University of Louisville

ThinkIR: The University of Louisville's Institutional Repository

Electronic Theses and Dissertations

5-2018

Jumping over the hurdle : examining and overcoming the barriers for women in intercollegiate athletics through mentorship.

Emma Mary Cohen
University of Louisville

Recommended Citation

JUMPING OVER THE HURDLE: EXAMINING AND OVERCOMING THE
BARRIERS FOR WOMEN IN INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS THROUGH
MENTORSHIP

By

Emma Mary Cohen
B.S., University of Connecticut, 2016

A Thesis
Submitted to the Faculty of the
College of Education and Human Development of the University of Louisville
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
For the Degree of

Master of Science in
Sport Administration

Department of Health and Sport Sciences
University of Louisville
Louisville, Kentucky

May 2018

JUMPING OVER THE HURDLE: EXAMINING AND OVERCOMING THE
BARRIERS FOR WOMEN IN INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS THROUGH
MENTORSHIP

By

Emma Mary Cohen
B.S., University of Connecticut, 2016
M.S., University of Louisville, 2018

A Thesis Approved on

April 17, 2018

by the following Thesis Committee:

Mary A. Hums, Thesis Director

Meg G. Hancock, Committee Member

Marion E. Hambrick, Committee Member

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my loving, unconditionally supportive parents

Mr. Andrew Cohen

And

Mrs. Therese Cohen

who have enabled me to follow my dreams and given me every opportunity to succeed.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

To my thesis committee: Dr. Hancock, Dr. Hums, and Dr. Hambrick. Without your constant support, guidance, and encouragement, this would not have been possible. I will never be able to thank you enough or articulate the impact you each have had not only on this work, but also on my life. Dr. Hancock- thank you for mentoring me through my methodology, and being such a positive resource for me. I feel so lucky that I had you in my corner. Dr. Hums- thank you for always challenging me, and always reminding me of the three most important questions in research: what did you do, how did you do it, and what does it mean? This will be ingrained in my mind forever, and I know I am better because of it. Dr. Hambrick- thank you for your consistent feedback stemming from the start of this whole process in your research class. Because of you three, I am a changed student and person for the better. I am forever grateful to each one of you, and it was an honor to have you on my committee.

To my family- Mom, Dad, and Dan – you give me my motivation. You always cheer me on for my accomplishments, but pick me up and help me center myself in the failures. You have been there for the highs and the lows. No matter where in the world life takes me, I always know where home is, and I take the most pride in that. Thank you for allowing me to move across the country to pursue my degree, never questioning my decisions, and trusting that I will make the best decisions that I can. Thank you for being patient and understanding, and above all else for believing in me across the miles. To my nieces and nephew-Harper, Brady and McKenna- one day I hope you will read this and

ABSTRACT

JUMPING OVER THE HURDLE: EXAMINING AND OVERCOMING THE

BARRIERS FOR WOMEN IN INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS THROUGH

MENTORSHIP

Emma M. Cohen

April 17, 2018

Given the evident underrepresentation of females working intercollegiate athletics at all levels, there is a growing need to understand the types of barriers that limit women and cause these disproportionate representation(Acosta & Carpenter, 2014; Staurowsky & Smith, 2016). There is also a need to explore the impact of meaningful mentorship to combat these apparent obstacles.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the barriers women currently face as they enter the intercollegiate athletics workplace in entry-level positions and explore the role of mentors in their career success. Entry-level sport administrators are a demographic of the industry that has not previously gotten the attention of researchers. Mentoring characteristics were based off Kram's (1985) two categories of mentoring functions- developmental and psychosocial.

Interviews were conducted and data was collected from 10 entry-level female administrators in NCAA Division I intercollegiate athletics departments in a given conference. The biggest barriers women currently face in entry-level positions were (a)

having to prove self/capabilities/ knowledge, (b) combating the "good old boys" club, (c) the department in which one works matters, and (d) work-family conflict. The most beneficial developmental mentoring functions were (a) coaching, (b) exposure and visibility, and (c) challenging assignments. Participants shared the most important psychosocial functions were (a) counseling and (b) role modeling. The most frequently emerging theme for mentoring functions overall was counseling. Participants shared that their aspirations of advancement have moved from wanting to be an Athletic Director toward leading either an internal or external department. Women's goals of wanting to advance in their careers had not changed, and they believed that their goals were achievable given their abilities.

These findings suggest that many of the experiences, obstacles, and mentoring functions found in studies of senior level or executive level administrators are very similar to those of entry-level positions. This means that the experience of an entry-level female sport administrator does not vary much in this regard from the time she starts her career in an entry level position to when she is in a high leadership position of power in a senior-level position. This is valuable information for women entering the intercollegiate sport industry, men and women currently in high leadership positions in intercollegiate athletics administration, and scholars studying gender and equity in sport.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Historically, women have been underrepresented in intercollegiate athletic

administration. However, previous research has exclusively looked at women in senior

level, executive administrative positions (Boles, Howard, & Donofrio, 2001; Bower &

Hums, 2014; Burton, 2015; Diacin & Lim, 2012; Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Greenhaus &

Beuetell 1985; Lovett & Lowry, 1994). These positions are the positions that are titled

associate or assistant athletic director (Lapchick, 2010). There is research on both the

barriers and challenges that women face in their experience as senior level administrators,

and on the impact of a meaningful mentorship for these women. There is an apparent gap

in the literature on experiences of the new generation of sport administrators in entry-

level positions, particularly women, and their experiences with mentorship.

Review of Literature

Previous literature guides the framework for this study. One of the most

documented obstacles for women in intercollegiate athletics has been work-family

conflict. Work-family conflict addresses the societal norms for family roles, scarcity

theory, and its negative implications on females (Boles, Howard, & Donofrio, 2001;

Burton, 2015; Diacin & Lim, 2012; Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Greenhaus & Beuetell

1985). Another major barrier identified in the literature for women in

intercollegiate athletic administration is the presence of the "good old boys" network lingering throughout the industry (Buzuvis, 2015; Diacin & Lim, 2012; Kanter, 1977; Lovett & Lowry, 1994). The "good old boys" club not only limits employment opportunities, but also hinders advancement for women in the field. Finally, looking at obstacles through more of a of a societal lens, gender ideologies present another obstacle. This notion analyzes societal expectations for men and women, assigns different types of characteristics to match those expectations, and then reacts to whether or not they are met. The implications of these realities can affect women and perhaps persuade them away from pursing certain careers.

