethnicity may have a greater influence on career development. Role models may be especially important to women because a lack of female role models in nontraditional careers (e.g., engineering, science) has been identified as a barrier for women who choose to enter these professions (Betz, 1994; Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987; Gilbert, 1985). Bandura (1977, 1982, 1986), and Hackett and Betz (1981) explained that observing successful role models increases a person's self-efficacy.

Social cognitive theory and social cognitive career theory suggest that self-efficacy belief is developed through successful task completion (i.e., enactive mastery), watching others complete tasks (i.e., vicarious learning, modeling), or encouragement by respected others (Bandura, 1997; Lent et al., 1994). Watching role models exposes individuals to different aspects of information that they then use in making judgments about their abilities, and provides feedback and instructional contributions regarding performance.

Despite studies showing that role models are influential in women's career decisions, it is unknown whether role models have a direct influence on women's career choices or if they are related to career choice indirectly through their influence on self-efficacy. Previous research on women's career development has identified self-efficacy as a critical factor in women's decisions to choose non-traditional fields (Betz, 1994; Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987; Gilbert, 1985). Social cognitive theory suggests that role models affect career choice directly and indirectly through their influence on self-efficacy (Bandura, 1999, 2000). In other words, role models provide vicarious learning experiences that increase self-efficacy, thereby increasing interests and choices in various educational and career fields. Research has provided support for this hypothesis by showing a relationship between role model influence and self-efficacy (DeSantis & Quimby, 2004; Everhart & Chelladurai, 1998; Lirgg et al., 1994; Moran-Miller & Flores, 2011; Nauta et al., 1998).

DeSantis and Quimby (2004) showed that self-efficacy partially mediated the relationship between role model influence and career choice. Additionally, Quimby and DeSantis (2006) examined the influence of self-efficacy and role models on career choices for each of Holland's (1997) RIASEC (Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social,

Enterprising, Conventional) types among 368 female students ranging in age from 18 to 25 years who were enrolled in Introduction to Psychology courses at a Mid-Atlantic university. The results showed female undergraduate students' self-efficacy and role model influences as predictors of career choice across Holland's (1997) six RIASEC types. This research found that self-efficacy and role model influences accounted for significant variance in career choice in all six RIASEC types. The data showed that overall, the amount of variance in career choice accounted for by self-efficacy and role model influence ranged from 16% for Realistic career types to 39% for Artistic career types. Thus, in addition to the indirect effect of role models on career choice (via self-efficacy), the results also indicated that role models have a small but significant direct influence on career choice. These findings support general social cognitive theory hypotheses regarding the relationships between role models, self-efficacy, and career choice (Bandura, 1999, 2000). In order to further illustrate the influence of role models on careers, the next section of this literature review will look into coaching self-efficacy (Everhart & Chelladurai 1998) and further examine role model influence on career aspirations in a sports-related career (Cunningham, Sagas, and Ashley; 2003; Everhart & Chelladurai 1998; Lirgg, DiBrezzo, & Smith 1994; Moran-Miller & Flores, 2011).

Coaching Efficacy and Students Interested In Coaching Jobs

A coaching job is considered one of the most attractive occupations for students (Everhart & Chelladurai, 1998). Three studies (Everhart & Chelladurai, 1998; Lirgg et al., 1994, Moran-Miller & Flores, 2011) examined the relationship between coaching efficacy and athletes' interest in a coaching career while another study (Cunningham et al., 2003) examined not only coaching efficacy but also occupational turnover rates.

Coaching self-efficacy is also positively correlated with a desire to coach in interscholastic (Lirgg et al., 1994) and intercollegiate settings (Everhart & Chelladurai, 1998). Lirgg et al (1994) asked participants to indicate the number and gender of previous coaches and the relationship between coaching self-efficacy and coach gender among high school basketball players. The research found that coach's gender did not predict coaching efficacy, it but did predict levels of career aspirations associated with coaching. Specifically, female athletes who were coached by women were more likely to aspire to head coaching positions. In contrast, female athletes who were coached by men were less likely to aspire to head coaching positions than they were to seek assistant coaching positions.

Everhart and Chelladurai (1998) looked at the gender of participants' current coaches to measure exposure to female coaching role models among intercollegiate basketball players. Everhart and Chelladurai (1998) suggested that the presence of female coaching role models may be an important facilitator in the development of coaching self-efficacy. They found that female coaches who have high coaching efficacy positively influence athletes' interest in a coaching career. Overall, both the male and female basketball players in the sample viewed coaching as a very attractive career. However, coaching was significantly more attractive to women, especially when they were coached by a woman. Female athletes who were coached by men were more likely to view discrimination as a greater barrier to entry in the profession than athletes who were coached by women. Everhart and Chelledurai's findings highlight the potential supportive influence of another important contextual factor, female role models.

Moran-Miller and Flores (2011) also examined the relationship between

coaching efficacy and career interest in coaching among female college athletes using social cognitive career theory as the theoretical framework. Career interest in coaching was predicted by coaching efficacy, outcome expectations, and contextual supports and barriers. From the research, Moran-Miller and Flores (2011) found that the quality of positive female coaching role models, but not quantity, may positively influence female athletes' perceptions about career possibilities. It also was positively associated with female athletes' interest in a coaching career (Moran-Miller & Flores, 2011). Consistent with the predictions of SCCT, coaching efficacy produced significant paths to outcome expectations and to career interest in coaching (Moran-Miller & Flores, 2011). In addition, Cunningham et al., (2003) examined the difference in coaching efficacy, desire to become a head coach, and occupational turnover rates between 385 male and female assistant coaches of NCAA Division I women's teams. The research provided an additional reason for understanding why women constitute a smaller percentage of coaches of women's teams. The research demonstrated the importance of coaching self-efficacy both in the desire to become a head coach and in remaining in the coaching profession. The research also found that men had a greater desire to become a head coach and stronger feelings of coaching efficacy than women. Therefore, the differences between male and female assistant coaches in desire to become a head coach were significant (Cunningham et al., 2003). The research also found that women experienced greater turnover rates than their male counterparts because of lower coaching efficacy (Cunningham et al., 2003). According to SCCT (Bandura, 1986) there is a significant relationship between self-efficacy and outcome expectations. SCCT specifies the relationship between self-efficacy and role models.

Summary

In summary, after exploring the gender differences in career-related self-efficacy, it is important to conduct research on the influence of role models on women's self-efficacy for their career development. Bandura's social learning theory (1977) explained that people learn certain skills and behaviors by observing others. Hackett and Betz (1981) extended this theory to career choice and development, suggesting that role models impact women's career choices. Individuals tend to seek role models who are similar to them in some easily identifiable ways, such as gender or race (Bandura, 1986; Hackett & Byars, 1996; Karunanayake & Nauta, 2004). Although the roles and characteristics of coaches and women in business settings differ in terms of training and development, both can be defined in terms of leadership positions, therefore, it can be seen that the positive influence of coaching role models can also apply to strengthening women's self-efficacy as leaders in the sport industry. The correlation between improvement in career choices and coaching efficacy has its own limitations. It only talks about career choices. Despite this contribution to studying coaching efficacy to better understand the role of women in coaching positions, previous research is limited to career choice rather than career aspirations.

Since the research for coaching efficacy mainly focused on demonstrating the positive influence of career choice, this research will narrow the focus further onto women who successfully finished their career choice and actually were able to have careers in the male-dominated management of professional baseball world. According to Lapchick's Racial and Gender Report Card data (2012), very few women hold leadership roles among all professional sports in North America. MLB ranks lowest of the five

major North American professional sport leagues, with the percentage of women holding leadership positions as low as 18%, giving an impression that professional baseball is an especially male-dominated part of the sports industry. Accordingly, the purpose of the present study was to examine the influence of role models on the leader self-efficacy and career development of women working in management positions in professional baseball by measuring leader self efficacy, perceived barriers, and outcome expectancy.

Literature Review Summary

Though the number of working women increased statistically, the number of women leaders in the labor force nonetheless remains low. Factors inhibiting the growth of women leaders are considered barriers which women have to face in order to achieve leadership positions. To cope effectively with this issue, the presence of role models and having access to role models are significant factors as they provide positive influences for women to become leaders. Without the presence of female role models in work places, women lose the opportunity to observe and learn from female leaders, making women unsure whether or not they can become leaders themselves. Moreover, role models are very important to women's career development as role models strongly influence women when they make career decisions. Studies have demonstrated, for example, that female coaches who act as role models provided a positive influence related to career choices of female athletes in both professional and college sports.

Although multiple studies explain the importance of role model influence over female athletes, very few studies mention role model influence over women in working in management positions in business and professional sports. Particularly, no studies so far

have investigated the importance of role model influence over women working in leadership positions in professional sports. Women who step forward to work in male-dominated careers such as professional baseball especially require the presence of role models in order to cope with the various barriers they face through their career advancement. By observing role models in higher positions, women are able to imagine their future selves and bring into consideration the possibilities that are available to them. Nevertheless, no persuasive research is available on this topic. Therefore, this research will examine the importance of role model influence over women working in management positions in professional sport, particularly professional baseball.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

The purpose of this chapter is to present the methodological procedures for examining the research questions stated in Chapter I. The explanation of the methodology is presented with the following six sections: (a) purpose of the study, (b) research questions, (c) participants, (d) study design and data collection procedures, (e) instrumentation, and (f) statistical analysis.

Purpose of the Study

Considering sex differences in career-related self-efficacy, it is important to conduct research on the influence of role models on women's self-efficacy for women's career development. Past research indicated that observing successful role models increases a person's self-efficacy (DeSantis & Quimby, 2004; Everhart & Chelladurai, 1998; Lirgg et al., 1994; Moran-Miller & Flores, 2009), and that self-efficacy can be particularly important in understanding women's career development. A stronger sense of self-efficacy with regard to specific career-relevant behaviors may enable women to consider a wider range of career options, including becoming leaders in their field.

A stronger sense of self-efficacy with regard to specific career-relevant behaviors may enable women to consider a wider range of career options. For instance, women may become highly-motivated to challenge a position as a business manager in

their field to advance their career. Accordingly, the purpose of the present study is to examine the influence of role models on the leader self-efficacy and career development of women working in management positions in professional baseball organizations.

Research Questions

The study's five research questions addressed the relationship of role model influence on women's career development as leaders. To achieve the study's purpose, the following research questions were addressed:

1. Is there a significant main effect of role model existence on role model information, leader self-efficacy, career barriers, and future leadership outcome expectations?
- 2A. Is there a significant main effect of role model's gender on leader self-efficacy?
- 2B. Is there a significant main effect of work place (Major League Baseball League and Minor league Baseball League) on leader self-efficacy?
- 2C. Is there a significant interaction effect of work place (Major League Baseball League and Minor league Baseball League) and role model gender on leader self-efficacy?
3. Are each of the three factors (role model influence, career barrier, and leader self-efficacy) significant predictors of future leadership expectations?

The study research questions considered participants' perceptions regarding role model influence on their confidence of leadership behaviors and career development.

Study Participants

The present study aimed to examine the influence of role models on the leader self-efficacy and career development of women working in management positions in professional baseball. This study focused its attention on all women working in management positions in professional baseball and addressed the issues related to women's underrepresentation within the field. Very few women hold leadership roles in professional sports in North America. Major League Baseball (MLB) ranks the lowest for the number of women in leadership positions amongst the five major North American professional sports leagues (Lapchick, 2013). Specifically, only 17.2% of women work in senior administration and no women work as assistant general managers, general managers, or coaches within MLB, which reinforces the idea that MLB is especially male-dominated, presenting limited role models for women desiring to enter into leadership positions.

Women working in professional baseball tend to work on the business side of the game rather than in baseball operations (Black, 1996; Hums & Sutton, 1999; Lapchick, 2012). In MLB, women have positions in senior administration as well as position as Team Vice Presidents. However, the 2012 Racial and Gender Report Card (Lapchick, 2012) gave MLB a D for women working in senior administration and F for the gender grade for Team Vice Presidents. To give specific statistics, 57 women (17.2%) held team senior vice president and vice president positions in 2011. One percent of team physicians were women. Alternatively, MLB has no female players, coaches, managers, or General Managers. Moreover, no gender or race grade was given for Team Presidents. The Report Card included data on physicians and head trainers but did not include grades

in these areas as well.

Furthermore, the underrepresentation of women at the management level, as mentioned above, is also seen in Minor League Baseball (MiLB) where only five of among the 160 affiliated Minor League teams have female general managers (MiLB, 2012). Researchers who examine women in sport management rarely pay attention to the professional sports industry segment, but women working in professional baseball serve as an appropriate example to analyze the status of women working in a male-dominated workplace. In the current study, the survey population included all women working in management positions in professional baseball. The current study utilized *the 2013 Baseball America Directory* as a sampling frame. The *2013 Baseball America Directory* provides front office information for 30 MLB teams and 160 minor league baseball teams and 58 independent league teams, including the names and job titles for every team in MLB, MiLB and independent baseball and also league offices. *The 2013 Baseball America Directory* lists all women who work in the front offices of Major League, minor league, and independent league baseball teams. According to the *2013 Baseball America Directory* and each team official website, approximately 1304 women work for 30 MLB teams and 155 women work for the MLB central league office. For minor league organization among 160 teams in all levels together, 188 women work for AAA teams, 108 women work for AA teams, 243 women work for A teams, 8 women work for rookie leagues and 16 women work for minor league offices and 87 women work for Independent league teams. The total number of women working in the baseball industry is nearly 2000 women.

Lapchick (2013) stated in his Racial Gender Report card data that management

positions refer to the following titles: directors, assistant general managers, senior managers, general counsel, legal counsel, senior advisors, assistant vice presidents, public relations directors and directors of community relations. This study targets similar management positions as defined by Lapchick.

In this study, the target population refers to women who work in professional baseball, and the survey population focuses exclusively on women who hold management positions. The survey was sent to all women working in professional baseball but not involving part-time workers or women working in secretarial duties. In the survey questions, respondents were required to indicate whether their positions were management positions or not. Referring to these two particular items, women in management positions were carefully screened for the population. Since job titles do not always reflect actual management tasks, it was essential to send the survey to all working women and have them evaluate on their own whether they held management positions or not in order to accurately focus on women who are actually engaged in management. This study did not simply identify women in management positions by referring to their job titles, but aimed to include all women who are actually engaged in managerial duties on a daily basis. The study's minimum suggested sample size was determined based on the employment population of approximately 2,020 women work in management positions in professional baseball the target population of approximately 2,020 women, a minimum sample size of 144 (to attain a 95% confidence level), a power of .80, and an effect size of .75 were desired (Tabachnick& Fidell, 2012).

Research Design

The current study employed both quantitative and a qualitative research designs. First, as Creswell (2008) stated in his earlier study, a cross-sectional survey study design that is a type of quantitative research design was quite effective for assessing attitudes, opinions, behaviors, or characteristics of a population (Creswell, 2008). A cross-sectional survey design offers several advantages: (a) helps explain the characteristics of a large population, (b) standardized questionnaires ask participants exactly the same questions thus strengthening the quality of the results, and (c) usefulness in collecting data from large samples (Babbie, 2007). As such, cross-sectional design sample sizes tend to be larger and findings may be generalized to a large population (Gratton & Jones, 2010). However, survey designs are also limited in that they do not allow for follow-up questions (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2000).

Second, an explanatory correlational research design was used as a quantitative research design. Designated as “relational research” (Cohen & Manion, 1994, as cited in Creswell, 2008) or “accounting-for-variance studies” (Punch, 1998, as cited in Creswell, 2008), the explanatory design allowed for the examination of the extent to which perceptions of role model existence/ role model gender and leader self-efficacy and women’s career development co-vary –that is, where changes in one variable reflects a change in the other. Specifically, the design aided in investigating the combined relationship of perceptions of role models with women’s career development. Lastly, the research used a qualitative research design by asking open-ended questions to examine women’s perceptions of role models and their career development. Qualitative design allowed the researcher to focus on description, analysis, and interpretation. A qualitative

design is useful for “documenting how structures shape individual experiences, and also how individuals create, change, or penetrate the structure that exists” (Glesne, 2011, p. 39). Open-ended questions support the results of quantitative questions in detail with explanations of respondents’ ideas, experiences, and opinions.

Data Collection Procedures

An online survey was conducted with women working in the management of professional baseball using an online questionnaire tool called Qualtrics. This study used Qualtrics because this resource enabled the researcher to obtain downloadable formats, up-to-date information, and create and distribute the online surveys. Ilivea et al. (2002) pointed out that the online surveys provide considerable advantages such as cost saving to gather resources, obtaining responses in a short period of time, controlling the sample without getting involved in the survey, and direct loading of the data into the online software without transcription errors. Moreover, online surveys are eco-friendly compared to the traditional pen and paper surveys.

What is significant to online surveys is the presence of technological requirements that enable people to complete the surveys. For instance, women who hold managerial or administrative positions are more likely equipped with advanced computer skills and have access to the internet in order to accomplish their daily businesses. This study narrowed down the target to this particular population, since women in managerial or administrative positions possess the technological skills needed in order to complete a survey distributed online.

While online surveys offer considerable advantages, one major disadvantage of

online surveys is low response rates compared to traditional (e.g., paper and pencil) forms of survey dissemination (Dillman, 2007). In fact, the average response rate for online surveys is often below 20% (e.g., Dillman, 2007). In order to obtain a sample size large enough to attain statistical power, the researcher targeted the whole population of women working in management positions in professional baseball.

Several factors are known to positively influence response rates with surveys. Baldauf et al. (1999) introduced the top ten common reasons that may make people in an organization hesitate to respond to the survey. The reasons are as follows: (a) respondents are too busy, (b) there are too many questionnaires for the respondents to answer, (c) questionnaires are too lengthy, (d) there is no profit for the company that the respondents belong to, (e) the survey was conducted at an inconvenient time of the year, (f) working hours are more precious to the respondents than the time to spend to complete a survey, (g) questionnaires are too sensitive, (h) survey was not done under anonymity (i) questions did not have much to do with the company respondents belonged to, and (j) refusal was a trend in the organization. Amongst the above mentioned reasons which may make people hesitate to respond to the survey, some reasons are within the control of the researcher, and can be adjusted by following Dillman, Smith, and Christian's (2009) suggestions. These reasons include (a) the length of the questionnaire, (b) the perceived profit to the company, (c) the time of year to send the survey, (d) sensitivity of the questions, and (e) offer the promise of anonymity. These ideas were used as a reference to organize the survey for this study to ensure accurate methods in collecting precise information from the targeted population.