Work Family Conflict

Work-family conflict stems from social role and role congruity theories. These theories look more broadly at society and suggest that men and women are expected to presume different roles in each context of their lives, including the family dynamic. Diacin and Lim (2012) suggest that women take on many roles in their professional, personal, and social lives. Work-family conflict occurs when there is an imbalance between the demands and responsibilities of work and the responsibilities that come at home. Boles, Howard, and Donofrio (2001) 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.377). Early scholars of work-family conflict Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) established that there is a bi-directional relationship between day-to-day work and family functions. In other words, more time and satisfaction spent on either work or family results in less time and satisfaction with the other. This is problematic because it forces people to have to choose which to give more time to, and which satisfaction must consequently be given up.

2

The relevance of work-family conflict in intercollegiate athletic administration is that work-family conflict affects women significantly more than men in the industry (Dixon & Bruening, 2005). Much of this has to do with the demanding and unpredictable schedules that come with working in intercollegiate athletics, such as long hours, extensive travel, and inflexible schedules. Women are more likely to be affected by these parts of the job, and typically are not willing to compromise their time with family (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Greenhaus & Powell, 2003; Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001). Much of this is because females in society are expected to take on the caretaker role for both young children and elders (Dixon et al., 2008; Kossek, Colquitt, & Noe, 2001). It is more societally acceptable for men to sacrifice time spent with family in order to be the breadwinner and provide for his family (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Greenhaus & Powell, 2003; Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001).

"Family-friendly" organizations seem to offer a better balance between work life and family life. Burton (2015) and also Dixon, Tiell, Lough, Sweeny, Osborne and Bruening (2008) identified strategies that organizations can use to help mitigate work-family conflict by offering health care, flexible hours, and fully embracing gender equity policies. It is important for organizations to not only have policies in place, but also to not attach a negative stigma around using those policies so everyone in the organization feels fully supported. Dixon et al. (2008) noted that many women felt if they used the policies in place for gender equity they would be perceived negatively, potentially hindering their advancement in the organization. For example, many women do not take their entire allotted maternity leave because they feel it will hurt their career (Galinsky, Bond and Friedman, 1996). It is equally as important to not only have policies in place, but also a culture that encourages and supports the use of these policies. If the organizational

culture is non-supportive, then women are more likely to leave the a particular

workplace, and potentially, a profession.

Good Old Boys Network

The "good old boys" network lingering in the intercollegiate athletics industry has

negative implications for women looking to enter and advance their careers in the

industry (Lovett & Lowry, 1994). In essence, the "good old boys" network is "an

informal system through which men are thought to use their positions of influence to help

others who went to the same school or university they did, or who share a similar social

background" (Oxford Dictionary, 2018, para 1). In intercollegiate athletics, men typically

have occupied many of the managerial positions, including the Athletic Director role

(Acosta & Carpenter, 2014). Women do not have this network of colleagues who can

help them land new positions like men do. This puts women at a disadvantage for finding

new opportunities, advancing their careers, and building relationships with other people

in the industry.

A major theoretical component of the "good old boys" network is the presence of

homologous reproduction. According to Kanter (1977), a dominant group will

systematically reproduce itself. In other words, people in power like to have others

around them who are just like them. There is a presumption within the dominant group

that those of the same sex or race are qualified, and all others must prove themselves and

their qualifications for membership (Buzuvis, 2015). In intercollegiate athletics, the

dominant group is typically a Caucasian, protestant, able-bodied, heterosexual male

(Diacin & Lim, 2012). Homologous reproduction suggests these Caucasian, Protestant,

able-bodied, heterosexual men are likely going to gravitate towards hiring other

Caucasian, Protestant, able-bodied, heterosexual men. Women get systematically left out,

creating a barrier they need to overcome. Women must find a way to prove themselves

and to break into the "good old boys" network, which can be a very difficult task for

many women.

Gender Ideologies

Gender ideologies allow barriers for women to be analyzed from a societal

theoretical perspective. Gender ideologies include gender role theory (social role theory)

and role congruity theory. Gender role theory suggests that there are different societal

expectations for men and women (Burton, 2015; Burton & Hagan, 2008; Burton, Barr,

Fink, & Bruening, 2009; Diacin & Lim, 2012; Grappendorf, Pent, Burton & Henderson,

2008). Men and women are given different attributes which outline socially accepted

behaviors for each gender. Burton and Hagan (2008) and also Diacin and Lim (2012)

noted that masculine characteristics include aggression, ambition, domination, force,

independence, self-sufficiency and self-confidence. Feminine characteristics that are

socially appropriate for women are nurturance, life skills, kindness, sensitivity and

guidance. Because managerial positions often require the types of characteristics seen as

masculine, many women may not feel they are qualified for those positions, or do not

desire those positions because the skills necessary are not natural to their disposition

(Diacin & Lim, 2012; Grappendorf, Pent, Burton & Henderson, 2008).

Role congruity theory expands on gender role theory and offers an explanation for

why certain jobs that require more masculine characteristics may seem more appropriate

for men, and why jobs that require more feminine characteristics may seem more

appropriate for women. As a result, if a woman has or wants a leadership position in

intercollegiate athletics, she will likely face prejudice or be perceived negatively because

she either possesses or aspires to a position inconsistent with the gender roles given by society (Burton, Barr, Fink, & Bruening, 2009).

Mentoring

While women face many obstacles in intercollegiate athletics, a way to help overcome them is through mentorship. Mentorship is a dyadic relationship and promotes both personal and professional growth for both a mentor and protégé (Ghosh & Reio Jr,, 2013) The early works of Kram (1983; 1985) established the mentoring model studied by other scholars since (Bower & Hums, 2014; Ghosh & Reio Jr., 2013; Kram, 1983; Lankau & Scandura, 2002). Kram (1983) first identified the mentor-protégé relationship, and then introduced two key mentoring functions: career development functions and psychosocial functions. Each of these functions is defined by different behaviors that correspond to that respective function.

The development function of mentoring focuses on helping protégés advance their career by focusing on teaching them the tasks to be successful (Ghosh & Reio, 2013; Higgins & Kram, 2001; Kram, 1983). This function is specifically broken into five categories: sponsoring, coaching, exposure and visibility, protection, and challenging assignments (Ghosh & Reio, 2013; Kram, 1985; Kram & Isabella, 1985; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2007). Each of these functions adds knowledge and other important assets to help protégés advance in their professional careers.

The psychosocial mentoring functions focus more internally on a protégé's personal development and include role modeling, counseling, friendship, and acceptance/confirmation (Kram, 1985; Ghosh & Reio, 2013; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2007). These functions give protégés strong support, help them develop a sense of self, and use mentoring relationships to leverage their own skill set. These types of

6

relationships can be very important for women working in a male dominated industry because they give these women somebody to talk to, learn from, and ask questions to while they simultaneously are learning how to be the best versions of themselves to be successful in the industry.

Understanding that women face many obstacles in intercollegiate athletics can help identify the need and importance of strong mentorship. Women are fighting an uphill battle to be on the same playing field as their male counterparts. Whether struggling with the work-family conflict, being excluded from the "good old boys" club, or battling the gender ideologies set by society, women's experience working in intercollegiate athletics is inherently more difficult than men's However, if these same women understand the types of benefits associated with a mentor, the next generation of athletic administrators may change the historic trends and the underrepresentation of females in this industry may eventually change.

Significance of the Study

This study was significant for a variety of reasons. First and foremost, this is a population that has not been studied by researchers before. The majority of research on women working in athletic administration has focused on higher level managerial positions (Boles, Howard, & Donofrio, 2001; Bower & Hums, 2014; Burton, 2015; Diacin & Lim, 2012; Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Greenhaus & Beuetell 1985; Lovett & Lowry, 1994). Very little research is dedicated to the experiences of entry-level female athletic administrators. Examining this specific targeted population alone will add to the literature on careers of female athletic administrators and their experiences with mentorship.

Second, the practical implications of this study offer very significant insights on what we can expect trends to look like in the future. In other words, previous research typically looked only at the senior level administration at a given time. This study gives perspectives and experiences of the women who could become future senior level administrators. Understanding the next generation of sport administrators allows both researchers and administrators to see if history is continuing to repeat itself, or if the trends are changing in any way.

If current sport administrators understand the barriers that women experience in entry-level positions today, and understand the types of mentors who are most beneficial in helping those women in their careers, different programming and policies can start to be established in university athletic departments to help create an inclusive and welcoming work experience for women. Insights from this study will prompt new recruitment and retention strategies. This may encourage more women to enter the industry and hopefully stay in the industry, closing the gap in representation between men and women.

Purpose of this Study

Studying the experiences of female athletic administrators is not completely new to sport management researchers. Scholars have long been interested in understanding the types of challenges women working in leadership positions in athletics face. Previous research on this topic looked at the challenges of senior level female administrators working in intercollegiate athletics (Boles, Howard, & Donofrio, 2001; Bower & Hums, 2014; Burton, 2015; Diacin & Lim, 2012; Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Greenhaus & Beuetell 1985; Lovett & Lowry, 1994).

There is a gap in literature and a growing need to understand the experiences of entry-level female administrators. Looking specifically at entry-level female administrators can provide insight into the next generation of leaders in sport administration to see if history will repeat itself, or if the trends are changing in any way. Research in the past focused on the same demographic of senior level administrators who over time will eventually leave the industry. Targeting a demographic that has not been studied before can not only help scholars understand current trends, but also can help sport administrators identify strategies to improve the industry experience for women, and help women identify strategies to be successful in this male dominated field. Likewise, mentorship has been studied across industry segments including the sports industry for many decades. Previous studies particularly looked at men's and women's perceptions of mentorship, and also senior level female administrators experiences with mentorship (Ghosh & Reio, 2013; Higgins & Kram, 2001; Kram, 1983; 1985; Lankau & Scandura, 2002). Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate the barriers women currently face as they enter the workplace in entry-level positions in intercollegiate athletics and explore the role of mentors in their career success.

Research Questions

Three research questions guided this study looking at the challenges females face in intercollegiate athletics, plans for advancement, and mentoring functions that aid in the success for women in the industry.

RQ1. What types of obstacles do women face today in the male dominated industry of intercollegiate athletic administration?

RQ2. What career plans do women have in regard to advancing into higher positions in intercollegiate athletic administration?

RQ3. What types of qualities do mentors have that are helpful for women entering intercollegiate athletic administration?

Limitations and Delimitations

This study has the following limitations:

1. This study only considered women currently working in entry-level positions at Division-I athletic departments.

2. Only females working in entry-level positions in NCAA Division 1 intercollegiate athletics are included in the population.

3. This study exclusively looked at female athletic administrator's career experiences and experiences with mentorship.

This study has the following delimitations:

1. This study is limited to women who currently work in entry-level athletic administrative positions in the athletic departments in one given Power 5 conference.

2. Because this study is qualitative, the findings are not generalizable to other females in entry-level positions not included in this particular study.

Summary

The experience of women working in intercollegiate athletics has sparked the interest of sport management scholars. Researchers identified one of the biggest barriers for women in the industry to be the work-family conflict. Work-family conflict is problematic for women because the demands of working in intercollegiate athletics partnered with the expected responsibilities to care for her family often is too much, causing women more than men to have to choose one or the other (Dixon & Bruening, 2005). Greenhaus and Powell (2003) state that both work and family life have the

capacity to give satisfaction. However, these two seem to be mutually exclusive to a degree. The more satisfaction or time spent with one comes at the expense of the other (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001). This tension causes many women to either leave the industry, or choose not to pursue a career in the industry in the first place.