The components included in this survey tool were: (a) informed consent, (b)

demographic questions (c) 5-point Likert scales of: role model information, career barriers, leader self-efficacy, and future leadership expectations and (d) 10 open-ended questions on personal role models. The estimated time to complete the survey was 15 to 20 minutes. Permission to conduct a study on human subjects was obtained through the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the University of Louisville. Following IRB approval, the researcher contacted participants via email, all of whom were women listed in the *2013 Baseball Directory* as working in management positions in professional baseball.

An invitation email was sent to all potential participants along with a link to a website where the participants could access to the survey questionnaires. According to Dillman (2007), the use of a pre-notification letter enhances the involvement of participants in online surveys. Following the suggestion of Dillman, pre-notification letters were sent to the participants two days prior to the transmission of the actual survey, alerting the participants of the upcoming survey. After the initial survey email, non-respondents were sent follow-up emails, including links to the survey. Reminder emails were sent to the participants in several stages. Follow-up reminders were sent to non-respondents two times. The first reminder was sent to participants who had not completed the survey a week after the initial e-mail was sent, and the final reminder was sent to participants who had not completed the survey a week after the first reminder email. All participants received a note thanking them for their participation once they completed the surveys. The collected data was stored on a server, which was offered from the online company, where data could be downloaded from the web site when the survey collection closed.

All communications between the participants were forwarded through

Qualtrics in order to avoid the survey related messages to being recognized as spam. According to the system that Qualtrics provides, researchers gain access to a feature that sends email automatically to a large population one email address at a time so that the messages will not be detected as spam or junk mail. This feature increases the possibility that the recipients will look through the incoming email messages without deleting the messages instantly, assuming that they are spam. This will also decrease the risk of sampling coverage error since recipients will have a higher likelihood to respond to a survey sent out in an appropriate way.

Participants first saw the informed consent page, and they were not be able to continue the questionnaire unless they click the “I agree” box to signify their consent. At the beginning of the survey, participants were required to complete several demographic questions such as age, race, and degree type. Then, the survey asked about components of role model influence over: (a) career barriers, (b) leader self-efficacy, and (c) future leadership expectations, followed by (d) an open-ended qualitative component including role model questions.

The current study addressed some barriers to responding to the survey. Since this study particularly targeted women who work in professional baseball, most participants are very busy, therefore, survey questionnaire lengths were limited to the minimum necessary. In addition, the timing of the survey was arranged for the off season of early February when participants are most likely to have some time. The email also promised a report of the results of the survey once the research is complete.

Respondents were asked to respond to the survey within four weeks, and the questionnaire was strategically created in order to obtain as much accurate data as

possible while also considering the time limitations of the respondents. The researcher informed respondents that it would take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete the survey, and the surveys were sent along with an email explaining the purpose of the survey and how the results may be valuable to women working in the sport industry. Questions were formatted so that subjects may skip any questions asking for sensitive information in order to go on to the next question, and subjects were informed in the survey preamble that they did not have to answer any questions that they do not feel comfortable answering. Additionally, respondents were assured anonymity in all email correspondence in the preamble.

As a limit of this online survey research, it is undeniable that some recipients may complete the survey more than once. In this project the researcher sorted out the email addresses so that none of the addresses were duplicated. No duplicates were found.

Some concerns regarding nonresponse bias may exist with this data collection process. To ensure the sample was representative, the researcher used one-way analysis of variances (ANOVA) to compare survey responses of early and late respondents, since previous researchers identified late respondents to have similar results to non-respondents (Groves, 2006; Siebert, 2008). Although the target population's responses may not be representative of all women working in the management of professional baseball, the researcher took additional efforts to ensure the sample was representative of population. Therefore, the results should be generalizable to women working in the baseball industry.

Instrumentation

The instrument consisted of four major sections that measured (a) role model

information, (b) career barriers, (c) leader self-efficacy, and (d) future leadership expectations.

Role Model Information

This study used Moran-Miller's (2009) method for measuring role model information, which uses quantitative and qualitative measures to determine role model influence. Moran-Miller asked participants the number and gender of all head and assistant coaches they had played for since the beginning of high school. The present study asked participants to indicate the existence and gender of role models whom they look up to or want to be like. Six closed-ended questions about role model's gender and work places and four open-ended questions then asked about role model information in detail as follows: "What are two reasons why this person is your role model? ", "Is it important for you if your role model is male or female? Why or why not? ", "What are two things have you learned from your role model?", and "Do you consider yourself a role model? Please explain".

Role model Scale

This study used the Role Models Scale to analyze role model quality. The original scale of the Inspiration/Modeling subscale of the Influence of Others on Academic and Career Decisions Scale (IOACDS; Moran-Miller & Flores, 2009) with 15 items was developed by Nauta and Kokaly in 2001 for college a student sample. Moran-Miller modified this original version for intercollegiate coaches. The IOACDS (Moran-Miller & Flores, 2009) consists of 6-items with one dimension that asks participants to indicate how much influence the role models had in their career development on a 5-point Likert scale (Moran-Miller & Flores, 2009). These six items

were used in the current study. Participants responded to each item on a range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), with higher scores indicating greater role model influence. Considering the business setting of the baseball industry, survey items were modified appropriately. For example, “There is someone who I am trying to be like in my academic or career pursuits.” was changed to “There is someone who I am trying to be like in my career pursuits.”

Reliability and validity. The original scale of Inspiration/Modeling (Nauta & Kokaly, 2001) reported the internal consistency coefficient for the Inspiration/Modeling subscale was .87 and test-retest reliability coefficient was .78 with a 10-week interval. According to DeVellis (2002), Cronbach’s alphas ranging from .70–.80 are respectable and alphas ranging from .80–.90 are best. “Internal consistency estimates relate to item homogeneity, or the degree to which items on a test jointly measure the same construct” (Henson, 2001, p. 177). Factor loadings for items in the subscale with seven scores ranged from .55 to .82, indicating good convergent validity and these factors accounted for 55% of the total variance (Nauta & Kokaly, 2001). Construct validity refers to “the degree to which a measure assesses the construct it is purported to measure” (Peter, 1981, p. 134). Moran-Miller and Flores (2009) used a modified version of Inspiration/Modeling subscale with 7 items, and internal consistency for this scale was .82. Nunnally (1978) suggested .70 acceptable for internal consistency reliability.

Career Barrier Scale

The next major scale is career barriers. This study used the term career barriers instead of perceived barriers or perceived hindrances. The present study utilized career barriers scale (Everhart & Chelladurai, 1998), consisting of a 17-item measure asking

participants to indicate on a 5-point Likert scale (with higher scores indicating greater career barriers) the likelihood that certain barriers would hinder women from working in the baseball industry. It consists of two dimensions, measuring one of the most difficult barriers for women to overcome: Working Hours (6 items) and Perceived Discrimination (11 items). Sample items for the Working Hours included “the amount of time required to work in the baseball industry” and “the need to work a lot of nights and weekends.” Sample items for the Perceived Discrimination subscale included, “Discrimination against female workers in the baseball industry” and “Biases of the old boys’ network.” Because this scale was originally developed for use specifically with basketball players (Everhart & Chelladurai, 1998) and female coaches (Moran-Miller, 2009), items were modified to increase its utility for women in the baseball industry. For example, “coaching basketball takes too much time” was changed to “The amount of time required to work in the baseball industry”. Similarly, “female coaches are discriminated against” was changed to “Discrimination against female workers in the baseball industry.”

Reliability and validity. Cronbach’s alphas for 6 items of Working Hours was .87 and .94 for 12 items of Perceived Discrimination subscales, respectively (Everhart & Chelladurai, 1994), both exceeding the .70 cutoff value for acceptable reliability suggested by Nunnally (1978). Everhart and Chelladurai (1994) conducted principal component analysis to verify factor structure. According to their research, factor loadings for four factors on the Working Hours subscale ranged from .64 to .87. On the Perceived Discrimination scale, item factor loadings for three factors range from .46 to .75, indicating adequate construct validity for both measures (Everhart & Chelladurai, 1998).

Leader Self-efficacy Scale

This study used the Leader self-efficacy scales developed by Machida (2012). Those scales for assistant coaches were based on the leadership skill taxonomy of Mumford et al. (2007) and Coaching Self Efficacy (Feltz, Chase, Moritz, & Sullivan, 1999). The current study utilized this leader efficacy scale for women working in management positions in the baseball industry. Leader self-efficacy was measured by a leader self-efficacy scale consisting of 20 items with 4 dimensions: (a) cognitive skills, (b) inter personal skills, (c) business skills, and (d) and strategic skills (Machida, 2012).

The total number of items (N=20) in this section were distributed in the following manner: (a) cognitive skills =6, (b) interpersonal skills =4, (c) business skills =5, and (d) strategic skills =5. The respondents were asked to answer on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (not at all applicable) to 5 (fully applicable), indicating the extent to which the statement was applicable.

Reliability and validity. The leader self-efficacy scale was reported to have acceptable levels of internal consistency reliability coefficients (Machida, 2012). This scale reported the Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient of .93 for intercollegiate coaches samples.

Future Leadership Expectations Scale

To assess career outcome expectancy, this study used a future leadership expectations scale which Machida (2012) designed to measure assistant coaches' outcome expectancy, and which is based on past research (Betz & Voyten, 1997; Hutz & Williams, 2009; van Vianen, 1999). The measure consisted of 4 items (e.g., "If I had the skills to be a head coach, I will be able to get a head coaching job in the future").

Assistant coaches responded to each item on a scale of 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 5 (“strongly agree”). This study modified the scale to measure leadership positions’ outcome expectancy instead of assistant coaches’ outcome expectancy such as “If I had the skills to be a leader, I will be able to get a leadership job in the future.”

Reliability and validity. Future leadership expectations scales were reported to have acceptable levels of internal consistency reliability scores. Machida (2012) reported Cronbach alpha reliabilities of outcome scale was .77.

Survey Development

Developing questions concerning role models for women who work in the management of professional baseball was an entirely new effort since the research areas in this study were not previously studied. This new attempt was necessary in order to ensure that the source of information is reliable and valid. Since some of the respondents may not be familiar with the term “role model,” survey questions were created so that each question was brief and clear, and the concept of role model was explained in detail so that the questions were clear to all respondents. By distributing the surveys to a panel of experts in the field and to graduate students, the researcher carefully checked survey questions so that the questions were all simple and easily understandable, and did not include questions that lead to misunderstandings. The approximate time required in order to complete the survey was also tested in advance.

A panel of experts who are acquainted with women’s sports was selected from the academic area and baseball industry. One assistant professor, one associate professor, and one doctoral student were asked to participate in this study as academic specialists. From the baseball field, one former professional baseball coach, one former GM from an

independent league, and one umpire were asked to check the survey questions on a printed version of the survey, and all the representatives selected were women. First of all, feedback and comments were collected and a revised version of the survey was prepared. The revised version was sent to the experts again in order to hear their final advice, and the survey was revised again. The survey was carefully checked referring to the comments collected from the panel of experts. Each question needed to be comprehensible and clearly stated. In order to do this, 24 graduate students who take leadership in sports classes were asked to actually answer the questions and comment on a printed version of the survey at the same time. Incomplete and confusing questions were either deleted or corrected based on their comments.

The next step in the pretest process was what Dillman (2007) classified as a “final check.” In this stage of the pretest, the researcher distributed the survey to a small group of experts in the field, who have not previously viewed the survey. The survey was distributed through the Quatlics website, the same way respondents completed an actual survey. The panel of experts completed and examined the survey to look for any errors or unclear language that were not detected in the first test survey. In this way, the survey was rechecked multiple times in order to ensure the quality of the instrument. This panel of experts completed and examined the survey for any errors or mistakes not previously detected by the first two stages of the pretest. The panel of experts’ review of the survey was used as the first and final steps of the pretest processes to ensure the quality of the instrument.

Statistical Analysis

The study research questions addressed participants' perceptions regarding their role model's influence on their confidence of leadership behaviors and career development.

Preliminary Analyses

The researcher conducted a combination of multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) and multiple regression. Prior to conducting further statistical procedures, the researcher examined descriptive statistics (e.g. measures of central tendency, measures of variability, and percentages) to identify basic summary information about the independent and dependent variables. Furthermore, Pearson product-moment correlations were examined for the major variables, since using dependent variables that are highly correlated, as one runs the risk of multicollinearity problems. Correlations between the dependent variables were examined. In addition to descriptive statistics and correlations, the researcher examined Cronbach's alphas to confirm the reliability of the subscales of the instrument. Cronbach's alphas were computed to measure the internal consistency reliability of each set of items on the role model information scale, the career barrier scale, the leader self-efficacy scale and the future leadership expectations scale; specifically internal consistency reliability coefficients greater than or equal to .70 were deemed acceptable (Nunnally, 1978). The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20 was used to conduct all aforementioned statistical procedures.

Primary analyses. In order to determine the number of dependent variables for major analyses to retain for the subsequent analysis, principal component analyses were administered with all 47 items. Six new variables based on the component analysis were

generated by summing up the responses to the items that had significant factor loadings, and the following six new variables were used in the subsequent analyses to answer the five primary research questions. Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) techniques were proposed to address research questions 1, 2A, 2B, 2C, and 3. MANOVA was an appropriate statistical technique for this study because the independent variables were categorical (i.e., role model existence and role model gender, work place), and the dependent variables had more than one continuous variable (i.e., role model information, leader self-efficacy, career barriers, and future leadership expectations.). The advantages of using multivariate analyses are as follows: MANOVA (a) examines group differences in a set of dependent variables simultaneously, which makes MANOVA more powerful than univariate tests, (b) helps control over the overall alpha level or Type I error rate, (c) considers the inter-correlation of dependent variables by examining the variance-covariance matrices, while univariate tests ignore this aspect of inter-correlations, and (d) shifts focus from individual factors taken singly to relationship among variables (Stevens, 2002).

Prior to running MANOVA, three assumptions must be met in order to confidently report the findings of a MANOVA (Stevens, 2002). These assumptions include independence of observations, multivariate normality, and homogeneity of covariance matrix. First, to meet the assumption of independence, which is the assumption that one data point does not influence another, all participants were sampled independently. Second, according to Stevens (2002), each of the individual variables is assumed to have multivariate normal distribution. For the assumption of Multivariate Normality, this study examined the results of Q-Q plots. Third, the homogeneity of

variance-covariance of dependent variables must be equal across groups. Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices examined that the dependent variable are equal across the levels of the independent variable. Wilks' lambda multivariate F statistic examined for the overall significance of this study model. Statistically significant multivariate F s were checked by univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) for each dependent variable. Any univariate F found to be significant in the ANOVAs was followed by a Tukey post hoc test to determine where the difference in the means occurs. Additionally, partial eta square (η^2) was obtained to report the percentage of variance in each dependent variable accounted for by the independent variables. To address Research Question number 1, One-way MANOVA was used to examine differences in role model existence on a role model information variable, four leader self-efficacy variables (cognitive skills, interpersonal skills, business skills, and strategic skills) and two career barriers (working hours and perceived discrimination), and a future leadership expectations variable. Factorial MANOVA was used to test Research Questions 2A, 2B, and 2C which examined the interaction effects of role model gender (male and female) and work place (Major League Baseball or Minor league Baseball) on leader self-efficacy, career barriers, and outcome expectancy. The researcher employed MANOVA using the role model information variable, four leader self-efficacy variables (cognitive skills, interpersonal skills, business skills, and strategic skills), two career barriers (working hours and perceived discrimination), and a future leadership expectations variable as eight dependent variables. The researcher employed role model gender (male or female), work place (Major League Baseball or Minor league Baseball) and interaction of these two variables as the independent variables.

In order to perform a MANOVA test, three assumptions described above were checked and those assumptions were met. There are several advantages to the factorial MANOVA design. First, it is more realistic. In real life, for example, we are usually influenced by more than just one variable impacting another. Next, it is more economical. The factorial MANOVA provides us more information than separate single-factor MANOVAs. Further, it is more controllable since the error variance is more precisely measured.

Although, there are many benefits, there are some minor disadvantages of the factorial MANOVA. First, as number of factors increases, it gets more complicated to interpret the results. Another one is that as number of factors increases, there will usually be a greater number of cells (groups) to have different treatments. Therefore, simply, a larger number of subjects will be needed.

Multiple Regression analysis was used for Research Question 3 Multiple Regression analysis was used when trying to determine the predictive nature of a set of independent or predictor variables on dependent or outcome variables (Field, 2009; Stevens, 2009) The purpose of Research Question 3 was to determine whether role model information, leader self-efficacy, and career barriers have a correlation with future leadership expectations. To answer this question, future leadership expectations were regressed on three predictors (role model information, leader self-efficacy, and career barriers) in three steps using a hierarchal entry regression to analysis. With hierarchal analysis, three predictors were forced into the model by each step. First, role model information was forced into the model, second the four variables related to leader self-efficacy were forced into the model as a block, and finally the two variables

representing career barriers were forced into the model as a block. Hierarchical regression will enable the researcher to predict how much variance in future leader expectations is explained by role model information, leader self-efficacy and career barriers (Field, 2009).

Prior to conducting multiple regression, six assumptions must be met, and they are as follows: (a) independence, (b) linearity, (c) homoscedacity, (d) normality of residuals, (e) multicollinearity, and (f) outliers (Field, 2009; Stevens, 2009). The assumption of independence implies that the respondents are responding independently of one another. The researcher ensured independence of responses by including specific directions in the email messages asking participants to complete only one survey each and to do so independently. Next, to check the assumption of linearity and homoscedacity, the researcher examined residual plots, looking for no pattern with random around zero, to adequately fulfill the assumption. Normality of residuals was assessed by examining a histogram of the residuals with an overlay of a normal curve, and normal probability plots with straight diagonal line. Next, the assumption of multicollinearity was checked through the variance inflation factor (VIF) VIF Smaller than 10 is adequate and tolerance (tolerance larger than .01 is adequate). The final assumption of outliers was checked by examining Cook's distance or leverage. The amount smaller than 1 for Cook's distance, or closer 0 for leverage is adequate (Stevens, 2009).