Organizational structure and work environment have a great impact on the severity of the work-family conflict for women. If the organizational structure or work environment is supportive it can relieve some of the tension for women, accommodating their needs and giving women more flexibility creates a very positive culture that can mitigate the struggles that women often times face (Staines & Pleck, 1984).

Part of the organizational structure and work environment for women in intercollegiate athletics is having supportive organizational policies. Policies can give women the needed security that they do not have to fear that certain family responsibilities will take away from career advancement or hinder their job in any way (Dixon et. al, 2008). However, it is important that organizations do not have these policies for public image purposes. Supportive organizational policies are only beneficial if the culture around utilizing them is also positive (Burton, 2015).

Another notable barrier women have to overcome is the "good old boys" network. This phenomenon suggests that the college sport system is sex discriminatory, and is an industry "where men protect the interests of each other, serve as gate keepers by hiring men who reflect their style, image, and values; and create insular decision-making processes that elevate men who epitomize the systems ideals while restricting women in terms of numbers and roles" (Staurowsky & Smith, 2016 p. 204). The "good old boys" network provides men an exclusive network that is to their advantage in gaining

11

opportunities and advancing in an organization. Homologous reproduction is the result of the "good old boys" network at work. Men are likely to look to their network of other men similar in looks, values, and beliefs when looking to fill new positions (Kanter, 1977). Women continue to be left out of these opportunities because these small networks typically only include other men.

Another major obstacle women have to face while working in intercollegiate athletics is the socialized gender ideologies. Gender ideologies suggest that there are expectations for men and women to behave, look, and act a certain way (Burton, 2015; Burton & Hagan, 2008; Eagly & Karau, 2002). Society constructs different masculine characteristics appropriate for men, and feminine characteristics appropriate for women.

Role congruity theory builds on the gender ideologies and takes them one step further. Women working in intercollegiate athletics, especially in leadership or decision-making positions often times contradict what is considered appropriate for women. Women who challenge the status quo and the script society handed them must overcome those who oppose them and criticize them for it (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Grappendorf, Pent, Burton & Henderson, 2008).

While there are many documented barriers for women in intercollegiate athletics, Kram (1983) offers a way to combat them through effective and meaningful mentorships. Other scholars applied these mentoring functions to the sporting industry (Ghosh & Reio Jr., 2013; Higgins & Kram, 2001; Lankau & Scandura, 2002; Scandura & Pelligrini, 2007). The mentoring functions are divided into two functions: developmental function, and psychosocial function (Kram, 1983).

Developmental functions for mentorship are defined by assisting a protégé through career advancements. Kram characterizes development functions as: sponsorship,

coaching, exposure and visibility, protection, and challenging assignments. These tasks are focused more specifically at career development to help the protégé learn how to be successful in their given job, and help them advance in their careers.

On the other hand, psychosocial mentoring functions are directed toward the personal development of an individual, and centered around the supportive relationship to enhance an individual's skillset. These functions include: role modeling, counseling, friendship, and acceptance and confirmation (Kram, 1983).

Scholars studied the significance of mentorships in senior-level or executive level sport administrators (Bower & Hums, 2014). The functions of Kram (1983) were the guides to finding what functions were most important for women in these positions. These findings showed that the most important developmental functions were (a) exposure and visibility and (b) coaching. The most important psychosocial functions were (a) counseling, (b) role models, and (c) acceptance and confirmation (Bower & Hums, 2014). Understanding the types of functions most beneficial to the success of senior level women in sport administration can help future generations understand the types of relationships to form with mentors to overcome the inevitable barriers new professionals will face in the industry.

Definitions

In this section, key concepts and terminology used throughout this study will be introduced and identified.

Career Development Function (Mentoring): help protégé's learn the ropes and facilitate the protégé's advancement in the organization" (Ragins & Cotton, 1999, p. 530). This includes: following: sponsoring, coaching, exposure, visibility, protection, and challenging assignments (Kram, 1985).

External Departments (in Athletic Departments): Responsibilities in development and finance, media relations, ticketing, fundraising, marketing and promotions, sports information (Hoffman, 2011).

Gender-Role Theory (Social Role Theory): The idea that there are societal expectations for individuals based upon their gender (Burton, 2015 Eagly & Karau, 2002).

Internal departments (in Athletic Departments): Responsibilities in student services, compliance, advising and academics, life skills (Hoffman, 2011).

Mentor: an individual with advanced knowledge and expertise, with a commitment to fostering the development of a younger individual's career (Higgins & Kram, 2001; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2007).

"Old Boys Network": A network of other men in the industry, which gives them a network of colleagues unavailable to females. This serves as "a structural deterrent that prevents women from entering" (Lovett & Lowry, 1994, p. 28).

Protégé: "one who is protected or trained or whose career is furthered by a person of experience, prominence, or influence" (Merriam-Webster, 2018).

Psychosocial Support Function (Mentoring): "interpersonal aspects of the mentoring relationship and enhance the protege's sense of competence, self-efficacy, and professional and personal development" (Ragins & Cotton, 1999, p.530) This includes: acceptance and confirmation, counseling, friendship, and role modeling (Kram, 1985).

Work-Family Conflict: "A form of interrole conflict in which the demands of work and family roles are incompatible in some respect so that participation in either the work or family role is more difficult because of participation in the other role" (Voydanoff, 1988, p. 749).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

A consistent lack of female representation in leadership positions in intercollegiate athletics has existed over the last three decades. Athletic departments, and intercollegiate athletics as a whole, are predominantly male-dominated. In fact, 11.3% of all athletic departments have zero females on their administrative staff, with an average of 1.51 female athletics administrators per campus (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014). This literature review will cover three main theories pertaining to potential reasons for why the representation of females remains so small in intercollegiate athletics and why the obstacles women face remain in this industry segment. The first theory, work-family conflict, explains the differences in roles women struggle with in comparison to men. The second theory discusses the concept of a "good old boy's network" that creates a cycle of likeminded men who control the industry, making it more difficult for women to enter the field. Finally, is a discussion of gender ideologies, gender role theory, and role congruity theory. Together, these schools of thought address the phenomenon of gender expectations with a focus on the big picture, and suggest intercollegiate athletics simply reflects the prevailing gender expectations in society. After reviewing these three theories, this literature review then shifts to explain possible ways the presence of a mentor can help females overcome these obstacles. Mentoring serves as a tool females

may utilize as they begin their careers. Utilizing mentorship is a potential way for women to succeed despite the obstacles they face entering a male dominated field.

Females entering a predominantly male industry can alter the previous traditions and cycles for future generations. The purpose of this study is to investigate the barriers women face as they enter the workplace in intercollegiate athletics, and also explore the role of mentors in their success. The following questions will be used to guide this research:

1. What types of obstacles do women face today in the male dominated industry of intercollegiate athletic administration?

2. What career plans do women have in regard to advancing into higher positions in intercollegiate athletic administration?

3. What types of qualities do mentors have that are helpful for women entering intercollegiate athletic administration?

This research will analyze each of the following obstacles and roles of mentorship through a theoretical lens. Each of the following will be broken into further examination and review the current literature on each of the following subjects.

Barriers to Entry: Theoretical Framework

Work-Family Conflict

Looking back in history, fewer women have worked in intercollegiate athletics in comparison to men. The number of females working in college athletic departments is increasing; however, the disparity remains evident. Women are still underrepresented, an issue researched by scholars over the last 25 years (Boles, Howard, & Donofrio, 2001; Burton, 2015; Diacin & Lim, 2012; Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Greenhaus & Beuetell 1985; Lovett & Lowry, 1994). The male-dominated nature of the industry prompts

several theories to explain this phenomenon. Several theory-based explanations attempt to answer the "why" when it comes to understanding the behavior reflected in industries such as sport. These theories include work-family conflict theory, gender role theory, and role congruity theory.

Of these theories, the work-family conflict theory is one of the most researched (Diacin & Lim, 2012; Dixon & Bruening, 2005). Work-family conflict is a framework shaped by the larger theories of social role and role congruity theories (Diacin & Lim, 2012). Work-family conflict is defined 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" (Boles, Howard, & Donofrio, 2001, p. 377). This definition supports the findings of Greenhaus and Beuetell (1985), the founding scholars of the work-family conflict theory. The basis and foundation for this theory state interactions and day-to-day functions between work and family affect each other in a bi-directional fashion (Boles et al, 2001; Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus, Collins, Singh, & Parasuraman, 1997). Consequently, while positive outcomes may exist related to work and family functions, there are even more possibilities for negative outcomes. These negative effects can potentially lead to "lack of advancement, job turnover, and change occupation" (Bruening & Dixon, 2005, p. 228).

Work-family conflict at the most basic level disadvantages women entering predominately male industries. Females hold only 36% of the administrative positions within intercollegiate athletics departments in the United States (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014). Among these positions, women fill approximately 11% of athletic directors at the Division I level institutions (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014). In fact, in 2014 11.3% of universities did not have any female administrators (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014). Major

factor in work-family conflict for people working in athletic administrators in intercollegiate athletics are the irregular schedule, including long and often unpredictable hours, time demands, and extensive travel. These factors make the nature of the job less than ideal for those with families, especially families with children living at home. Individuals in these positions have to juggle the demands of the workplace, while attempting to have a healthy and satisfying family life. Research has found women are more likely than men to struggle with these conflicts, and "find it difficult to continue moving up the ranks in the industry because they cannot meet the time and availability demands constantly placed on them" (Dixon & Breuning, 2005, p. 3231). These demands create situations where workers need to choose between work and family time – it seems to be a zero-sum choice. In order to understand this ground level outcome of work-conflict theory, it is crucial to understand the basics of the scarcity theory.

Scarcity Theory. According to Greenhaus and Powell (2003), getting benefits from one part of life usually happens at the expense of other parts. Scarcity theory suggests both work and home have the capacity to give satisfaction to the individual. The most important resource – time – is becoming increasingly scarce. As a result, any time a person makes a decision to elevate success in one sphere, s/he often gives up a share in another sphere. This creates the visual of a seesaw; whenever one side goes up (time spent at work), the other side goes does (time spent at home).

In the sport industry context, administrators desire to achieve fulfillment from all aspects of their life. Oftentimes, however, a decision that would increase satisfaction at work almost always hurts satisfaction on the family side. This tension between priorities causes a great deal of stress on the individuals in these situations. Coaches or administrators may need to spend more time working or traveling due to their career,

meaning extra time away from family. Works by both Carlson and Perrewe (1999) and Parasuraman and Simmers (2001) indicate a positive correlation between increased work hours and increased work-to-family conflict. Maximizing success at work cannot be achieved without an increased level of dissatisfaction at home. As previously stated, women have a harder time with this type of situation and often decide not to go into careers that would put them in these uncomfortable situations (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001). This response serves as a possible explanation as to why fewer females hold administrative positions, especially as head coaches and senior level administrators.

Family Structure. As part of this discussion, it is important to note how the distinction between family structures affects family-work conflict. The presence of a young child (pre-school or elementary school) at home increases the likelihood of family-to-work conflict (Carlson 1999, Dixon & Bruening, 2005; 2007; Dixon et al., 2008). This corresponds with the findings of Kirchmeyer (1998), which indicated women with children did not advance into the managerial positions, while men in the same positions did (Dixon et al., 2008). This finding suggests women who want to advance their professional careers are often restricted when it comes to having a family in ways men are not. Consequently, these findings allude to females delaying child bearing or choosing to leave the profession completely (Dixon et al., 2008). Many females who choose to maximize their satisfaction at home may select a different career path with a more flexible and less demanding and straining schedule to reduce the work-family conflict (Staines & Pleck, 1984).

Research shows females are more likely than males to feel the pressures of work-family conflict because of the perceptions of female roles in the families. Studies have

revealed women handle more family responsibilities, especially when it comes to childcare (and also elder care) (Dixon et al., 2008; Kossek, Colquitt, & Noe, 2001). Bruening and Dixon (2007) found NCAA Division I female coaches oftentimes believed a trend occurred where females verbally prioritized family over work. The study found "work tended to interfere more with family than family with work, especially for those who had difficulty compartmentalizing" (p. 390). This often led to female coaches experiencing guilt whenever they spent a lot of time at work and away from their children, a challenge many believed was not a problem men faced in the same profession (Dixon & Bruening, 2007). Because of these barriers, fewer females are in administrative positions in the industries where the work demands require significant time away from family.