Summary of Method

In summary, this study examined role model information among women working in management positions in professional baseball. Data were collected using an

online survey containing four sections. Role model information was measured by asking participants to (a) indicate the existence and gender of role models whom they look up to or want to be like during their career development and (b) complete the Role Models Scale (Moran-Miller & Flores, 2009). Career barriers to women's career development were measured by using the Career Barriers Scale (Everhart & Chelladurai, 1998). This 17-item measure with 2 subcategories which consisted of working hours and perceived discrimination, asked participants to indicate on a 5-point Likert scale the likelihood that certain statements would hinder them from working in the baseball industry. Leader self-efficacy was measured by a leader self-efficacy scale consisting of 20 items with 4 subcategories which consisted of (a) cognitive skills, (b) inter personal skills, (c) business skills, and (d) strategic skills (Machida, 2012). Future leadership expectations were measured by using future leadership expectations scale that consists of 4 items (Machida, 2012). Participants also answered a series of open-ended question about role models and their influence on the participants' careers. MANOVA addressed Research Questions 1,2A, 2B and 2C. Research Question 3 was analyzed using Multiple Regression.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of the present study was to examine the relationship of role models with the leader self-efficacy and career development of women working in management positions in professional baseball organizations. Data was collected from women who worked in professional baseball. The study's five research questions addressed the relationship of role models with women's career development as leaders. This chapter reports findings from the statistical results, in the order of preliminary analysis, descriptive statistics, reliability analysis, inter-correlations of the major variables, and the primary analysis. The results from the qualitative data follow the quantitative sections.

Sample Size

A total of 235 surveys were collected from the online survey, for an overall response rate of 12% (out of the 2020 distributed). Of the 235 surveys, 233 were deemed usable for the study. As previously mentioned at study participants section, this study focused exclusively on women who hold management positions, so that, 2 women were eliminated because of their job titles as receptionist. The sample included 233 women who worked in professional administration positions in professional baseball industry. These titles met Lapchick's categorizations as senior administration and professional

administration as previously mentioned. The category excludes the traditional support staff positions such as secretaries, receptionists, administrative assistants, and staff assistants (Lapchick, 2013). The average response rate for online surveys is often below 20% (e.g., Dillman, 2007). The study's minimum suggested sample size was determined based on the employment population of approximately 2,020 women working in management positions in professional baseball. Using this as the target population of approximately 2,020 women, a minimum sample size of 144 (to attain a 95% confidence level) with, a power of .80, and an effect size of .75 were desired (Tabachnick& Fidell, 2012). This study obtained 233 responses. This is smaller number than what Dillman (2007) suggested, however, 233 responses are sufficient because:

- 1) a smaller number in the sample size ensures a greater statistical power, which provides us with a greater confidence to generalize findings (significance of mean differences) to a general population (Tabachnick& Fidell, 2012).
- 2) given that the sample roughly follows a normal distribution, it is statistically robust to conclude the results of multivariate analysis of variance are generalizable to population based on the law of large number and central limit theorem (Tabachnick& Fidell, 2012).

In regard to age, participants ranged from 21 to 67 years old with an average age of 33.51 years old (SD= 10.00). In addition, 81.5 % of the sample was between the ages of 21 and 40 years old. The frequency distribution of marital status indicated 147 (63.1%) were single, 64 participants (27.5%) were married, 9 (3.9%) were divorced or separated, 8 (3.4%) were in an unmarried partnership, 1 (0.4%) was widowed, and 4

(1.7%) indicated they preferred not answer. In addition, 179 (76.8%) respondents indicated having no children. Participants reporting an annual household income of \$20,000 - \$39,999 comprised 48.9% (n = 114) of the total sample. Those reporting \$40,000 - \$59,999 comprised 26.6% (n = 62) of the total sample, and \$100,000 or above comprised 6.4% (n = 15) of the total sample. In addition, the majority of participants completed a Bachelor's degree (66.1%, n = 154), and 24.8% (n = 68) of the sample completed a Master's degree or higher (Table 1).

In regard to work place, 117(50.2 %) women worked at the Major League Baseball level, 35 (15%) women worked at the Minor League Baseball AAA level, 22 (9.4%) women worked at the Minor League Baseball AA level, 40 (17.2%) women work at the Minor League Baseball A level, and 3 (1.3%) women worked at the Minor League Baseball Rookie league level, and 16 (6.9%) women work at the Independent League level. The researcher defined league as Major League and Minor league. Minor league is defined as all minor league levels (AAA, AA, A, and Rookie) and independent baseball league was combined since independent league baseball is considered a minor league level even it is different type of organization. When the researcher divided into two leagues (Major league and Minor league), 117(50.2 %) women work for Major League Baseball, 116 (49.8%) women work for Minor League.

In terms of where the women worked, 223 (95.7%) women worked for team front office, 5 (2.2%) of women worked for league office and 5 (2.2%) of women worked for other. Additionally, 136 women (58.4%) women work for management positions. Of the respondents, 59 (25.3%) women indicated that approximately 30-39% of people in the team or league office where they currently work are women (see Table 1).

In regard to role model existence, 187 (80.3%) women indicated they have a career role model during their professional career, and 46 (19.8%) women indicated they did not have a role model. Participants were then asked to think of the one person they consider as their most influential career role model. Among the participants 90 (38.6%) had a male role model, 97 (41.8%) had a female role model and 46 (19.8%) had no role model. In addition, 146 (62.7%) women have worked in the same organization with their role model (see Table1).

Although the response was relatively low, the sample demographics were representative of the same population as described by Lapchick (2013). In relation to ethnicity, the ethnic ratio of the participants in this study is similar to that of Lapchick's Racial and Gender Report Card data. The majority of the sample in this research was White (n = 199, 85.4%) and the next highest categories were African American (n = 13, 5.6%), followed by Latino (n = 9, 3.9%), Other ethnicity (n = 5, 2.1%), Asian American (n = 3, 1.3%) and Asian (n = 1, 0.4%). Meanwhile, the ethnic ratio of the Senior Administrator in 2012 from the Racial and Gender Report Card data (Lapchick, 2013) were White (n = 1231, 80.1%), African-American (n = 106, 6.9%), Latino (n = 142, 9.2%), Asian (n = 45, 2.9%), and Other ethnicity (n = 13, 0.8%). The breakdown of the team professional administration in 2012 was White (n = 1061, 78.1%), African-American (n = 94, 6.9%), Latino (n = 136, 10.0%), Asian (n = 54, 4.0%), and Other ethnicity (n = 14, 1.0%). As for the senior administration, the percentage of people of color was 19.9% and the percentage was 21.9% for the team professional administration. Based on the ethnic ratio of both the sample in this study and Lapchick's data, Whites make up nearly 80% of the whole, Latino, African Americans, other

ethnicity, and Asians make up the rest. Since the values are numerically similar, it can be concluded that the ethnic ratio of the participants in this research reflects general ethnic diversity.

Other demographic data specific to women who work for the sport industry include level of organization they work (MLB or MiLB).

Table 1
Frequency Distributions for Demographic Variables

Characteristics	n	%
Current organization level		
Major League Baseball	117	50.2
Minor League AAA	35	15
Minor League AA	22	9.4
Minor League A	40	17.2
Minor League Rookie	3	1.3
Independent Baseball League	16	6.9
Currently work in		
Team front office	233	95.7
League office	5	2.1
Other	5	2.1
Currently position		
Management position	136	58.4
Clerical position	39	16.7
Other	58	24.9
% of women in the current team or league office		
0-9%	27	11.6
10-19%	39	16.7
20-29%	50	21.5

30-39%	59	25.3
40-49%	37	15.9
50-59%	16	6.9
60-69%	1	0.4
70-79%	3	1.3
80-89%	1	0.4
90-99%	0	0
Organization worked		
Major League Baseball	117	50.2
Minor League AAA	35	15
Minor League AA	22	9.4
Minor League A	40	17.2
Minor League Rookie	3	1.3
Independent Baseball League	16	6.9
Worked in the sport industry other than in baseball		
Yes	119	51.1
No	112	48.1

Preliminary Analysis

Principal Component Analysis

Prior to major analyses, a principal component analysis on the correlations of all 47 items from all four scales was first conducted for the following reasons: (1) to determine number of dependent variables for major analyses, (2) to determine the items with significant loadings to be used to measure the four major constructs.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was .831, exceeding the commonly used cutoff value of .50 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy is an index for comparing the magnitudes of the observed correlation coefficients to the magnitudes of the partial correlation coefficients. These results indicated there was enough common variance among the 47 items and that the data were appropriate for a principal component analysis (Stevens, 2001). Barlett's test of sphericity, $\chi^2(1081) = 6358.280, p < .001$, indicated that the correlation matrix was not an identity matrix in the population, which reflected that the correlations were sufficiently large enough for a principal component analysis. Initially, using Kaiser's eigenvalue greater than 1 criterion, 11 factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were used to extract factors that accounted for 68.81% of the total variance. The second criterion used to determine the number of factors to retain was an examination of the scree plot of eigenvalues from the reduced correlation matrix. Similar to the eigenvalue greater than 1 criteria, the scree plot suggested 11 factors (see Figure 1). To determine the number of factors to retain, one looks for the "elbow" in the plot, that point at which the amount of variance explained by each additional component is minimal. The "elbow" in this scree plot appears to be at the eleventh factor. The last criterion used was a parallel analysis.

Several studies have shown that the Kaiser's eigenvalue-greater-than-1 (K1) rule is less accurate than parallel analysis and tends to overestimate the correct number of factors by as much as 66% (Hayton, Allen, & Scarpello, 2004; Horn, 1965; Linn, 1968). Parallel analysis is a process that involves the comparison of eigenvalues generated from real data with eigenvalues generated from parallel random data. Factors from the real data

with eigenvalues greater than the eigenvalues from the random data are retained.

Different from the number of factors to retain suggested by Kaiser's rule and scree plot, the parallel analysis for this study indicated that six components should be retained. The parallel analysis showed that six of the eigenvalues in the PCA (Principal Component Analysis) column are greater than the average eigenvalues in the PA (Parallel Analysis) column (see Table 2) and the dashed line for parallel analysis in the graph (see Figure 2) crosses the solid PCA line before reaching the seventh component. Parallel analysis was preferred over the commonly used Kaiser's eigenvalue-greater-than-1 (K1) rule because of the strong empirical evidence in favor of parallel analysis. Also, the parallel analysis is more statistically rigorous to avoid the issue of over factoring, which leads to an increased level of making a type I error with the results.

Figure 1

Scree Plot

Table 2

*Parallel analysis column**Raw Data Eigenvalues, & Mean & Percentile Random Data Eigenvalues*

Root	Raw Data	Means	Percentile
1	8.107181	1.989819	2.094132
2	6.576363	1.882264	1.960826
3	4.446384	1.802267	1.871568
4	3.131401	1.73364	1.795128
5	2.322978	1.671701	1.724887
6	1.90751	1.615624	1.664083
7	1.309495	1.563683	1.609332
8	1.285723	1.515563	1.562962
9	1.217535	1.468579	1.511259
10	1.026756	1.424101	1.467352

Figure 2

Parallel analysis

Thus, six factors were retained based on the results of parallel analyses, and the six factors retained accounted for 56.37% of the total variance. As shown in Table 3 (factor structure matrix), each of the six factors accounted for 14.38%, 13.02%, 8.42%, 8.07%, 7.07%, and 6.00% (pre-rotation) of the total variance. These six factors are (a)

gender career barriers, (b) business leader self-efficacy, (c) role model quality, (d) work career barriers, (e) cognitive leader self-efficacy, and (f) future leadership expectations.

As suggested by Stevens (2001), a factor structure coefficient of .40 was considered significant in this study. On factor one, eleven items loaded significantly. These items reflected some gender related career barriers the participants' faced working in the baseball industry. The factor was named *gender career barriers*. This factor contains three reverse coded items. On factor two, 14 items loaded significantly, reflecting participants' confidence about their business skills, strategic skills and interpersonal skills as a leader. The three subscales (interpersonal skills, business skills, and strategic skills) merged in on one factor. Factor two was named *business leader efficacy*. On Factor three, six items loaded significantly, reflecting participants' feelings about their career role model. Factor three was named *role model quality*. On factor four, six items loaded significantly, reflecting work hour related career barriers the participants' faced while working in the baseball industry. This factor was named *work career barriers*. On Factor five, six items loaded significantly, reflecting participants' confidence about their cognitive skills as a leader and was named *cognitive leader self-efficacy*. Finally, on Factor six, four items loaded significantly reflecting participants' concern with how they perceived themselves in a managerial role and was named *future leadership expectations*. This factor contains one reverse coded item. Six new variables based on the component analysis were generated by using the means of the responses to the items that had significant factor loadings, and the following six new variables were used in the subsequent analyses to answer the five primary research questions.

Table 3

Factor structure matrix and communalities for 47 items

Item	Factor Loading						h^2
	1	2	3	4	5	6	
<u>Factor One: Gender Carrier Barriers (11 items)</u>							
Lack of support for female workers in the baseball industry from superiors	0.86	-0.09	0.09	0.06	0.11	-0.10	0.79
Lack of support systems for female workers in the baseball industry	0.85	-0.05	0.09	0.04	0.13	-0.08	0.78
Male front office workers not accepting female workers in the baseball industry	0.84	-0.10	-0.03	0.02	-0.01	-0.07	0.77
Female workers in the baseball industry being treated unfairly	0.80	-0.13	0.05	-0.05	0.04	-0.01	0.69
Biases of the old boys' network	0.79	-0.01	-0.02	0.12	0.03	-0.13	0.66
Discrimination against female workers in the baseball industry	0.79	0.04	0.01	0.06	0.01	-0.09	0.67
Lack of training programs for female workers in the baseball industry	0.77	-0.02	0.07	0.10	-0.10	-0.01	0.67
Players' preferences for male front office workers	0.76	0.06	-0.01	0.03	-0.08	-0.03	0.60
The baseball industry being viewed as a male domain	0.74	0.04	-0.09	0.16	-0.04	-0.22	0.69
Lack of role models among female workers in the baseball industry	0.71	-0.04	0.02	0.23	-0.04	-0.01	0.57
Lack of knowledge of the game of baseball	0.44	-0.07	0.02	0.07	-0.20	0.07	0.68
<u>Factor Two: Business Leader Self-Efficacy (14 items)</u>							
Identification of downstream consequences (determining the long-term outcomes of a change in a workplace)	-0.03	0.79	0.05	-0.07	0.06	-0.02	0.72
Social perceptiveness (being aware of others' reactions and understanding why they react as they do)	0.01	0.74	0.03	-0.11	0.09	0.13	0.73
Problem identification (identifying the nature of problems)	-0.02	0.72	0.07	0.05	0.18	0.05	0.62
Operations analysis (analyzing team needs and performance requirements to create a successful workplace)	-0.06	0.71	-0.01	0.03	0.03	-0.05	0.70
Solution appraisal (observing and evaluating the outcomes of problem solutions to identify lessons learned or redirect efforts)	-0.02	0.71	-0.02	0.06	0.19	0.03	0.64
Workplace evaluation (looking at many indicators of a team's performance,	-0.04	0.69	0.13	-0.07	0.12	-0.01	0.72

taking into account their accuracy)							
Management of personnel resources (motivating, developing, and directing others	0.03	0.68	0.08	0.03	0.15	0.25	0.62
Visioning (developing an image of how a workplace should work under ideal conditions)	-0.04	0.66	0.06	-0.10	0.14	0.12	0.60
Management of personnel resources (motivating, developing, and directing others)	-0.02	0.65	-0.10	0.13	-0.01	-0.20	0.77
Management of financial resources (determining how money will be spent to have a successful workplace)	-0.09	0.61	-0.02	0.02	0.03	-0.06	0.81
Persuasion (persuading others to change their minds or behavior)	0.02	0.52	0.02	-0.07	0.04	0.37	0.78
Critical thinking (using logic and analysis to identify the strengths and weaknesses of different approaches)	-0.04	0.49	0.05	0.11	0.47	0.07	0.68
Negotiation (bringing others together to reconcile differences)	0.00	0.47	-0.05	-0.09	0.07	0.37	0.77
Coordination (adjusting actions in relation to others' actions)	-0.13	0.39	0.02	0.03	0.28	0.25	0.69
<u>Factor Three: Role Model Quality (6 items)</u>	0.07	0.10	0.83	0.00	0.04	0.05	0.72
There is no one I am trying to be like in my career pursuits.							
In the career path I am pursuing, there is someone I admire	-0.02	-0.04	0.81	-0.08	0.02	0.04	0.70
There is someone I am trying to be like in my career pursuits.	0.05	0.07	0.81	-0.12	0.03	-0.01	0.70
There is no one particularly inspirational to me in the career path I am pursuing.	0.04	0.05	0.80	-0.08	0.05	0.01	0.67
In the career path I am pursuing, there is no one who inspires me.	-0.08	0.08	0.78	-0.11	0.06	0.00	0.66
I know of someone who has a career I would like to pursue.	0.09	-0.04	0.70	-0.04	0.06	0.08	0.58
<u>Factor Four: Work Career Barriers (6 items)</u>	0.19	0.01	-0.09	0.86	0.12	-0.04	0.84
The unfavorable working hours required to work in the baseball industry							
The need to work a lot of nights and weekends	0.16	-0.03	-0.09	0.86	0.12	-0.05	0.84
The amount of time required to work in the baseball industry	0.06	-0.04	-0.14	0.86	0.07	-0.06	0.80
The way working in the baseball industry can interfere with a social life	0.13	-0.07	-0.15	0.78	0.01	0.05	0.67
Conflicts with family commitments	0.07	0.00	-0.02	0.70	0.01	0.14	0.62