Organizational Structure and Work Environment

The work environment and characteristics of the workplace are major considerations when evaluating and analyzing the underrepresentation of females in leadership positions in an organization. Researchers have questioned why this phenomenon occurs and asserted certain workplace characteristics for sporting contexts make them unwelcoming and unsatisfying for women to enter and stay (Clark, 2001; Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Staines & Pleck, 1984). The findings indicate lower organizational support, mixed with a non-family friendly culture, were major contributors to females either choosing not to enter a career in sport, or leaving the careers in which they currently worked (Dixon & Bruening, 2005). Because of the heavy overlap with the level of workplace family friendliness, or lack thereof, a strong connection exists between the work environment and work-family conflict as discussed previously. Those issues, combined with the unique demands of working in the sport industry, make a career in

athletic administration an arduous, and many times less desirable, one for females.

Supportive Organizational Policies

Researchers have examined "family-friendly" organizations that seem to offer desirable work-life support (Dixon et. al, 2008; Ferber & O'Farrell, 1991). Policies such as health care and flexible hours are desirable for all people, and pertain to both men and women of all ages in the workforce (Burton, 2015; Dixon et. al, 2008). Policies supporting gender equity were found to be more favorable not only to women, but also had a similarly favorable impact on men's organizational commitment, suggesting support for women can positively impact the entire organization (Burton, 2015). However, Burton (2015) noted many organizations create these policies for the wrong reasons:

The culture of organizations adopting such policies may be far from embracing values and norms of gender equity and may see the adoption of gender equity policies as a chore to implement, a funding hoop, a constantly changing imposition from a funding body, or a politically correct way to create positive public relation (p. 159).

Many studies on organizational culture focused on corporate America, and scholars for a long time ignored industries such as intercollegiate athletics and higher education (Dixon et al., 2008). Intercollegiate athletics offer a unique industry to research since it requires nontraditional demands and many extensive and unplanned hours. Dixon et al. (2008) suggest women may be underrepresented because supportive work-life policies are absent from intercollegiate athletics departments.

An important note which speaks to the culture of the organization is not just if the policies exist in the organization, but also more importantly if the policies are utilized.

21

Negative attitudes toward actually using policies of this nature can hinder their purpose, especially in male dominated industries. The perception is using any of these work-lie related policies will hinder the individual's career advancement (Dixon et al., 2008). In other words, if these policies are viewed negatively in the culture of the organization, a person who decides to actively use these policies may be looked down upon. A study by Galinsky, Bond, and Friedman (1996) found less than 2% of employees took advantage of family-supportive policies. For example, studies indicate females believed taking maternity leave would hurt their careers, with deciding to not take the full allotted time off allowed by university policies (Galinsky, Bond and Friedman, 1996). Supportive supervisors and family-friendly environments are two of the most important factors in reducing turnover among Division-I coaching mothers (Dixon & Bruening, 2007). Dixon et al. (2008) stated, "organizational culture, particularly that espoused by the front line supervisors, plays a large role in determining policy success" (p. 143).

The study by Dixon et al. (2008) examined the "availability, usage, and impact of work-life benefits and supportive climates in intercollegiate athletic departments" (p. 152). The study found interesting results. Every benefit was offered in at least 96% of institutions, but the usage did not mirror this percentage. This suggests the culture did not encourage the use of these supports. The researchers concluded that although the benefits existed, they did not help achieve balance in work-family conflict. Also, the results suggest employees must be encouraged and supported when using benefits, not just be provided them (Dixon et al., 2008). These conclusions ultimately may help explain why women are more likely than men to leave the profession. They also indicate a close relationship between organizational structure and work-family conflict and why balancing these becomes a major factor in why women do not enter this industry (Burton,

2015; Dixon & Bruening, 2005; 2007; Dixon et al., 2008). The constraints speak to the needed emphasis on support for female employees' needs and greater use of available benefits for both men and women.

Lack of Network for Females in Athletic Administration

"Good Old Boys" Network

The lack of females in collegiate athletics can be analyzed through multiple lenses. The dominance of men in the sport industry and its effect on females is an important one to consider, and this aspect has been researched heavily (Lovett & Lowry, 1994). The dominance of males inevitably creates the concept of a "good old boys" network, which makes it difficult for females to enter the industry (Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Knoppers, 1989; Lovett & Lowry, 1994). Not only is an effective "good old boys" network present, but as a result no effective "good old girls" network exists in male dominated industries, sport being no exception (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014; Lovett & Lowry, 1994). Researchers studied this phenomenon and found the "success of the 'good old boys' club and the failure of the 'good old girls' club were ranked among the top five causes" for women leaving the profession of collegiate coaching (Lovett & Lowry, 1994, p. 27) This is consistent with findings of Walker and Bopp (2011) in their study of female coaches. Their study found results stating, "despite confidence in their [women] competency and knowledge of the game, the participants complained that women are not mentored and given the same opportunity as men to coach men's basketball, that they are not given a fair chance" (p. 57). This was in response to a participant revealing the situation may be two-sided—stating that women may not even apply because they do not think they are going to get the job, or the fact they are not available because men make women feel that they do not have the proper experience (Walker and Bopp, 2011).

The concept of the "good old boys" network affects women directly when it comes to decisions regarding employment opportunities for females. As previously stated, males tend to be athletic directors overwhelmingly more than females. The "good old boys" club network suggests males can utilize their network of other men in the industry, which gives them a network of colleagues unavailable to females. This serves as "a structural deterrent that prevents women from entering" (Lovett & Lowry, 1994, p. 28). This is consistent with other scholars' findings suggesting this network of men gives men an open door to keep moving up in an organization and gives males step ahead over females (Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Knoppers, 1989).

Research shows that managerial positions are usually held by men because of the greater societal view of men as leaders who have the ability to "see the overall vision of the organization" (Diacin & Lim, 2012, para 2). Eagly and Karau (2002) noted different characteristics associated with masculinity and femininity and found the correlation between masculinity and characteristics of leadership positions. Masculinity is associated with aggressive, ambitious, dominant, forceful, independent, and self-confident traits, while femininity is associated with caring, kind, and sympathetic characteristics (Diacin & Lim, 2012; Eagly & Karau, 2002). These characteristics can help determine appropriate positions for those leadership qualities. Individuals who are at the top of organizations typically are those who hold the power to make major decisions for the entire organization. In the intercollegiate athletics context, this position is the athletic director, which historically has been overwhelmingly dominated by males. Only 10.6% of Division-I universities had a female athletic director, and of FBS (Football Bowl Sub-division) Division-I schools the number was only 6.3% (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014).

Conversely, within athletic departments, academic services, compliance, and student success/life skills have the highest representation of females, at 62%, 54%, and 72%, respectively (Burton & Hagan, 2009; Diacin & Lim, 2011; Grappendorf, Pent, Burton & Henderson, 2008; Henderson, Grappendorf, & Burton, 2011). This is consistent with the types of qualities consistently needed for these positions.

Homologous Reproduction

A theoretical basis for the "good old boys" club noted by Kanter (1977) states, "the dominant group systematically reproduces itself in its own image" (Lovett & Lowry, 1994). This phenomenon is defined as homologous reproduction. From the sport administration lens, the more males occupying the head position of athletic director, the more likely men will be hired in other positions of the athletic department, whether in administration or coaching. According to Diacin and Lim (2012), "most managerial positions have been occupied by a Caucasian, Protestant, able-bodied, heterosexual male" (para 1). Especially in coaching, females have higher levels of representation when the athletic director is also a female (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014; Dixon & Bruening, 2007; Lovett & Lowry, 2012). Conversely, a smaller percentage of female coaches work in programs with a male athletic director (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014).

The homologous reproduction theory incorporates two assumptions in this context. The first is those who fall inside the homologous group are at an advantage because of their inherent trait (e.g., gender) allowing them to be a part of the in-group. In other words, males are "reproduced" in athletic departments through the hiring practices of other males in powerful leadership positions. The fact that someone is male opens the door to a large network of other men who dominate the industry, giving them a systematic advantage. The second assumption is the wider and stronger a person's

network, the greater the likelihood for career success. Without these assumptions, the "old boys club" would have little significance when it comes to the professional lives of individuals affected by the consequences of its presence in the sport industry.

Stangl and Kane (1991) looked at the application of homologous reproduction within athletic departments. The dominant group is defined by the sex of administrators, and reproduction is defined as the number of female and male head coaches. The researchers found when a female was a part of any of the administrative models, there was a greater number of female coaches present, consistent with the findings of Acosta and Carpenter (2014). In addition to "good old boys" networks, Lovett and Lowrey (1994) suggested the effectiveness of a "good old girls club." They verified this phenomenon through the presence of a female athletic director who had a very strong impact on the application of the homologous reproduction theory. There were significantly more women working in both administration and in coaching roles when a female Athletic Director was present. This study suggested "dominant" defines the individual with the power to make the decisions, not necessarily the overall dominant group within the bigger organization, an important distinction. The reality, however, is when more men hold these positions than women, the cycle of homologous reproduction is challenging to break.

The implementation and consequences of the effective "good old boys" network and absence of a "good old girls" network seems to represent a true barrier for females attempting to enter the industry. Consistent with findings by Fink, Pastore, and Reimer (2001), intercollegiate athletic departments operate using "value similarity, supporting the norms, values, and beliefs of white, Christian, able body, heterosexual men" (Burton, 2015, p. 159). Fink et al. (2001) suggested this means women are considered as "other"

26

within the athletic departments. Qualified women cannot compare with qualified men simply because of the types of alliances men can create, reinforcing male dominance in the industry. This is problematic and creates an uneven playing field, further contributing to the low number of females seen throughout athletic departments.

Gender Ideologies

Scholars particularly are interested in analyzing the underrepresentation of females in intercollegiate athletics by looking at this phenomenon from a widened lens perspective (Henderson et al., 2011). Thinking about how larger society can be not only a reflection of, but also a catalyst for, perpetuating the norms and beliefs into the sports world is a heavily studied by many sports researchers (Claringbould & Knoppers, 2007). A larger theoretical framework focused on gender provides an explanation for the underrepresentation of females in intercollegiate athletics. Gender expectations exist in all facets of life, and sport is just an illustration of this larger societal issue (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Hums & MacLean, 2013). Gender role theory served as the foundation for what has now evolved into the role congruity theory. Gender role theory is the structure that has allowed for specific theoretical explanations such as gender expectations and stereotyping to be formed in society and applied in contexts such as intercollegiate athletics (Claringbould & Knoppers, 2007; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Henderson et al., 2011).

Gender Role Theory

Gender role theory (or sometimes referred to as social role theory) refers to the idea that there are societal expectations for individuals based upon their gender (Burton, 2015; Burton & Hagan, 2008; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Diacin & Lim, 2012; Burton, Barr, Fink, & Bruening, 2009; Grappendorf, Pent, Burton, & Henderson, 2008; Henderson et

al., 2011; Welty Peachey & Burton, 2010). Research consistently shows certain attributes are associated with men and women's behaviors, especially in a professional setting (Burton, 2015; Burton & Hagan, 2008; Burton et al., 2009). For example, males are often considered strong leaders. Masculine characteristics such as aggression, ambition, domination, force, independence, self-sufficiency, and self-confidence are therefore considered appropriate for men (Diacin & Lim, 2012). Likewise, certain characteristics are considered more appropriate for women such as nurturing, life skills, and guidance (Burton, 2015; Burton & Hagan, 2008, Diacin & Lim, 2012; Grappendorf et al., 2008). Women in society are often expected to exhibit kindness and sensitivity, so it is not surprising feminine characteristics also suggest these mirroring roles. Scholars report a correlation between the inner disposition of a person and his/her actions (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

Sport organizations often reflect these societal beliefs and attitudes. Researchers have used gender role theory as a framework to better understand why fewer women are represented at certain high-level management positions in comparison to their male counterparts (Burton et al., 2009). The division of male and female characteristics creates a divide between what is viewed as more appropriate for men or women. This divide can encourage certain aspirations for women while discouraging others, and likewise for men with their respective perceptions. For example, men may be drawn to more masculine positions, such as finance, sales, and high-power positions, while females may be drawn to more feminine positions with more nurturance such as administrative assistants, academic advising and life skills. Social role theory outlines this phenomenon, noting there are not only expectations regarding the specific roles men and women should occupy, but also desirable characteristics for each gender (Burton et al., 2009).