The amount of travel required to work in the baseball industry	0.06	0.04	0.00	0.45	-0.07	-0.15	0.47
<u>Factor Five: Cognitive Leader Self-Efficacy (6 items)</u>							
Reading comprehension (understanding written sentences and paragraphs in work related documents)	-0.13	0.05	0.02	0.07	0.78	-0.03	0.68
Writing (communicating effectively in writing as appropriate for the needs of the audience)	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.02	0.75	0.02	0.72
Active listening (listening to what other people are saying and asking questions as appropriate)	-0.01	0.17	0.07	0.05	0.69	-0.01	0.60
Active learning (working with new information to grasp its implications)	0.03	0.26	0.11	-0.01	0.66	0.21	0.66
Speaking (talking to others to convey information effectively)	0.00	0.25	0.11	0.08	0.59	0.20	0.72
Workplace perception (determining when important changes have occurred in a workplace or are likely to occur)	0.00	0.30	-0.02	-0.08	0.51	0.17	0.72
<u>Factor Six: Future Leadership Expectations (4 items)</u>							
Having good leadership skills can help me get a leadership job in the near future.	-0.13	0.03	0.19	-0.02	0.17	0.73	0.70
133 If I were to seek a leadership position in the future, I am sure I can get one.	0.11	-0.13	-0.02	0.06	0.06	0.65	0.63
If I had the skills to be a leader, I will be able to get a leadership job in the future.	0.10	0.10	-0.07	0.14	0.14	0.65	0.66
In the future, I will not be able to be a leader even if I have the skills to be one.	0.01	0.04	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.62	0.59
Eigen Values	8.35	8.83	4.03	4.51	3.98	2.65	
% of variance after rotation	4.38	13.02	8.42	8.07	7.07	6.00	

Correlation Analysis

Correlation Table 8, below, shows *gender career barriers* and *work career barriers* were significantly and positively correlated ($r = .23, p < .05$). This value indicated that women with more gender career barriers tended to experience more work career barriers. *Gender career barriers* was negatively and significantly correlated with *future leadership expectations* ($r = -.27, p < .05$). This correlation indicated that women who experienced more gender career barriers tended to have less future leadership expectations. *Business leader self-efficacy* was significantly correlated with *cognitive leader self-efficacy* ($r = .41, p < .05$), indicating that women who have high *Business leader self-efficacy* tended to have higher *Cognitive leader self-efficacy*. Interestingly, *role model quality* is significantly and negatively correlated with ($r = -.19, p < .05$) *work career barriers* indicating that participants who have quality role models tended to have fewer work career barrier. Also *role model quality* significantly and negatively correlated with *cognitive leader self-efficacy* ($r = .13, p < .01$) indicating that participants who have quality role models tended to have higher cognitive leader self-efficacy.

Table 4

Intercorrelations

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Gender career barriers						
2. Business leader self-efficacy	-.09	-				
3. Role model quality	.04	.09	-			
4. Work career barriers	.23**	-.04	-.19**	-		
5. Cognitive leader self-efficacy	-.05	.41**	.13*	.07	-	
6. Future leadership expectations	-.27**	.22*	.09	-.09	.25**	-

*Significant at $p < .05$; ** significant at $p < .01$

Cognitive leader self-efficacy was also significantly and positively correlated with *future leadership expectations* ($r = .25, p < .05$) indicating participants who had higher cognitive leader self-efficacy had a positive relationship to having higher future leadership expectations.

Reliability Analysis

To examine the reliability of the scores generated from the six variables, Cronbach's alphas were computed for each of the six variables. Internal consistency reliability coefficients greater than or equal to .70 were deemed acceptable (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). According to DeVellis (2002), Cronbach's alphas ranging from .70–.80 are respectable. *Gender career barriers* exhibited a Cronbach's alpha of .93 with 11 items; *business leader self-efficacy* exhibited Cronbach's alpha of .89 with 13 items; *role model quality* exhibited .881 with 6 items, *work career barriers* exhibited Cronbach's alpha of .874 with 6 items; *cognitive leader self-efficacy* exhibited Cronbach's alpha of .793 with 6 items; *future leadership expectations* exhibited Cronbach's alpha of .708 with 4 items. All six variables had Cronbach's alpha values above the recommended cut-off of .70, indicating the internal consistency reliabilities reported are moderate to desirable in nature. (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Primary Analyses

Research question 1. Research Question 1 read, Is there a significant effect of role model existence on gender career barriers, business leader self-efficacy, role model quality, work career barriers, cognitive leader self-efficacy, and future leadership expectations?

One-way MANOVA was conducted with role model existence as the independent variable and gender career barriers, business leader self-efficacy, role model quality, work career barriers, cognitive leader self-efficacy, and future leadership expectations as the dependent variables. One-way MANOVA was appropriate for this study as the independent variables were categorical (i.e., having role model vs. no role model), and the dependent variables had more than one continuous variable. Prior to analysis, the researcher examined three assumptions: (a) independence, (b) normality, and (b) homogeneity of covariance. First, the researcher ensured independence of responses by sampling all participants independently and with no systematic correlation between individual residuals. Second, normality indicates “sampling distributions of means of the various dependent variables in each cell and linear combinations of them are normally distributed” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001, p. 329). The researcher examined a histogram of data of the dependent variables and noted the dependent variables were positively skewed in relation to the normal curve. Stevens (2009) noted that due to the robustness of the F statistic, there were minimal effects of non-normal data on the significance in MANOVA. Third, the researcher examined the Box’s test of equality of covariance matrices was not significant (Box’s $M = 16.23$, $F = .734$, $p = .080$), indicating that the dependent variable covariance matrices were equal across the levels of the independent variable, thus meeting the assumption of Homogeneity of Variance-Covariance.

The results from the One-Way MANOVA revealed that role model existence had a significant multivariate relationship with the linear combination of the six dependent variables, Wilks’s $\Lambda = .716$, $F(2, 226) = 14.97$, $p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = .284$. Subsequent univariate testing indicated that *role model quality* was the only significant

variable at the univariate level that contributed to the multivariate significance. This showed that role model existence was significantly related to *role model quality*, which reflects how participants felt about their career role model. The partial eta-square result presented a large effect size, indicating approximately 27.9% of the variance in the *role model quality* variable was accounted for by role model existence.

Research Question 2A, 2B, 2C. Research Questions 2A, 2B, 2C examined the combined effect of role model gender and work place on the two dependent variables: business leader self-efficacy and cognitive leader self-efficacy. Research Question 2A concerns the main effect of role model gender on the two dependent variables and Research Question 2B examined the main effect of work place (Major League Baseball or Minor league Baseball League) on business leader self-efficacy and cognitive leader self-efficacy. Finally, Research Question 2C examined the interaction effect between role model gender and work place on business leader self-efficacy and cognitive leader self-efficacy.

Prior to the MANOVA analysis, the researcher examined three assumptions - (a) independence, (b) normality, and (c) homogeneity of covariance – similar to Research Question 1. The researcher ensured independence of responses by making sure that all participants were sampled independently. Next, the researcher examined a histogram of data of the dependent variables and noted the dependent variables were positively skewed in relation to the normal curve. The researcher examined the Box's test of equality of covariance matrices, which was not significant (Box's $M = 8.719$, $F = .949$ $p = .48$), indicating that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal across groups, thus meeting the assumption of Homogeneity of Variance-Covariance.

For Research Question 2A, the obtained Wilk's Lambda value of .994 was not statistically significant ($F(2,182) = .544, p = .58$), indicating the role model's gender was not related to business leader self-efficacy and cognitive leader self-efficacy. For Research Question 2B, the Wilk's Lambda value of .988 was not statistically significant ($F(2,182) = 1.136, p = .32$), indicating that work place was not related to business leader self-efficacy and cognitive leader self-efficacy. For Research Question 2C the obtained Wilks' Lambda value of .966 was statistically significant, $F(2,182) = 3.183, p < .05$. This suggested that interaction (work place and role model gender) was significant, indicating that the effect of role model gender on business leader self-efficacy and cognitive leader self-efficacy was dependent on the type of work place. Following the multivariate significance, univariate significance was examined next. Prior to univariate analysis, equal variance assumption was checked. Levene's test showed the homogeneity of variance assumption for each of the dependent variable was upheld ($F = .439, p = .725$) for business leader self-efficacy, ($F = .639, p = .591$) for cognitive leader self-efficacy.

The interaction effect of role model gender and work place was statistically significant on business leader self-efficacy ($F = 6.168, p = .014$), while the effect of role model gender on cognitive leader self-efficacy was not significant ($F = 6.168, p = .014$). As shown in Figure 3, the nature of the interaction was disordinal, which indicated that the effect of role model on business leader self-efficacy differed across work place. In order to determine the nature of the interaction between work place and model gender on business leader self-efficacy, a graph (see Figure 3) and simple effect analysis table were created (see Table 5)

Figure 3

Estimated Marginal Means of Mean of Business Leader Self-efficacy

Table 5

Simple effects analysis

Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig
WITHIN+RESIDUAL	40	184	0.22		
LEAGUE WITHIN MODELS (Major)	0.11	1	0.11	0.49	0.49
LEAGUE WITHIN MODELS (Minor)	1.83	1	1.83	8.43	0.00
(Model)	1.94	2	0.97	4.47	0.01
(Total)	41.95	186	0.23		

As is shown in Figure 3, the interaction was disordinal, indicating the effect of work place on business leader efficacy was dependent on the gender of the role model. To determine the significance of the disordinal interaction, simple effect analyses were conducted as a post hoc test. The results of simple effect analyses comparing women at different work places who had a female role model indicated a significant difference in business leadership efficacy. The data showed that women who had a female role model and who worked at the MLB level scored 3.88 for business leader self efficacy compared to

women who had female role model and who work at the MiLB level who scored 4.15 for business leader self efficacy. On the other hand, there was no significant difference in business leader self efficacy between women who had male role model and who work at the MLB level and women who had a male role model and who work at the MiLB level.

Research Question 3. Research Question 3 reads, are Gender career barriers, Business leader self-efficacy, Role model quality, Work career barriers, and Cognitive leader self-efficacy significant predictors of future leadership expectations?

Prior to conducting multiple regression analyses, six assumptions were examined: (a) independence, (b) linearity, (c) homoscedacity, (d) normality of residuals, (e) multicollinearity, and (f) outliers (Field, 2009; Stevens, 2009). First, respondents took the survey only once and did so independently of one another; therefore, the independence assumption was met. Next, the researcher examined residual plots to check the assumption of linearity and homoscedacity. The residual plots yielded evidence of a random scatter around zero, fulfilling the assumptions. To examine the assumption of normality of residuals, the researcher examined a histogram of the residuals with an overlay of a normal curve and normal probability plots (i.e., standardized residuals compared with the normal distribution). The researcher identified a normal curve shape of the histogram and a straight diagonal line on the normal probability plots, thus meeting the assumption of normality of residuals. Next, the researcher examined variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance statistics to ensure the assumption of multicollinearity was met. Lastly, the researcher examined outliers through the Cook's distance (Cook's D) statistic. Data yielded a value of .01, which is smaller than the recommended 1.0, indicating the assumption was met (Stevens, 2009). After checking the assumptions, the researcher conducted a

regression analysis. Standard multiple regression with forced entry was used. Standard multiple regression with forced entry is useful for exploratory research to determine the extent of the influence of one or more variables on a particular outcome. Also standard multiple regression with forced entry is useful for determining the relative influence of each variable studied and may also be used to develop a prediction equation.

Table 6

Summary of Regression Analyses for Future Leadership Expectations

	R^2	B	SEB	β	t	p
Future Leadership Expectations	0.14*					
Gender career barriers		-0.17	0.05	-0.24	-3.80	0.00*
Business leader self-efficacy		0.15	0.09	0.12	1.70	0.09
Role model quality		0.04	0.05	0.06	0.93	0.35
Work career barriers		-0.02	0.05	-0.03	-0.42	0.67
Cognitive leader self-efficacy		0.26	0.10	0.18	2.69	0.01*

Adjusted R^2 : Future Leadership Expectations (.12), *Significant at $p < .01$

Results from the multiple regression analysis showed that the regression equation was statistically significant, $F(5, 227) = 7.55, p < .01$, with $R^2 = .143$. Results indicated 14.3% of the variance in future leadership expectations was explained by the five predictor variables. Standardized regression coefficients indicated both gender career barrier ($\beta = -.17, t = -3.80, p < .01$) and cognitive leader self-efficacy ($\beta = .25, t = 2.69, p < .01$) were significant predictors of future leadership expectations. The regression coefficient indicated that for one unit increase in gender career barrier, future leadership expectations decreased .17 units, but cognitive self-efficacy increased .25 units. The rest of the predictor variables, Business leader self-efficacy ($\beta = .14, t = 1.70, p = .091$), role

model quality ($\beta = .44$, $t = 0.931$, $p = .35$), and work career barriers ($\beta = -.02$, $t = -.28$, $p = .672$), were not statistically significant.

Summary of Quantitative Results

MANOVA and multiple regression analysis techniques were used to examine the relationship between role model influence and the leader self-efficacy and career barrier factors. The results from the One-Way MANOVA revealed that role model existence had a significant multivariate effect of on the linear combination of the six dependent variables. The subsequent univariate test indicated that role model quality was the only significant variable at the univariate level that contributed to the multivariate significance. This showed that role model existence was significantly related to role model quality, which reflected how participants felt about their career role model. MANOVA analysis indicated a significant difference in business leader efficacy between women who had a female role model and worked at the MLB level and women who had a female role model and worked at the MiLB level. Results from multiple regression indicated gender career barrier and cognitive leader self-efficacy predicted future leadership outcome expectations.

Qualitative Results

In order to foster a greater understanding of the quantitative results previously introduced in this study, participants were asked to answer a series of open-ended questions. The open-ended questions enriched the understanding of how important role models are, and provided supporting evidence for each theme concerning women's careers that will be mentioned in this chapter. Table 7 shows the results of questions and themes for each question.

Table 7 *Questions and Themes for Each Question*

Question	Why did you choose to work in professional baseball?
Theme 1	Love of sport (25)
Theme 2	Love of baseball (19)
Question	What is your career goal in 3-5 years?
Theme 1	Achieve a top management position (20)
Question	Is it important for you if your role model is male or female? Why or why not?
Theme 1	The sex of role models was inconsequential (161)
Question	What are two things have you learned from your role model?
Theme 1	Knowledge and skills of business (35)
Theme 2	How to behave and engage in business. (40)
Question	Do you consider yourself a role model? Please explain ?
Theme 1	Participants were eager to teach their job to subordinates in order to advance their career (159)

Career Aspiration Questions

Participants were asked a series of questions concerning their career aspirations. Several themes emerged from these questions. The questions and related themes follow in the sections below.

Question: Why did you choose to work in professional baseball?

For this question, the two major themes that emerged were the participants' love of sport and love of baseball. The results of this study revealed that the women in this study had a deep emotional attachment to sports and baseball and many women felt that they wished to work in sport and baseball. The question, "Why did you choose to work in professional baseball?", generated interesting replies from the respondents.

Theme 1 - Love of sport. Some women simply answered that it was because they love sport. Sport had been a part of their lives and they enjoyed the atmosphere and

environment of the sport industry. The majority of women had work experience in professional sport settings such as the NFL, NBA, NHL, MLS, WNBA, minor league hockey teams, or college athletics. Some women had work experience as a coach, and a handful worked in the sport media field. The following responses typified their desire to work in sport.

“I love sports and wanted to make it a full time career.”

“Have always loved sports and wanted to continue to be in a sporting atmosphere.”

“I have always loved sports and played them my whole life. The industry knows how to have fun and get stuff done at the same time. It is where I belong.”

“I wanted to work in sports (pretty much anywhere). The opportunity arose and I took it.”

“I grew up surrounded by sports which led me to look for a career in a field I love.”

“I have always loved sports, and played softball for many years. Being around and part of a team is something that feels very natural to me”

“Grew up loving the sport, having been around it my entire life. Wanted to combine my love of the game with my passion for public relations and marketing.”

“I wanted to work in a job that I felt passionate about.”

“I grew up surrounded by sports which led me to look for a career in a field I love.”

To these women, working in the sport industry was a long time dream and offered them the opportunity to work in an industry they enjoyed.

Theme 2- Love of baseball. Moreover, some women specifically answered that it was because they love baseball. They answered that they grew up in an environment where they could relate to baseball because they themselves had been longtime fans of a certain team, their father or brother was a baseball coach or a player, they had experience in softball, etc. The following quotes illustrate these trends:

“ I love sports but I have a passion for baseball.”

“ I was passionate about baseball.”

“ I grew up loving the game, and wanting to work in business. I originally did my internships in the NFL, but realized MLB, with its constant motion and games, was a better work environment for my work abilities and preferences.”

“ I read Money Ball in 9th grade and decided sometime in high school that my career goal was to work in a MLB front office to help build a championship team. I did my first internship in Baseball Operations after my senior year of high school, which reaffirmed my passion for the game and my desire to turn it into a career.”

“ I chose to work in professional baseball because of my love of the sport and the team. I grew up a huge baseball fan. My father coached and played (not on a major league level) and I practically grew up on a baseball field. As a woman, I guess this is the closest thing to being out on the field and being a part of the team.”

“ Baseball has been the only real constant in my life since a very young age and I felt that my talents would be best served working in a front office.

“ I've always been passionate about baseball and sports in general. When I was in high school, I decided I wanted to pursue a career in sports”.

Many women described that working in a job related to baseball had been their dream job from the time they were children. A number of participants commented that if they could take part in any kind of job related to baseball, they did not even care if the working requirements and conditions were not as good as other jobs. Finding employment in professional baseball was the most important thing to them rather than working conditions. Moreover, since they were so enthralled with engaging in a job they long dreamed of, they even enjoyed the inherent working hours and environment of jobs at professional baseball unlike ordinary women in other jobs. Some participant commented:

“I have always enjoyed non-traditional work hours, workplaces, and wanted an opportunity to ‘live the dream’ if I couldn't play on the field as a girl.”

“Sports are my passion. It's not work when you love what you do!”

The participants were next asked to look forward in their careers and see where they wanted to go in the future.

Question: What is your career goal in 3-5 years?

This first forward focused question looked at the participants' short-term career goals. They were asked where they saw themselves 3-5 years from now. One major theme emerged – moving up.

Theme – Move up into a management position. Women were asked to share their career goal 3-5 years from now, and many women answered that they wanted to achieve a top management position. Some of the career goals shared by the participants were:

“Move up into a management position in baseball”,

“Become a VP of Business Operations”.

“Obtain a Director position within my current MiLB team in community relations.”

“My career goal in the next 3-5 years is to continue building my current team into the best franchise it can possibly be.”

“Break into corporate meeting planning in 3 years.”

“Move up, hopefully some type of Marketing or potentially a Merchandise Manager/Director in a higher league.”

“Be promoted to Director and run the department I am currently in.”

“Move up into a management position in baseball.”

“Advance within the organization I work for”

“I hope to have moved up to the professional sports level as a senior manager or director of ticket operations.”

“Continue to expand my role within the department and help keep our team operating at the highest level possible.”

“Move up from coordinator to manager potentially get to director in five years' time. - Oversee a team of people with the new improvements and projects coming on board in three years.”

“Move into a Director position in any sport”

“In 3-5 years time I intend to be a manager of either Ticket Service or Fan Service within my current organization.”

“Become a Director of Marketing, or Director of Promotions at a Minor League Team.”

The next question asked the participants what they saw as the career goal they ultimately strive to achieve. One theme emerged – achieving a top management position.

Question: What is your ultimate career goal?

The respondents often saw themselves as capable of upward mobility in professional baseball. They aspired to high-level positions.

Theme - Achieve a top management position. In addition to the previous question inquiring about their short-term career goal, participants were then asked to share their long-term career goals. Participants' answers were similar, and showed high career aspiration. Some of the ultimate career goals shared by the participants were:

“Become a GM of a Minor League Team or Executive at the Major League Level”

“Own an MLB team”, and “to be the General Manager of an MLB team.”

“GM of a Minor League Team or Executive at the Major League Level”

“Working as an assistant GM for a major league team.”

“Director of an MLB department, or to work at the league level.”

“I would like to be a Director of my own department.”

“My ultimate career goal is to be the general manager of a minor league baseball team as well as serve, at some point, as the athletic director for a Division III program.”

“Be an executive in baseball, hold a position that can make decisions for the organization.”

“To be the head of a community relations department in professional sports, VP of Business Operations”

“Fully manage an entire team of people below me, either in Marketing or Entertainment.”

“To do this, most likely have a VP or SVP title.”

“My ultimate goal would be to be a Vice President within the Organization.”

“Ultimately, I would like to be a General Manager of a Minor League team while being able to heavily influence promotions. I don't see myself taking a Major League position as I prefer the Minor Leagues where your responsibilities can range more over different areas. I love getting to do a little bit of everything to contribute to the Gameday experience.”

“Assistant General Manager, General Manager”

“Vice President of Ticket Sales and Service”

“Manage or direct a team or venue”

“Top Performing GM of a Minor League Team or Executive at the Major League Level”

“VP of Corporate Sponsorship or VP of Community Relations in NFL”

“Marketing executive somewhere in MLB”

“To become the President of the League”

“Lead a purchasing department of my own”

“Be a Vice President for a franchise Community Relations, or work in League Offices”

Twenty six women (12%) answered their goals were to work at executive levels. There are still currently no women GMs or women owners in MLB. Through the comments obtained from this survey, it was obvious that many women have the ambition of trying for something no woman has successfully achieved before. The participants in this survey have strong aspirations of career orientation, and it is no exaggeration to say that a woman may take up the post as a GM or owner in MLB in the near future.

Role Model Questions

Moving from career questions, the participants next addressed questions about role models. For the question, “During your professional career, have you had a role model?”, 187 (80.3%) of participants indicated they had a career role model during their professional career, while 46 (19.7%) indicated they had no role model. Participants were asked to think of the one person they considered as their most influential career role model. Results showed that 90 (38.6%) had a male role model, 97 (41.8%) had a female role model, and 46 (19.7%) had no role model.

Question: Is it important for you if your role model is male or female?

Why or why not?

An aspect of interest in this study was the gender of the participants’ role model. Respondents were asked to share their thoughts on that. The theme that emerged was that the gender of the role model did not matter.

Theme – The sex of role models was inconsequential. In regards to the open-ended question, “Is it important for you if your role model is male or female? Why or why not?”, 90% answered that the sex of role model was inconsequential. Here are comments that support the theme that the gender of a role model was a minor matter to most respondents:

“It is not important, as long as they possess leadership values I hope to one day emulate.”

“I think it is important to have perspective of both sides, especially in baseball where it tends to be an (Old Boy’s Club) but I do not think it’s important whether one chooses a male or female role models.”

“I’m torn on this particular topic. Initially, I thought that it was important to have a role model that is of the same sex, but now, I think it’s just important to have someone help you mitigate unforeseen obstacles and help groom you into a professional. The gender may be important for some, but having the guidance is more important to me.”

“I have role models/mentors who are both. Gender doesn’t matter much to me, as both males and females serve different roles. Having a male mentor in a high leadership position has been hugely beneficial to me, but having a female role model who has tackled similar paths is also nice because she can relate.”

The comments revealed that what was important was not simply the gender of a role model. Participants selected a role model they wished to be like and had a strong ambition to follow. Furthermore, there were some cases where women had no other

choice but to select a male role model because there were no female leaders in their workplace who they can look up to. Some women selected a male role model because they were aware that people tend to think that women are indecisive and they did not want to be seen the same way.

“I generally prefer male role models. There are generally few women who have reached a career status that I hope to emulate. Beyond the numbers, I do not see the characteristics it will take for me to be successful in my goals in other female leaders. I will serve myself better by emulating the positive and successful habits of male leaders (in the sports industry or other industries). Women are stereotyped with indecisiveness, not speaking up, lacking influence over counterparts, etc., and I hope to be none of those things.”

The remaining 10% stated that since they worked in a male-dominated environment, they preferred a female role model. The following comments reveal that it is important to have a female role model especially in a male-dominated environment. In such an environment, the participants indicated they needed a visible example from whom to learn how to act and behave. The presence of a female role model can be a great encouragement for them to advance their career in a male-dominated workplace.

“It's very important that she is a female. Being a woman in this industry is so difficult. It's nice to have a woman to look up to. The sports world is very different than any other kind of office job. The way a woman is expected to act, dress, and speak is difficult to learn. I don't know what I would do if I didn't have a female role model.”

“As a woman, I think it is important to have a woman as a role model just to be able to see that woman can advance just as far, if not more, than men in their careers.”

“I can and do have male role models, but at least in MLB, men simply don't experience some of what I do and therefore cannot empathize or relate to it. For that reason, I've looked for female role models in the industry.”

“I think in such a male dominated industry such as baseball, it is important to have a female to look up to. My current boss is a female and she definitely has paved a great path for me and other women in the industry. She has worked for the Cardinals for over 20 years and knows all the ins and outs of the business.”

“I believe it is important for my role model to be female. Dawn Aponte is my second role model, as she is a female in an extremely high executive NFL position. I look up to them because they have reached success in a highly male populated environment.”

“I didn't choose her [my role model] because she was a woman, but I don't think it's a coincidence that most of my role models and mentors are women. It is important to have female role models, though, especially as I work in a male-dominated industry.”

Moreover, participants tended to select a female role model they could use as a reference to improve their performance. They felt that if their role model could accomplish a task, they could accomplish the same task as well. Some participants commented that since it is fairly difficult to be hired for a management position on their

own, they asked their role model and learned from their role model what actions to take in order to succeed.

“Yes, she [my role model] is a female - gives me goals/makes me realize. if she [my role model] can do it, I can do it.”

“Yes, because being a female in stereotypical "male's work environment" is not always easy, and many women handle themselves in many different ways. I would want to follow the example of a woman who has figured out the system of how to properly get things done when necessary.”

“I think it's positive to have a female role model in the sports industry, especially since a majority of directors and VP's are male. I think they can relate to other females more in regards to the struggles associated with being a woman in sports.”

Some commented that female role models are better models for work life balance.

“This person [my role model] has worked at extremely high levels of the NFL, and does not let anything get in her way. She [my role model] also knows the perfect balance between being a strong role model for her family, as well as an extremely strong figure head in the office.”

“She [my role model] was successful at a young age and very assertive, and she also is family oriented and understands the need for balance. Career isn't everything.”

“My current role model has been with the organization for 16 seasons. She started at the very bottom and has built relationships and a reputation for

being dependable. Most people go to her for advice and given she has been recently promoted to VP. During this 16 years she had grown, she also got married and had two kids and has been a steady example of how you really can have a work/life balance in this industry.”

Some participants commented that since it is fairly difficult to be hired for a management position on their own, they asked their role model and learned from their role model what actions to take in order to succeed.

“Yes. I think it is harder for females to obtain positions within professional sports. There are simply less opportunities.”

“I don't think it is necessary for them to be female but those I have admired have usually been female because there are certain challenges that only women face and men don't have to face those same struggles in this industry.”

An overwhelming majority of women claimed that gender in a role model did not matter. A few respondents felt that having a role model of the same gender was very important since female role models can provide guidance for the right behaviors and performance in a working environment where there are few women. These participants also felt that female role models were better models for work life balance issues.

Question: What are two things have you learned from your role model?

The next question dealt with the knowledge role models provided. Two main themes emerged – knowledge and skills for business and how to engage and behave in business.

Theme 1– Knowledge and skills for business. In regards to the question, “What are two reasons why this person is your role model?” answers included the role model’s humanity, character, work behavior (such as keeping work life balance), career path and methods for career improvement. The most frequently mentioned element was how the role model can play a role as a mentor in career development. Furthermore, this survey revealed that the respondents had the tendency to choose a role model with their ideal character, such as choosing a role model who graduated from the same university, or choosing a role model they wanted to be like or admired. One woman said,

“This person has managed to make it from an intern to the VP of her department. She has also created new initiatives that were unheard of before her tenure. In addition, she has managed to have a life outside of her career, in which she is married, and a wonderful mother of three, proving you can do it all.”

Another remarked,

“When I came in as an intern, she [my role model] was full time and had graduated from the same college program as me and we had similar goals and interests. She was 100% herself and never changed who she was to fit in. In our organization, specifically in the ticket department, we are surrounded by sports-loving men and it is difficult at times to fit in when you are neither of those things. She provided a model for how I could be myself and still excel there.”

A total of 146 (62.7%) women worked in the same organization with their role model at some point in their careers. This could be because women have the tendency to

choose a person who can work as their mentor as their role model. Below are some of the replies to question,

“What have you learned from your role model?”

“EVERYTHING (Learned everything from the role model), learned how to professionally behave and work. Women can advance their careers just like men, etc.”

Many women shared that they learned the knowledge and skills of business, and how to behave and engage in business. Many women have role models who also work as their mentor. Some women commented about learning work skills from a role model as below,

“I have learned how to speak professionally in business settings, such as making sales or group calls or in person during meetings. I have learned valuable customer service skills as well as becoming a better manager or supervisor. Also, to be a team player and rely on my coworkers. And most importantly in regards to my job, how to stay organized and make sure that everyone else on staff knows everything that is happening each day through my communications.”

“To always look for the up side of the situation and to never jump to conclusions. In a moment's notice, decisions can and do need to be made. In those scenarios, it is important to realize that the decisions that you make have a ripple effect, and those decisions could have reaching repercussions, both good and bad.”

“How to engage a crowd from various cultures, that have one common bond.

(Baseball) Budgeting, staffing, safety concerns, training, interview techniques, etc.”

Acquiring basic business knowledge skills is a matter of importance, however, results show that women feel that learning how to behave is of more significance.

Theme 2 - How to behave and engage in business. Some woman discussed how a role model helped them learn how to behave and engage in business. The following quotes illustrate this point.

“[My role model] Told me to forget what anyone had to say about women not being successful in sports and prove them wrong. Had faith in me when it came to anything.”

“I have learned to work hard to get the job I want and if that means seeking out opportunities or working long hours then I shall do it to get the job I want.”

“I have learned how to act, dress, and speak to different types of people.”

“Too much to write about here, but a few of the "big picture" items include the importance of trusting your judgment and doing what you believe is right; the importance of communication, integrity, and thoughtful intention; how to focus on finding solutions rather than complaining or worrying about problems.”

“That networking, dedication, and patience are three very important keys to succeeding in the baseball industry. Those are not the only ones, but are important.”

“I've learned to be more flexible in my day to day role and to not let the little things stress me out. He always used the expression, "don't sweat the petty things and don't pet the sweaty things.””

“I have learned personal acceptance, grace, work ethic, and how to be successful in the sports industry as a female.”

“Importance of starting at the bottom and proving your ability to take on more responsibilities. Hard work pays off. Try not to settle for anything outside of the specific path to get where you want to end up.”

“She has helped me to not show weakness or frustration around men in Director/VP roles, as well as keeping your emotions intact. Everyone liked her because she gave everyone the same amount of respect, no matter your title. She always stopped what she was doing when someone wanted to speak with her, even when it was an inconvenience to her. She was considerate of others even when they didn't always do the same for her. She always had a great attitude in the office and always had an answer for any inquiry.”

“That no matter what your position is, you need to make time for yourself.

Whether it be going to get lunch and eating away from your desk or finding one outlet. You can't do your job well if you aren't taking care of yourself.”

Basic business knowledge skills can be acquired through self-education, whereas, ways to behave in various situations are better achieved by referring to the broad experiences of a role model. One advantage gained from the existence of a role model, for example, is learning from the failure of a role model without actually

experiencing the failure. This is both time-saving and money-saving, enabling people to work in a much more efficient way.

Question: Do you consider yourself a role model? Please explain?

Respondents were next asked to self-reflect on their own status as role models. With so few women working in management of professional baseball, the respondents felt positively about being role models themselves. The major theme that emerged was their eagerness to help others be successful by being a role model.

Theme – Participants were eager to teach their job to help subordinates advance their careers. Ninety percent of the women recognized themselves as role models. Many women who recognized themselves as role models were involved in teaching subordinates or interns, and seemed to have a strong sense of responsibility to pass on what they learned and experienced to their new subordinates. Some women were eager to teach their job to their subordinates in order to help new employees advance in their careers, as is reflected in their quotes.

“I would hope so. I am one of a minority in sports and I would hope that my drive and determination as a woman helps other women who come follow me.”

“Yes, I do consider myself a role model. I come from a blue-collar background without any prior sports management experience but proved that with the right attitude and work ethic, anyone can make it in the professional sports industry. More importantly, I am willing to share my story and enjoy helping others shine.”

Qualitative Result Summary

It can be concluded that majority of women in this study were in their 20s, 30s, and 40s, were career-oriented and strong-willed women, 76% of whom had a role model to learn from. They selected their ideal role model because the role model provided them the opportunity to work in baseball, taught them the attitude to work, and were well-respected. Over 90% of women answered that the sex of the role model was not important. Instead, the majority stated that character and ability were the determining factors when selecting their role model. However, the remaining 10% still felt that the presence of a female role model was significant and valuable when working in the male dominated baseball field. Most women recognized themselves as a role model, and were willing to provide opportunities to new employees and interns just as their role model did for them. They were eager to provide necessary knowledge to their subordinates in the expectation of educating their successor.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the present study was to examine the relationship of role models with role model existence, gender career barriers, leader self-efficacy, role model quality, cognitive leader self-efficacy, and future leadership expectations of women working in management positions in professional baseball organizations. The study's five research questions addressed the relationship of role models with women's career development as leaders.

RQ1. Is there a significant effect of role model existence on, gender career barrier, business leader self-efficacy, role model quality, work career barriers, cognitive leader self-efficacy, and future leadership expectations?

RQ2A. Is there a significant main effect of role model's gender on business leader self-efficacy and cognitive leader self-efficacy?

RQ2B. Is there a significant main effect of work place (Major League Baseball League and Minor league Baseball League) on business leader self-efficacy and cognitive leader self-efficacy?

RQ2C. Is there a significant interaction effect of work place (Major League Baseball League and Minor league Baseball League) and role model gender on business leader self-efficacy and cognitive leader self-efficacy?

RQ3. Are Gender career barriers, Business leader self-efficacy, Role model quality, Work career barriers, and Cognitive leader self-efficacy significant predictors of future leadership expectations?

The study research questions addressed participants' perceptions regarding their role models' influence on their confidence in leadership behaviors and career development. The next section will discuss the results in relation to each research question (mentioned in Chapter IV) and the theoretical and practical implications. In addition, directions for future research and a summary of the entire study will be provided.

Summary of Results

MANOVA and multiple regression analysis were used to examine the relationship among role model existence, gender career barriers, leader self-efficacy, role model quality, cognitive leader self-efficacy, and future leadership expectations. For Research Question 1, the results from the One-Way MANOVA revealed that role model existence had a significant multivariate relationship with the linear combination of the six dependent variables. Subsequent univariate tests indicated that role model quality was the only significant variable at the univariate level that contributed to the multivariate significance. This indicated that role model existence was significantly related to role model quality, which reflected how participants felt about their career role model. For Research Question 2A, the results showed that a role model's gender was not related to business leader self-efficacy and cognitive leader self-efficacy. For Research Question 2B, the results showed that work place was not related to business leader self-efficacy and

cognitive leader self-efficacy. For Research Question 2C, the MANOVA analysis indicated a significant difference in leadership efficacy between women who worked at the MLB level and had a female role model and women who worked on the MiLB level and had a female role model. On the other hand, there was no significant difference in business leader self efficacy between women who worked at the MLB level and had a male role model and women who worked on the MiLB level and had a male role model. For Research Question 3, results from multiple regression indicated gender career barriers and leader self-efficacy cognitive skill were two significant predictors of future leadership outcome expectations.

Theoretical Implications

The following section will discuss the results of this study as they relate to previous research. The section will discuss theoretical implications in the context of role models, career barriers, leader self-efficacy, and future leadership expectations following five major findings. The five major findings of this research are (a) importance of the presence/quality of a role model, (b) no gender preference for a role model, (c) women who have a female role model scored significantly different between Major league and Minor league levels on business leader self-efficacy, (d) future leader expectation had a positive relationship with leader self-efficacy and a negative relationship with career barriers, and (e) women saw themselves as role models who want to help newcomers in their organization.

Presence/Quality of a Role Model

The quantitative results in this study showed that the presence of a role model

did not affect leader self-efficacy in women. Results of the quantitative analysis showed no significant difference in leader self-efficacy between women who had a role model and those who did not. However, responses from the qualitative data revealed that 171 (about 80%) of women answered that the presence of their role model greatly contributed to developing their career skills. Some also commented that their role model helped them in understanding the job description for a position in which they were interested. In this study, a positive relationship was present between role model influence and role model quality just like in other studies (Moran-Miller & Flores, 2011; Quimby & DeSantis, 2006). Based on the previous research, it was demonstrated that women tend to select a role model with characteristics similar to themselves (Bandura, 1986; Hackett & Byars, 1996; Karunanayake & Nauta, 2004).

The results showed no significant difference on both business and cognitive leader self-efficacy by the presence of a role model. This result may be attributed to the high scores on both business leader self-efficacy ($M = 3.99$ on a five point scale) and cognitive leader self-efficacy ($M = 4.37$ on a five point scale). Respondents scored similarly whether they had a role model or not. Such a line of reasoning would partially explain the high scores on leader self-efficacy. In the qualitative results, respondents who have a role model answered the presence of a role model is important. However, the researcher did not ask respondents who said they did not have role model to explain why they did not. The qualitative data revealed that respondents thought having a role model was important for career development, but the quantitative results could not conclude that role model existence has positive relation to respondents' self-efficacy.

This study showed that role model existence was significantly related to role

model quality, which reflected that participants felt career role models were quality model. A positive relationship was seen between role model influence and role model quality, similar to other studies (Moran-Miller & Flores, 2011; Quimby & DeSantis, 2006). From the research results, women who felt they had a good role model also felt their role model influenced them in a positive way. Clearly the quality of a role model was important for the participants in this study.

Recent data from Moran-Miller and Flores (2011) confirmed that the quality of female coaching role models is far more effective and compelling than the quantity of female coaching role models when evaluating coaching self-efficacy and interests in coaching. A single positive female coaching role model may positively influence the attitudes of female athletes in terms of career opportunities and career development, more than the mere presence of a large number of female coaches with average coaching skills.

Career research has showed that the presence of role models has a significant and positive influence on self-efficacy beliefs of women, and especially has a strong impact on women in nontraditional careers (Cunningham et al., 2003; Everhart & Chelladurai 1998; Hackett & Betz, 1981; Lirgg et al., 1994; Moran-Miller & Flores, 2011). Moreover, researchers have proposed that female role models may function to encourage women to attain a career position in sport. Findings related to the gender of the role model in this study are discussed next.

The Gender of a Role Model

According to previous research, women with a female role model have high self-efficacy and tend to select jobs in male-dominated environments, which may be a positive result of having a role model of the same gender rather than having a male role model

(Everhart & Chelladurai, 1998; Hoyt & Simon, 2011; Lirgg et al., 1994, Moran-Miller & Flores, 2011; Quimby & DeSantis, 2006). Based on previous research, this study predicted a gender-related difference between the presence of a male and female role model. However, the results of this study showed no significant gender-related difference between having a male or female role model. From the qualitative data, 90% of study participants answered that the gender of a role model did not make a difference. Rather, the role model's character and attitude toward work were among the criteria used for selecting an ideal role model, and this did not link to gender differences. On the other hand, those women who selected a female role model commented that the reasons why they chose a role model of the same gender were because they simply respected their role model, appreciated the commonality they shared, and admired the career development of their role model. By actually interacting with a particular role model who began as an intern and advanced to become a vice president, for example, participants felt they wanted to develop their career just like their role model, and could use her example as a guide to easily imagine their own career development. Yet, 90% of women commented that the gender of a role model was inconsequential and they rather preferred to have a male role model. One reason for this response may be that since men are actually the ones who have long succeeded in business, women preferred to learn from men's successful experiences.

On the other hand, women could provide good examples to address work-life balance, therefore, some women may prefer to select a female role model. Female role models are important in learning the behaviors and ways of working in a male-dominated workplace, however, in order to succeed in business, women with high career aspiration

who have a strong desire to advance their career to be an executive or GM, may want to select male role models to learn from their successful experience. In this case, a male role model can be more attractive than a female role model to career-minded women.

Gender of a Role Model and Work Place

Leader self-efficacy of the respondents who participated in this research was quite high, and the value scored somewhere 3.99 out of a total of 5 for business leader self-efficacy and 4.37 for cognitive leader self-efficacy. No prior studies have examined leader self-efficacy from the aspects of business leader self-efficacy and cognitive leader self-efficacy separately.

Business leader self-efficacy of women working on the MiLB level who had a female role model differed from that of women working on the MLB level who also had a female role model. Interestingly, women working in MiLB scored higher on business leader self-efficacy of women than women in MLB. One reason for this difference may be because female role models in the MiLB were closer to more other women working in professional baseball compared to those in MLB. It is important to interpret the reason why business leader self-efficacy was exceptionally high for women working at the MiLB level.

Looking at cognitive leader self-efficacy, the average score was high for women working in both MiLB and MLB who had a female role model. There was no significant difference between women working in MLB or MiLB on cognitive leader self-efficacy. This could be attributed to the high scores on cognitive leader self-efficacy ($M = 4.37$ on a five-point scale). Women working on both levels may have opportunities to develop their cognitive self-efficacy. On the other hand, when business leader self-efficacy was compared between women working on the MiLB level and MLB level when both had a

female role model, women on the MiLB level scored higher than women on the MLB level. One reason for this difference may be that women work in the top management level in MiLB compared to MLB. Secondly, women have more chances to work with and interact with top level women (and men) in MiLB. Thirdly, people working in MiLB generally are tasked with various jobs and entrusted with more job responsibilities compared to people in MLB. Jobs on the MLB level are considered to be specialized jobs, therefore, tasks can be limited compared to jobs on MiLB levels. Such a line of reasoning could partially explain the slightly high scores of women work in MiLB on business leader self- efficacy.

As MLB is considered to be a more prestigious organization compared to MiLB, and people working in MLB tend to specialize in one particular area, such as Marketing or Ticket Sales. Contrastingly, people working in MiLB asked to handle various jobs other than the jobs assigned to their titles. For instance, a person in charge of Marketing also handles jobs such as Community Relations. People who work in the MiLB perform multiple tasks and are expected to be generalists rather than specialists.

Some studies suggest that men operate like a laser and tend to attain their professional career, whereas women tend to scan the surrounding information and operate like a radar in their workplaces. Helgesen and Johnson (2010) introduced in their literature “ Female Vision “ that organization can benefit from women's vision. The authors provided some definitive differences in the observational styles of men and women and also described the distinguishing characteristics between men and women. They likened women's focus to radar and men's focus to a laser. The authors suggested “Women’s observational style tends to be broad and wide-ranging, while men tend to

focus more narrowly on what they perceive as relevant to the task at hand” (p. 8).

When this idea is likened to the result of this research, the working style of people in MLB may be considered masculine and the working style of people in MiLB may be considered feminine. Perhaps the difference in business leader self-efficacy of women working in MLB and MiLB who both had female role models results from the difference in working styles, MLB as specialists and MiLB as generalists, and the difference in the type of job responsibilities within the leagues, rather than gender. A future study looking at men and role models would be interesting to see how their levels of business leader self-efficacy compare to the women.

Difference in Work Place – Major League Baseball v. Minor League Baseball

The majority of respondents stated that women held 20-30% of management positions with their team or league, making them the minority. This number is similar to Lapchick’s Racial and Gender Report Card data which indicate 17.7% (59 women) work as team senior vice presidents or vice presidents, 26.9% (414 women) work in senior administration, and 26.3% (357 women) hold team professional administration positions in MLB (Lapchick, 2013). Therefore, it was predicted that the career barriers women face and their leader self-efficacy figures in MLB and MiLB would differ from women working in non –male dominated work environments. Current studies indicated that self-efficacy in women tends to decrease in a male-dominated working environment (Hacket & Betz, 1981; Heilman, Sartore & Cunningham, 2007; Simon, & Repper, 1987; Pallier, 2003) and women in those environments are likely to experience multiple career barriers, especially gender discrimination (Burton et al., 2009; Burton et al., 2011; Grappendorf et al., 2004; Grappendorf et al., 2008).

It was expected, therefore, that women working at the MLB level, which has fewer female leaders compared to MiLB, would have lower leader self-efficacy and face greater career barriers compared to women at the MiLB level. According to the quantitative results, there was no significant difference in leader self-efficacy between women working in MLB and MiLB. Meanwhile, based on the qualitative result, some women wished to step-up and take a position at the Major League level, and switch from MiLB to MLB.

Future Leadership Expectations

Previous researchers widely recognized that outcome expectation increases in women who have high self-efficacy, and outcome expectation is likely to be low in women who face barriers in their environment (Bandura, 1986). The association between barriers and expectations, where the presence of barriers tends to lower career expectations, remains the same in this current study as the previous research results (Cunningham, Doherty, & Gregg, 2007; Hackett & Betz, 1981).

In this research, several women commented that their career goal was to become a GM or Vice President. These women scored high ($M = 4.18$) for future leadership expectation. Some of the participants accepted in advance that selecting a career in the baseball industry meant working in a male-dominated occupation. Women who experienced gender stereotyping accepted the barrier and seemed to be prepared for the challenge. They were all optimistic, very confident in themselves to be leaders in the future.

Similar to the results of the previous studies (Bandura, 1986; Cunningham, Doherty, & Gregg, 2007; Hackett & Betz, 1981; Lent & Brown, 1996; Lent et al., 1994);

Hackett & Betz, 1981), results in this study showed that future leadership expectation was low in women who faced barriers in their careers. Leadership expectation tended to increase in women who had high leader self-efficacy and also felt confident in their abilities (Bandura, 1986; Hackett & Betz, 1981; Lent & Brown, 1996; Lent et al., 1994). As already described in Chapter 4 and similar to the findings of previous studies, respondents who participated in this research did not perceive career barriers as actual barriers, and most of them were women possessing high career aspirations.

Many women in this study were striving to accomplish a task that has not been accomplished before by a woman – obtain a senior level position such as General Manager. The research results confirmed that in order to increase future leadership expectation and persuade women to become leaders, it is essential to eliminate the cause of career barriers and increase their self-efficacy.

Career Barriers

In this study, it was hypothesized that women working in the baseball industry would experience multiple career barriers based on previous research indicating women working in a male dominated environment are likely to face greater career barriers compared to general working environments. However, only a few women working at the MLB level had negative impressions about their working environment and faced difficulties while working.

One such career barrier is work-family balance. Work-family balance has received a great deal of attention in the sport management literature (Bruening & Dixon, 2007; Bruening et al., 2008; Dixon & Bruening, 2005, 2007; Greenhill et al., 2009; Inglis et al., 2000). These previous studies identified long workdays, weekend commitments,

travel requirements, and other after-hours engagements (e.g., fundraisers, community benefits) as challenges.

According to participants in this study, work barriers were neither challenges nor difficulties. This may be partly because most women understood that long and irregular working hours and the type of employment such as seasonal contracts were characteristics of the sport working environment in the first place. Since they were aware of the conditions from the beginning, they could adapt to the environment and even enjoy the conditions present in the work place they long dreamed to be part of. This may be one part of the reason why work-family balance was not identified as a challenge by the women researched. It was a new finding that women taking part in professional sports did not consider their working conditions in a male-dominated environment as a work barrier. The participants also stated that they did not face many gender barriers. These positive stances towards career barriers differed from that of female coaches as female coaches, who tended to feel that their working conditions were major barriers (Bruening & Dixon, 2008; Inglis et al., 1996).

Women Strive To Be Role Models For Others

Many women believe that the existence of a role model can likely lead to further career opportunities (Buunk, et al., 2007; Greene & Stitt-Gohdes, 1997; Quimby & DeSantis, 2006). They believe the presence of a role model enables them to build multiple networks that were not possible by themselves, and increases the opportunity of social interaction (Grappendorf & Henderson, 2008; Kanter, 1977). Learning from the experiences of a role model can function to forestall mistakes, save money, and optimize time use at work (Croxson, 2012). Women in this study identified a role model as a

support to their career in these ways: (a) acquiring necessary skills, (b) professional development activities, and (c) engaging a network of peer and traditional mentors and supervisors.

Among the participants, skill acquisition was recognized as an important element to career advancement and furthermore, women perceived skill acquisition to be the strongest career support. This is simply because women believed that a strong work ethic and acquisition of new skills would enable them to struggle and rise through the organizational hierarchy. Moreover, developing skills and capabilities will more likely increase performance quality and self-efficacy, and will also increase the potential in women to combat difficulties when they face career barriers (Betz, 2004; Wentling, 2003). Some women shared their ideas that they often feel self-confident when they were entrusted with more responsibility. They also felt affirmed when recognized by their colleagues for their successful work. The majority of women in this study commented that they were able to learn the importance of networking through their role model.

In this study, participants perceived networking skills as an important form of support modeled by their role model which assisted with career development. Networking enabled them to establish relationships with peers, mentors, and potential employers in the baseball industry, and the participants felt that networking was the key to enhance their careers. Like many other sport management studies emphasizing that participating in both formal and informal networks is especially important to advance women in sport organizations, this study also revealed the importance of networking (Bower, 2009; Grappendorf & Henderson, 2008; Hums & Sutton, 1999). Engaging a network of mentors and supervisors to discuss their views of career strategies and career

concerns can be another form of effective networking. According to O'Neil et al (2004), women can greatly increase their career advancement and development by taking advantage of career guidance. The results of the current indicated that participants were interested in career advancement in professional baseball, however, although they had different perceptions of career advancement. Despite these different perceptions, women's increasing interest in career advancement will lead to an increase in the number of women in decision-making positions and women will gain more ability in decision-making since they will have a greater understanding of the field. Moreover, networking helps maintain interpersonal relationships, and the relationships women developed through networks will help them manage career experiences, expectations, and future goals. Participants shared that their networks were sources of camaraderie, commiseration, and change.

Being a Role Model

Ninety percent of the women recognized themselves as role models. Many women who recognized themselves as role models were involved in teaching their subordinates or interns, and seemed to have a strong sense of responsibility to carry over what they learned to their new subordinates. The results were in opposition to the Queens Bee syndrome. Participants were eager to teach their job to subordinates in order to advance their career. The Queen Bee Syndrome, first introduced by Staines, Jayartne, and Tavis back in 1973, is a phenomenon among women who have advanced their in career and reached a position of authority. 'Queen Bee' women usually have no interest in educating other women to advance their career like they did, and do not support or encourage younger subordinates to succeed on their way up. Alternatively, they tend to

treat their subordinates more critically and severely if their subordinates are females (Drexler, 2013). Unlike this syndrome, 90% of women who participated in this research considered themselves as a role model, and they were willing to develop younger members so that they can work their way up just like they did. It was quite interesting to find the majority of women in this study did not act like Queen Bees, which is said to be a common occurrence in other work places (Drexler, 2013).

Practical Implications

The following section will discuss practical implications of role model influence in professional baseball, the sport industry and also the sport management classroom from managerial and consulting perspectives.

For Major League and Minor League Baseball Organizations

Leader self-efficacy evaluation. As part of an evaluation of career development in both men and women, research on leader self-efficacy and future career expectations should be conducted on a regular basis so that an individual can self evaluate whether or not s/he possesses the ability for leadership and confirm his/her degree of career aspiration. This should lead to the recruitment and development of individuals who can take management positions. For people who have low self-efficacy, it is important to increase their individual self-efficacy. Figuring out an effective way to increase their self-efficacy is considered a significant future task for this issue. The development of leadership skills and establishment of a fostering educational system adopting the four elements that function to increase self-efficacy will efficiently cultivate better leaders and benefit organizations. Bandura (1986) maintained that self-efficacy influences people's

positive psychological adaptation through performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal (Bandura, 1986).

As previously mentioned in this research, observational learning is beneficial for women to acquire necessary skills and behaviors from a role model and furthermore, it is important that women (and men) actually learn from diverse role models. Fans, audiences, and athletes come from various backgrounds and ages, and are rich in diversity. MLB has been quite active in attempting to foster increased diversity on the field, particularly through its RBI program, increasing the quality of coaching to attract talented athletes, and direct marketing to urban communities (MLB, 2014). This diversity visible on the playing field should be reflected in the people working on the management side of the baseball industry.

MLB currently has an office for Diversity and Strategic Alliances, of which Wendy Lewis serves as Senior Vice President. According to MLB (n.d., para. 1), “She implements MLB's Diversity Economic Impact Engagements, (DEIE). The DEIE is one of MLB's newest initiatives to advance the level of MLB's current workforce and supplier diversity efforts as well as develops methodologies for cultural assessments, diversity economic platforms and industry-wide diversity training. Wendy has the direct management responsibility for MLB's Executive Development Program (EDP) and The Diverse Business Partners Program, the premier supplier diversity program in sports.” The mission of this program is to “promote efficiency and profitability for Major League Baseball and its Clubs while extending Baseball's ability to contribute to the economic growth, strength and well-being of diverse communities” (MLB, 2014). It aims to

broaden the backgrounds of people who provide support services to the league, such as suppliers and business partners.

While these initiatives are very positive, they often focus more on race rather than gender and also they tend to focus on areas other than front office personnel. Given the results of this study, MLB might consider some of the following strategies to promote gender diversity in front offices. First, teams should make an effort to actively recruit talented young women to work in front offices. Second, establishing a formal mentoring program for women working in nontraditional jobs would help women find their way in these areas. Next, establishing a communication channel within MLB would help women working the MLB successfully network with each other. Finally, gender diversity training should be available to front office personnel at all Clubs and at the MLB Central Office. These meaningful approaches will certainly improve the working conditions of women and provide them with the opportunities to develop additional skills to help them work in MLB.

This research demonstrated that learning from a role model through the method of observational learning will enable younger employees increase their career aspirations and raise future expectations. The suggestions above, particularly the one on networking, will put women in contact with role models and allow them to learn from successful women leaders. Therefore, it is obvious that advancing female leaders will further advantage younger female employees to play an active role in workplaces.

Increase the number of women leaders. In this study, the researcher examined how important a role model can be as an example, and demonstrated the importance by the data collected. Ninety percent of women surveyed answered that the gender of a

role model was not so important, whereas, the remaining 10% responded that since they work in a male-dominated work place, it is quite important to have a female role model in order to learn helpful tips for career development (Cunningham et al., 2003; Everhart & Chelladurai 1998; Lirgg et al., 1994; Moran-Miller & Flores, 2011).

Most women who commented that the gender of a role model did not matter also shared that they tended to select role models by their humanity and ways of working. Many women chose a male role model, in order to increase the number of women leaders, it is important from the observational learning point of view that women emulate successful quality role models regardless of gender.

Many sports organizations are aiming to raise the percentage of women leaders. International Working Group on Women and Sport (IWG), which initially aimed to raise the percentage of women leaders to 20% in the Brighton declaration, now aims to raise the percentage to 40% at the 6th IWG World Conference on Women and Sport in Helsinki which will be held in 2014. However, as quality matters more than quantity, it is important to develop favorable working conditions and establish an educational system where people can learn the capabilities and knowledge to become efficient leaders. Simply increasing the number of female leaders is not the only thing that matters. In order to achieve this goal, it is essential to build a disciplined support system to foster women who have the potential to become female leaders. An increased number of female leaders will eventually improve the quality of female leaders and further increase the number of women who want to become leaders (Quimby & DeSantis, 2006).

Necessity of a visible presence. This study examined the significance of the presence of a role model, and now addresses the essential factors in the process of

selecting a role model, which includes sharing commonality with the person chosen. It appears that from now on, Major League and Minor league baseball, which aim to offer opportunities for diverse populations to play an active role, will especially require new leaders who reflect that diversity. Increasing diversity in leadership positions will especially have important implications for MLB, which aims to create a work place where a variety of people can actively participate.

Based on the research results, most women who believed they learned from their role model were conscious of being role models themselves for younger people, and were highly motivated to train them. It is crucial for the people who become role models to clearly realize they are actually role models who must serve as examples for others, and at the same time, it is important to train them to become effective leaders. Currently, the behavior and training of younger administrators are left to the role model's discretion and self-motivation. Systemization of how role models should behave and how they should teach younger members would not only streamline the process of learning from a role model and reduce costs for the process, but would provide an opportunity to educate both younger members and personnel currently in management positions.

For Nippon Professional Baseball

In 2001, the Japanese government established The Gender Equality Bureau Cabinet Office and passed an enactment to increase the number of female leaders in business and government offices. The Bureau currently aims to increase the percentage of women in leadership positions in both government and business organizations to “at least 30% by the year 2020”, and promotes practical and concrete measures to achieve this goal (Gender Equality Bureau Cabinet Office, 2014). In order to promote women to play

an active role in business, it is necessary to establish a system where the current situation regarding women's participation in each company is illustrated for investors, consumers, and job-hunting students so that the voluntary efforts of each company can be effective. For this purpose, the Cabinet Office, upon obtaining consent from each company, publicizes the current status of the appointment of women in management positions and promotion of work-life balance within public-listed companies and classifies the information according to the type of business (Gender Equality Bureau Cabinet Office, 2014). Despite the efforts, the percentage of women holding management positions in public and private companies make up only "6.2%". Therefore, the Cabinet Office aims to raise this percentage to "10% by the year 2015" (Gender Equality Bureau Cabinet Office, 2014).

As illustrated by the above-mentioned percentages, companies in Japan have long been male-dominated, and professional baseball, which is a particularly popular sport, has been especially considered a male-dominated industry over the years. The current study looked at women working in management positions in professional baseball in North America. Professional baseball organizations exist in numerous countries around the world. The major professional baseball league in Japan is Nippon Professional Baseball (NPB). It is vital to have a clear idea of approximately how many women leaders and staff work in Nippon Professional Baseball (NPB). Cultural differences exist between North America and Japan, where the sport industry is definitely male-dominated, with very few women working in management positions. It is necessary to consider the existence of strong hierarchical relationships and superior-subordinate relationships in Japanese culture. The attempt to establish an educational system for female leaders who

work in the long-time male-dominated baseball industry, increase the number of women who can serve as role models, and provide support for these women will likely serve as an effective model for other sports organizations and corporations. The presence of a female leader will exert a positive influence over female workers as well as male workers.

In order to attract more female fans to their games, Yomiuri Giants have introduced a project called "Project Venus" and various projects run by female staff members are on the increase. "Project Venus" was established to deal with women's lack of interest in baseball, and encourage them to come to the stadiums. In the spirit of attracting more women to professional baseball, female staff of Yomiuri Giants formed this project team in March of 2005 to play an active role in promoting baseball to women. Projects to attract female fans to professional baseball have been in the works for the past few years in Japan. For instance, "Carp Joshi", which means "Carp Girls", has been a popular phrase to describe the enthusiastic female fans for Hiroshima Carp. Carp has won many female fans in the past few years, and it is said that 40% of the visitors to the stadium are female. Another example is the installation of a so-called "Joshi seat", meaning "girl's seat" by the Yokohama Baystars, in order to draw more female fans to their games. Increasing the opportunities for women to enjoy and appreciate baseball may then lead to women wanting to pursue a career working with a professional baseball organization.

MLB's Diversity Program and Winter Meetings are convincing examples where gatherings are held among women working in baseball. Increasing the visibility and awareness of women working in baseball is considered to be of great importance.

The Japanese Government should put more effort into visualizing its approach to increase women's participation in companies, and create a persuasive woman figure who is active in the center stage as a leader. Kim Ng, who worked as a female assistant GM in MLB and is now Senior Vice President for Baseball Operations for MLB, is a perfect example for this. It is vital to ensure that companies recruit more women to work in their organizations and increase the number of female role models for others to emulate.

For Sport Management Programs

People are able to draw from the experience of role models. It is important for students to select a person to respect, delineate a future picture of the professional they would like to be, emulate ways of working, learn from the mistakes of their role model without actually experiencing them, look for similarities between themselves and current sport industry professionals, seek effective ways of thinking, and to develop the goals they wish to achieve. For sport management students entering the industry, the presence of graduates from their universities working in sport is important. Alumni who work in the sport industry provide valuable observational learning opportunities for students who would like to work in sport industry in the future.

Scholars from other fields have emphasized that achieving equity in workplaces depends on how well it was achieved in the classroom (Leverett, Parker, & McDonald, 2007; Levsen, Goettel, Chong, & Farris, 2001). Academic classrooms are the best environment to provide various opportunities to discuss and discover the organizational culture of the sport industry. Introducing perceived barriers and possible supports to students in the classrooms will help those interested in working in the sport industry prepare for the possible challenges they may experience in the future. According to the

research of Hancock and Hums (2011), only 25% of students enrolled in undergraduate Sport Management academic programs are women. It is obvious that the faculty must exert some effort to recruit and retain women in Sport Management programs, and make sure that women can successfully complete the program. DeSensi (1994) also suggested that recruiting diverse students with different cultural backgrounds is an essential step to adopt diversity both in education and in the sports industry. It is also important that the faculty creates a professional workplace where both men and women feel comfortable to concentrate on their studies.

It is crucial for the overall development of sport management academic programs to focus on diversity and prepare an educational program where gender equity is valued so women will feel they have the potential to work in the sport industry after graduation. It is necessary to enhance the development of human resources by cultivating an open-minded attitude so that everyone can respect diversity even though they work in a male-dominated industry. Learning from a diverse role model by finding commonality between themselves and learning from the experience of the role model are also effective measures. By observing alumni in their organization, women can learn to deal with the various barriers they may face and eventually devise solutions for success.

Areas for Future Research

Very little data are available about women working in professional sports, mostly due to the amount of work and effort to access to the samples. Unlike college athletics where there are existing databases with employee names and email addresses all in one place, names and contact information of the subjects working in professional sport

must be found from directories and official websites. It is not until this process is completed that the survey can be sent out. Demographic information has comparatively been undisclosed compared to organizations such as the NCAA, making it more challenging to contact participants, and this is one reason why professional sports remain less well studied.

It is highly recommended that the same survey conducted in this research should be conducted in other major professional sport organizations such as NFL, NBA, NHL, MLS and WNBA. The research would be able to be adapted to international organization such as International Olympic Committee, International Paralympic Committee, and international sport federations in order to gain a further understanding of women's leadership and careers in male-dominated environments.

Another area for future research would be to replicate this study with men working in the management of professional baseball. It would be interesting to compare and contrast how males working in a male-dominated environment see the importance of role models. Surveying men would also create opportunities to examine if factors such as gender of role model or levels of business self-efficacy might be related to gender or to the workplace environment itself. In addition, the salaries of women in this study seems quite low. It would be interesting to compare these income levels to those of men in baseball.

Future study of characteristics of role models and mentorship could actually move more toward "tangible benefits" received from a role model and/or mentor. Tangible benefits might include items such as being a reference; writing letters of recommendation, providing professional introductions; giving endorsements via social

media; offering internal support such as raises, promotions, and independent work responsibilities.

Conclusion

This study explored the career development of women working in management positions in professional baseball through the lenses of role models and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). Using career development frameworks offers a fresh perspective on the experiences of women in a male-dominated profession, specifically professional baseball in the US. This study especially examined role model influence from the standpoint of observational learning or modeling.

Previous studies demonstrated that role models contribute significantly to women during the process of selecting a career in a male-dominated occupation. Most studies focused on role model influence over career choice, and did not go into depth about how a role model can strongly influence women after they select a career in a male-dominated occupation and actually work in those environments. Although role model influence over career development of women who work in a male-dominated career is less well studied until now, this is an important area of inquiry that requires more empirical studies in order to encourage women who endeavor to achieve a management position in a male-dominated environment. Since very few studies mention role model influence over career development of women in sport and almost none of them focus on women in professional sport, this study is pioneering research to emphasize the importance of a role model to women who work in the sports industry. Furthermore, no studies have evaluated the necessity of a role model from the standpoint of leadership, therefore, this research closely examined role model influence from the

concept of leadership.

This research illustrates that role models exert different influences over women, and those influences are significant to career development of working women. This research analyzed the effective influence of role models by introducing the aspects of leader self-efficacy, various barriers encountered by women, and outcome expectancy. Moreover, this research exclusively limited the investigation target to women who work in professional sports, specifically professional baseball (MLB, MiLB, and Independent Leagues) in order to determine role model influence on the career development of women in a field not previously studied. The participants worked in management positions in professional baseball, one of the most male dominated environments in professional sports. This male-dominated portion of the professional sport industry has received little attention from researchers examining women in sport management, therefore, working women in professional baseball were a perfect example to provide useful information on the status of women employed in a male-dominated work-place. Since no studies so far have closely investigated women working in the male-dominated environment of professional sport, important findings from this research can greatly contribute to the literature. These women working in sports were significantly career-oriented. The participants did not perceive work life balance and career barriers as difficulties.

The results of this research also showed that women working in the management of professional baseball had a different sense of value and different perspectives towards career barriers than did female coaches. Many women in this study commented that their role model offered a chance to obtain an ideal working position and taught them how to be successful from the very beginning. Participants in this study also

shared their experience that their role model served as their example to learn how to behave during work, supplied them with a network which improved working conditions, advised them effective ways to balance work and family, and encouraged them that as long as they do not give up, gender difference should not be a barrier to working in a male-dominated environment.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Pre-notification Letter

Date, 2014

Dear _____:

My name is Maki Itoh and as partial fulfillment of my Ph.D in Educational Leadership and Organizational Development with a concentration in Sport Administration, I am conducting a study of role model influence on women working in the professional baseball industry.

Given your position in the professional baseball industry, I would like to invite you to participate in my study.

I will send you an email including the survey website information in a couple days. I hope you will choose to participate in this survey.

If you have any questions, concerns, or complaints about the research study, please contact: Maki Itoh at (646) 403-3882 or Mary A. Hums Ph.D. at (502) 852-5908. Thank you.

Sincerely,

Maki Itoh
Ph.D. Student
University of Louisville

Mary A. Hums, Ph.D
Professor, Sport Administration
University of Louisville

Appendix B

Invitation Letter

Date, 2014

Dear _____:

As partial fulfillment of my Ph.D in Educational Leadership and Organizational Development with a concentration in Sport Administration, I am conducting a study of role model influence on women working in the professional baseball industry.

Given your position in the professional baseball industry, I would like to invite you to participate in my study. I am requesting you to answer a survey which would take approximately 15-20 minutes, about your perceptions regarding your career role model. There are no known risks for your participation in this research study.

The information collected may not benefit you directly. However, the information you provide will help professionals and academics understand the experiences of women currently working in the professional baseball industry. Additionally, the experiences you share will also help women seeking such positions understand the personal and professional challenges and benefits of working in professional baseball.

All data collected from participants will be stored at the University of Louisville. Participant files will be kept in a secured office in a locked file cabinet. Electronic data will be kept on a password protected computer.

Individuals from the Department of Health and Sport Sciences, the Institutional Review Board (IRB), the Human Subjects Protection Program Office (HSPPPO), and other regulatory agencies may inspect these records. In all other respects, however, the data will be held in confidence to the extent permitted by law. Should the data be published, your identity will not be disclosed. Taking part in this study is voluntary. By participating in the interview you agree to take part in this research study. You do not have to answer any questions that make you uncomfortable. You may choose not to take part at all. If you decide to be in this study you may stop taking part at any time. If you decide not to be in this study or if you stop taking part at any time, you will not lose any benefits for which you may qualify.

If you have any questions, concerns, or complaints about the research study, please contact: Maki Itoh at (646) 403-3882 or Dr. Mary A. Hums at (502) 852-5908.

If you have any questions about your rights as a research subject, you may call the

Human Subjects Protection Program Office at (502) 852-5188. You can discuss any questions about your rights as a research subject, in private, with a member of the Institutional Review Board (IRB). You may also call this number if you have other questions about the research, and you cannot reach the research staff, or want to talk to someone else. The IRB is an independent committee made up of people from the University community, staff of the institutions, as well as people from the community not connected with these institutions. The IRB has reviewed this research study. If you have concerns or complaints about the research or research staff and you do not wish to give your name, you may call 1-877-852-1167. This is a 24 hour hot line answered by people who do not work at the University of Louisville.

Sincerely,

Maki Itoh
Ph.D. Student
University of Louisville

Mary A. Hums, Ph.D
Professor, Sport Administration
University of Louisville

Appendix C

Remainder e-mail

Date, 2014

Dear _____:

My name is Maki Itoh and as partial fulfillment of my Ph.D in Educational Leadership and Organizational Development with a concentration in Sport Administration, I am conducting a study of role model influence on women working in the management of professional baseball industry.

I am sending this email as a follow up from the previous invitation email I sent one week ago, and would like to invite you to my research again. Sorry to take your time during busy schedule, but your participation would be greatly appreciated.

If you have already responded and completed the survey, thank you so very much.

If you have not yet done so, if you could complete the survey by Friday February 14, 2014, I would greatly appreciate it.

Here is the link to complete the survey on-line:

https://louisvilleeducation.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_0GprAPVpX65HUnX

I have also included a copy of the original email below:

As partial fulfillment of my Ph.D in Educational Leadership and Organizational Development with a concentration in Sport Administration, I am conducting a study of role model influence on women working in the management of professional baseball industry.

Given your management position in the professional baseball industry, I would like to invite you to participate in my study. I am requesting you to answer a survey which would take approximately 20-30 minutes, about your perception in regards to your career role model. There are no known risks for your participation in this research study.

The information collected may not benefit you directly. However, the information you provide will help professionals and academics understand the experiences of women currently in management positions in the professional baseball industry. Additionally, the experiences you share will also help women seeking such positions understand the

personal and professional challenges and benefits accompanying management level positions.

All data collected from participants will be stored at the University of Louisville. Participant files will be kept in a secured office in a locked file cabinet. Electronic data will be kept on a password protected computer.

Individuals from the Department of Health and Sport Sciences, the Institutional Review Board (IRB), the Human Subjects Protection Program Office (HSPPO), and other regulatory agencies may inspect these records. In all other respects, however, the data will be held in confidence to the extent permitted by law. Should the data be published, your identity will not be disclosed. Taking part in this study is voluntary. By participating in the interview you agree to take part in this research study. You do not have to answer any questions that make you uncomfortable. You may choose not to take part at all. If you decide to be in this study you may stop taking part at any time. If you decide not to be in this study or if you stop taking part at any time, you will not lose any benefits for which you may qualify.

If you have any questions, concerns, or complaints about the research study, please contact: Maki Itoh at (646) 403-3882 or Dr. Mary A. Hums at (502) 852-5908.

If you have any questions about your rights as a research subject, you may call the Human Subjects Protection Program Office at (502) 852-5188. You can discuss any questions about your rights as a research subject, in private, with a member of the Institutional Review Board (IRB). You may also call this number if you have other questions about the research, and you cannot reach the research staff, or want to talk to someone else. The IRB is an independent committee made up of people from the University community, staff of the institutions, as well as people from the community not connected with these institutions. The IRB has reviewed this research study.

If you have concerns or complaints about the research or research staff and you do not wish to give your name, you may call 1-877-852-1167. This is a 24 hour hot line answered by people who do not work at the University of Louisville.

Sincerely,

Maki Itoh
Ph.D. Student
University of Louisville

Mary A. Hums, Ph.D
Professor, Sport Administration
University of Louisville

Remainder e-mail

Date, 2014

Dear _____:

My name is Maki Itoh and as partial fulfillment of my Ph.D in Educational Leadership and Organizational Development with a concentration in Sport Administration, I am conducting a study of role model influence on women working in the professional baseball industry.

I am sending this email as a follow up from the previous invitation email I sent one week ago, and would like to invite you to my research again. Sorry to take your time during busy schedule, but your participation would be greatly appreciated.

If you have already responded and completed the survey, thank you so very much.

If you have not yet done so, if you could complete the survey by (Friday March 7th, 2014), I would greatly appreciate it.

Here is the link to complete the survey on-line:

https://louisvilleeducation.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_0GprAPVpX65HUnX

I have also included a copy of the original email below:

As partial fulfillment of my Ph.D in Educational Leadership and Organizational Development with a concentration in Sport Administration, I am conducting a study of role model influence on women working in the professional baseball industry.

Given your position in the professional baseball industry, I would like to invite you to participate in my study. I am requesting you to answer a survey which would take approximately 15-20 minutes, about your perceptions regarding your career role model. There are no known risks for your participation in this research study.

The information collected may not benefit you directly. However, the information you provide will help professionals and academics understand the experiences of women currently working in the professional baseball industry. Additionally, the experiences you share will also help women seeking such positions understand the personal and professional challenges and benefits of working in the professional baseball industry.

All data collected from participants will be stored at the University of Louisville. Participant files will be kept in a secured office in a locked file cabinet. Electronic data will be kept on a password protected computer.

Individuals from the Department of Health and Sport Sciences, the Institutional Review Board (IRB), the Human Subjects Protection Program Office (HSPPPO), and other regulatory agencies may inspect these records. In all other respects, however, the data will be held in confidence to the extent permitted by law. Should the data be published, your identity will not be disclosed. Taking part in this study is voluntary. By participating in the interview you agree to take part in this research study. You do not have to answer any questions that make you uncomfortable. You may choose not to take part at all. If you decide to be in this study you may stop taking part at any time. If you decide not to be in this study or if you stop taking part at any time, you will not lose any benefits for which you may qualify.

If you have any questions, concerns, or complaints about the research study, please contact: Maki Itoh at (646) 403-3882 or Dr. Mary A. Hums at (502) 852-5908.

If you have any questions about your rights as a research subject, you may call the Human Subjects Protection Program Office at (502) 852-5188. You can discuss any questions about your rights as a research subject, in private, with a member of the Institutional Review Board (IRB). You may also call this number if you have other questions about the research, and you cannot reach the research staff, or want to talk to someone else. The IRB is an independent committee made up of people from the University community, staff of the institutions, as well as people from the community not connected with these institutions. The IRB has reviewed this research study.

If you have concerns or complaints about the research or research staff and you do not wish to give your name, you may call 1-877-852-1167. This is a 24 hour hot line answered by people who do not work at the University of Louisville.

Sincerely,

Maki Itoh
Ph.D. Student
University of Louisville

Mary A. Hums, Ph.D
Professor, Sport Administration
University of Louisville

Appendix D

Impact of Role Models on Women Working in Professional Baseball

Demographic Information

Directions: The following section of the questionnaire is about your background information. Your responses will be held confidential. Please answer each of the following questions.

1. How many years have you worked in each of following levels of professional baseball?

- a) Major League Baseball _____years
- b) Minor League
 - a) AAA _____years
 - b) AA _____years
 - c) A _____years
 - d) Rookie _____years
- c) Independent Baseball League _____years

2. Do you currently work in a:

- a) Team front office
- b) League office
- c) Other

3. At what level do you currently work?

- a) Major League Baseball
- b) Minor League
 - i) AAA
 - ii) AA
 - iii) A
 - iv) Rookie
- c) Independent Baseball League

4. What is your current job title? _____

5. Is your current job a management position or clerical position?

- a) Management position
- b) Clerical position

c) Other

6. Why did you choose to work in professional baseball?

7. Have you ever worked in the sport industry other than in baseball?

Yes No (Circle one)

If yes, in what capacity and for how long?

8. Approximately what percent of people in the team or league office where you currently work are women? _____

a) 0-9%

b) 10-19%

c) 20-29%

d) 30-39%

e) 40-49%

f) 50-59%

g) 60-69%

h) 70-79%

i) 80-89%

j) 90-99%

9. What are your career goals in the next 3-5 years?

10. What is your ultimate career goal?

11. What is your age?

_____ I prefer not answer

12. What is your race/ethnicity?

a.) White

b) African American

c) Latina

d) Asian

e) Asian-American

f) Native American

g) Other _____

h) I prefer not to answer

13. What is your current marital status?

a) Single, Never married

b) Married

- c) Divorced or Separated
- d) Widowed
- e) Unmarried partnership
- f) I prefer not to answer

14. a) How many children do you have? _____
 _____ I prefer not to answer
- b) How many of your children currently live at home? _____
 _____ I prefer not to answer

15. What is your annual income?
- a) Less than \$19,999
 - b) \$20,000-\$39,999
 - c) \$40,000-\$59,999
 - d) \$60,000-\$79,999
 - e) \$80,000-\$99,999
 - f) \$100,000 +
 - g) I prefer not to answer

16. What is the highest level of education you have completed?
- a) High School
 - b) Bachelor's Degree Major: _____
 - c) Master's Degree Area: _____
 - d) Doctoral Degree Area: _____
 - e) Juris Doctor (JD)
 - f) Other (Please specify) _____

Role Model Information

Introduction: The next sets of questions ask you about your career role model. Role models are the focus of this study. Role models are significant others who are thought to be similar to oneself, or whom people respect and wish to be like. Role models can be anyone people know either directly or indirectly, and who provide examples of behaviors and values. They serve as important examples and provide ways of finding oneself in society. A person may or may not have a direct personal relationship with a role model.

Role Model Questions

1. During your professional career, have you had a role model?
- a. Yes
 - b. No If "No" Please go to Question 10

2. If so, have any of your role models worked in the following levels? (Choose all that apply)

- a. MLB baseball
- b. Minor league baseball
 - AAA
 - AA
 - A
 - Rookie
- c. Independent Baseball League
- d. the sport industry outside of baseball
- e. outside the sport industry

For the following questions, think of the ONE person you consider your MOST influential career role model:

3. Is this person:

Male _____ or Female _____

4. Has this person ever worked for: (Choose all that apply)

- a. MLB baseball
- b. Minor league baseball
 - AAA
 - AA
 - A
 - Rookie
- c. Independent Baseball League
- d. The sport industry outside of baseball
- e. Outside the sport industry

5. Have you and your role model ever worked in the same organization

Yes No (Circle one) If "No" Please skip Question 6

6. At which level did you work together? Choose all that apply

- a. MLB baseball
- b. Minor league baseball
 - AAA
 - AA
 - A
 - Rookie
- c. Independent Baseball League
- d. The sport industry outside of baseball
- e. Outside the sport industry

Role Model Open-Ended Questions

7. What are two reasons why this person is your role model?
8. Is it important for you if your role model is male or female? Why or why not?
9. What are two things have you learned from your role model?
10. Do you consider yourself a role model? Please explain.

Role Models

Directions: The following statements are concerned with how you feel about career role models. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement by selecting the appropriate number using a 5 point Likert-type scale (Strongly Disagree = 1, Strongly Agree = 5).

		Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

1.	There is someone I am trying to be like in my career pursuits.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	There is no one particularly inspirational to me in the career path I am pursuing. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
3.	In the career path I am pursuing, there is someone I admire.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	There is no one I am trying to be like in my career pursuits. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I know of someone who has a career I would like to pursue.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	In the career path I am pursuing, there is no one who inspires me. (R)	1	2	3	4	5

(Moran-Miller, 2009)

Career Barrier Scale

Directions: The following statements refer to some barriers you may personally face working in the baseball industry. Please indicate the extent to which each of following statements would hinder you from developing your career in professional baseball. Please indicate how much you would be hindered by each statement by selecting the appropriate number using a 5-point Likert-type scale (Would not hinder at all =1, completely hinder=5)

		<div>Would Not Hinder At All<div>←-----→</div>Would Completely Hinder</div>				
1.	The amount of time required to work in the baseball industry	1	2	3	4	5
2.	The amount of travel required to work in the baseball industry	1	2	3	4	5
3.	The need to work a lot of nights and weekends	1	2	3	4	5
4.	The way working in the baseball industry can interfere with a social life	1	2	3	4	5
5.	The unfavorable working hours required to work in the baseball industry	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Conflicts with family commitments	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Discrimination against female workers in the baseball industry	1	2	3	4	5
8.	The baseball industry being viewed as a male domain	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Lack of support systems for female workers in the baseball industry	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Lack of support for female workers in the baseball industry from superiors	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Lack of knowledge of the game of baseball	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Lack of training programs for female workers in the baseball industry	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Players’ preferences for male front office workers	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Biases of the old boys’ network	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Male front office workers not accepting female workers in the baseball industry	1	2	3	4	5
16.	Lack of role models among female workers in the baseball industry	1	2	3	4	5
17.	Female workers in the baseball industry being treated unfairly	1	2	3	4	5

(Moran-Miller, 2009)

Future leadership Expectations

Directions: The following items are concerned with how you perceive yourself in a managerial role. Please indicate how you feel about each statement by selecting the appropriate number using a 5-point Likert-type scale (Strongly disagree = 1, Strongly agree = 5).

		Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1.	If I had the skills to be a leader, I will be able to get a leadership job in the future.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	In the future, I will not be able to be leader even if I have the skills to be one. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Having good leadership skills can help me get a leadership job in the near future	1	2	3	4	5
4.	If I were to seek a leadership position in the future, I am sure I can get one.	1	2	3	4	5

(Machida, 2012)

Leader Self-Efficacy

Directions: The following items are concerned with how confident you feel about your skills as a leader. Please indicate how confident you are with the skill described in each statement by selecting the appropriate number using a 5-point Likert-type scale (Not confident at all = 1, Very confident= 5)

		Not Confident At All					Very Confident				
1.	Speaking (talking to others to convey information effectively)
2.	Active listening (listening to what other people are saying and asking questions as appropriate)	1	2	3	4	5					
3.	Writing (communicating effectively in writing as appropriate for the needs of the audience)	1	2	3	4	5					
4.	Reading comprehension (understanding written sentences and paragraphs in work related documents, such as compliance documents)	1	2	3	4	5					
5.	Active learning (working with new information to grasp its implications)	1	2	3	4	5					
6.	Critical thinking (using logic and analysis to identify the strengths and weaknesses of different approaches)	1	2	3	4	5					
7.	Social perceptiveness (being aware of others' reactions and understanding why they react as they do)	1	2	3	4	5					
8.	Coordination (adjusting actions in relation to others' actions)	1	2	3	4	5					
9.	Negotiation (bringing others together to reconcile differences)	1	2	3	4	5					
10.	Persuasion (persuading others to change their minds or behavior)	1	2	3	4	5					
11.	Operations analysis (analyzing team needs and performance requirements to create a successful program)	1	2	3	4	5					
12.	Management of personnel resources (motivating, developing, and directing others)	1	2	3	4	5					
13.	Management of financial resources (determining how money will be spent to have a successful program)	1	2	3	4	5					
14.	Management of material resources (obtaining and seeing to the appropriate use of equipment, facilities, and materials needed to have a successful program)	1	2	3	4	5					
15.	Visioning (developing an image of how a program should work under ideal conditions)	1	2	3	4	5					
16.	Program perception (determining when important changes have occurred in a program or are likely to occur)	1	2	3	4	5					
17.	Program evaluation (looking at many indicators of a team's performance, taking into account their accuracy)	1	2	3	4	5					
18.	Identification of downstream consequences (determining the long-term outcomes of a change in	1	2	3	4	5					

	a program)	
19	Problem identification (identifying the nature of problems)	1 2 3 4 5
20.	Solution appraisal (observing and evaluating the outcomes of problem solution to identify lessons learned or redirect efforts)	1 2 3 4 5

(Machida, 2012)

CURRICULUM VITAE

MAKI ITOH

1521 Bellamy Pl. Unit 308
Louisville, KY 40208
makimaki11@hotmail.co.jp

EDUCATION

Ph.D.	2014	University of Louisville
Educational Leadership & Organizational Development
Specialization: Sport Administration
M.B.A.	2010	University of New Haven
Master of Business Administration Concentration in
Management of Sport Industries
B.A.	2003	Sophia University
Bachelor of German Literature

RESEARCH AND SCHOLARLY ACTIVITIES

1. Publications

Translation

JWS (Japan Association of Women in Sports) Member, Japanese translation of book of *Taking the Lead: Strategies and Solutions from Female Coaches* Coaching Association of Canada (CAC) and the University of Alberta Press, translated chapter 11.

2. Academic Presentations

Itoh, M., & Hums, M. A. Role Model Influence on Women's Leadership. 6th IWG World Conference on Women and Sport. Helsinki, Finland. (2014, June)

Itoh, M., Hums, M. A., Bower, G.G., & Moorman, M. A. Women's Leadership in Paralympic Sports. The North American Society for Sport Management. Austin, Texas. (2013, May)

Itoh, M., Kang, S. J., Hums, M. A. Exploring Nadeshiko League's online marketing effort. The Sport Marketing Association, Orland, Florida. (2012, October)

Itoh, M., Hums, M. A., McDonogh M, O., & Nakazawa. M. The impact of winning the World Cup on women's professional soccer: a comparison of leagues in Japan and the United States. The North American Society for Sport Management, Seattle, Washington. (2012, June)

Itoh, M. Applying Sport interest Inventory (SII) theory to women's soccer in the US and Japan. Spring Research Conference, Louisville, Kentucky. (2012, March)

Choi, C., Kang, S. J., Lee, C., Itoh, M. Exploring motivation and commitment levels of college students majoring in sport management and business. Spring Research Conference, Louisville, Kentucky. (2012, March)

Itoh, M. Generation Y and G Presented at International Women's Group for Sports 2010 Sydney Conference. (2010, May)

3. Guest lectures in classes
SPAD509: International Sport: Sports in Japan lecture Spring 2012
SPAD383: Sport Marketing: How to promote women's sport Spring 2013
4. Research
University of Louisville Athletic Department Annual Student Athletes Survey Research (2012)

GRANT FUNDING and AWARD ACTIVITIES

Itoh, M. (2014). Doctoral Dissertation Completion Award Funded by the University of Louisville The School of Interdisciplinary and Graduate Studies (SIGS) Award in the amount of \$12,000.

Itoh, M. (2013). Travel to Albuquerque, New Mexico for the 2013 Sport Marketing Association (SMA) Funded by the Sport Administration Club, University of Louisville in the amount of \$200.

Itoh, M. (2013). Travel to Austin, Texas for the 2013 North American Society of Sport Management (NASSM) Conference. Funded by the University of Louisville The Health and Sport Sciences department Student Development Award in the amount of \$300.

Itoh, M. (2012). Recipient of resident tuition award for college of education, University of Louisville in the amount of \$10,274.

Itoh, M. (2012). Travel to Seattle, Washington for the 2012 North American Society of Sport Management (NASSM) Conference. Funded by the University of Louisville College of Education and Human Development in the amount of \$350.

Itoh, M. (2012). Travel to Seattle, Washington for the 2012 North American Society of Sport Management (NASSM) Conference. Funded by the University of Louisville The Health and Sport Sciences department Student Development Award in the amount of \$300.

Itoh, M. (2012). Samuels Family Scholarship. Funded by the University of Louisville College of Education and Human Development in the amount of \$250.

Itoh, M. Rotary Ambassadorial Scholarship: Year 2008-2010 Multi-Year Scholarship. Founded by The Rotary Foundation in the amount of \$23,000.

PROFESSIONAL POSITIONS

Chiba, Japan

Juntendo University

April 2014- Present

Assistant Professor of Sport Management

Tokyo, Japan

Juntendo University

April 2011 – August 2011

Research Assistant

Worked for project of Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology.

Researched Female athletes support project, one of Governmental Multi Support projects for top athletes to compete at the summer and winter Olympic Game.

Sports Biz, Co., Ltd.

Tokyo, Japan

Athlete Management Division

November 2010 – April 2011

Provide management and support for athletes, coaches, and sports figures, from competitions to life planning, consulting, promotion, and event planning

Edited athletes' yearly profile book.

Translated English contracts and athletes' information into Japanese.

bunkakobo, Inc. (Media Company)

Tokyo, Japan

April 2004 – April 2006

Sports News Editor

Edited daily sports news stories, focused primarily on overseas news such as Major League Baseball and golf for one of the six major Japanese television companies.

- Athens Olympic Games: Led news team consisting of 50 members from all news sections to cover Athens Olympic Games. Achieving the highest audience rating of the year (43 %; 15% increase from previous year). Improved efficiency through effective utilization of new computerized VTR system.

- Japanese Major League Baseball: First female to edit Japanese professional baseball convention VTR of 30 most valuable players in Japanese leagues.
- US Golf Tournaments: Selected as golf editor to lead team broadcasting four major golf tournaments, including U.S. Open Championship and U.S. Women's Open Championship, for which TV Asahi had sole broadcasting rights in Japan
- Responsible for all aspects of creating news reports and disseminating stories to other TV companies, including selection of scenes
- Acquired expertise in new computer system (XPRI) for editing multiple scenes on one screen; created training materials and then trained the staff.
- Innovative Editor: Reduced editing time of English-Japanese translation of World Baseball Classic to three-minute news story from United States.

SERVICE, MEMBERSHIP, and LEADERSHIP

Professional

Member, North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM)
 Member, Sport Marketing Association (SMA)
 Member, Japan Association of Women in Sports (JWS)
 Member, Baseball for All

University

Member, OASIS (International Student Association)
 Note Taker for Disability Resource Center

HONORS

2010	Recipient of the Outstanding Graduate Student Award from the West Haven Rotary Club
2003	Most Valuable Athlete of the Year, Sophia University Athletic Department Alumni Association
2003	Most Valuable Athlete of the Year, Sophia University Athletic Department
2003	Team Captain, Varsity Women's Baseball
2002	Most Valuable Athlete of the Year, Sophia University Athletic Department Alumni Association
2002	Most Valuable Athlete of the Year, Sophia University Athletic Department