As stated above, communal attributes such as affection, helpful, kindness, sympathy, nurturance, and sensitivity are traits women are expected to possess and should demonstrate in society (Burton, 2015; Burton et al., 2009; Eagly & Karau, 2002). Consequently, in intercollegiate athletics, women are seen in areas where there is a stronger presence of these characteristics. These areas include life skills, academic services, and human resources. This gender typing can be an additional barrier for advancement to senior level positions for females in their athletic departments (Burton & Hagan, 2009). There is a continued perception that women do not have the characteristics needed to be an effective leader. Burton and Hagan (2009) reported a majority of women working within intercollegiate athletics feel gender bias, and discrimination factors into their inability to progress into higher level management positions.

Conversely, agentic qualities such as assertiveness, control, confidence, self-sufficiency, and natural ability to lead are characteristics associated with males' innate abilities. These qualities are what is "apparently required to undertake these activities" (Eagly & Karau, 2002, p. 574). These characteristics are important to managers. As a result, females struggle to obtain these high-level management positions because hiring managers do not perceive women as having the traits perceived as appropriate for individuals in the powerful leadership positions, such as an athletic director (Burton et al., 2009).

Role Congruity Theory

Grounded in social role theory, role congruity theory expands the notion that certain characteristics, traits, or behaviors are perceived as more appropriate for males versus females. The theory considers the congruity roles and their application especially in leadership positions (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Scholars suggest women potentially face

discrimination in leadership positions (Burton et al., 2009; Burton, 2011; Burton, 2015; Claringbould & Knoppers; 2007; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Grappendorf, Pent, Burton & Henderson, 2008). This outcome results from an inconsistency between the characteristics associated with a successful leader and characteristics expected of females (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Women who are effective leaders violate the standards of what is appropriate for females. As a result, not only are they viewed less favorably among other females who illustrate more "feminine roles," they are also viewed less favorably than men (Burton et al., 2009; Eagly & Karau, 2002).

As a result, female leaders face two distinctive forms of prejudice when they violate the norms of society and attain leadership roles despite the set gender expectations. First, they are initially evaluated less favorably because of the natural expectation that they do not possess the abilities to perform the duties of a leader (Eagly & Karau, 2002). The second is they may receive a less favorable evaluation in these leadership roles because of the incongruity between their actions and their gendered expectations. There are threats in two directions: conforming to their own gender, limiting their ability to meet requirements for a leadership position, and conforming to the leadership role and violating gender role expectations (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

Overcoming Obstacles: Impact of a Mentorship

Different studies suggest several theory based explanations of the challenges women face with careers in intercollegiate athletic administration (Burton et al., 2009; Claringbould & Knoppers, 2007; Dixon & Bruening, 2005) .Whether a struggle results from a work-family balance conflict, gender ideologies, or lack of network, there is a need for an avenue for women to break through the barriers, jump over these hurdles, and not be held back from pursuing careers in this industry (Burton et al., 2009; Claringbould

& Knoppers, 2007; Dixon & Bruening, 2005). Mentorship is one way to achieve this. The mentor/ protégé relationship allows a protégé to learn from his or her mentor in their own individual way (Ghosh & Reio, 2013; Kram, 1983; Lankau & Scandura, 2002). This may be through career oriented tasks, learning behavior to success, or being a supportive encourager (Ghosh & Reio Jr., 2013; Kram, 1983; Lankau & Scandura, 2002).

The dyadic relationship between a mentor and his or her protégé has been studied over the last 25 years (Kram, 1983). Scholars agree that the mentorship relationship certainly affects both parties and enables growth and development for the protégé and the mentor. Mentoring is considered a career development tool and a management tool in many organizations (Ghosh & Reio, 2013). It is a dynamic, systematic relationship that moves bilaterally. Early research focused heavily on the impact of a single mentor through the lens of the protégé (Ghosh & Reio, 2013; Higgins & Kram, 2001; Kram, 1983; 1985; Lankau & Scandura, 2002). The multi-dimensional aspect of this relationship reveals the different types of mentoring functions. These functions serve different parts of the development of those in the relationship. Several researchers have studied two distinct functions (Bower & Hums, 2014; Kram, 1983;1985, Higgins & Kram, 2001; Scandura & Pelligrini, 2007). One aspect is the career support (development function), while the other is the psychosocial (personal) development of the protégé. More research has examined the effects of mentoring on the protégé, and these early studies suggested mentoring represents a critical component to career development (Kram, 1985; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2007).

Traditional Mentoring Theory

The early research of Kram (1983; 1985) and Levinson et al. (1978) looked at the relationship between a mentor and his or her protégé. These early studies conceptualized

the "single or primary mentoring relationship" (Higging & Kram, 2001, p. 265). In these

initial models of mentorship, the role of a mentor implied the mentor was an individual

with advanced knowledge and expertise, with a commitment to fostering the development

of a younger individual's career (Higgins & Kram, 2001; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2007).

The dynamic of the mentoring relationship is traditionally seen as one of a senior person

working with the less experienced protégé and assisting him or her professionally and

psychosocially. Studies have espoused that this relationship is beneficial in each

respective function – development and psychosocial (Ghosh & Reio, 2013; Higgins &

Kram, 2001; Kram, 1983; 1985). A mentor in the professional world can further advance

younger generations by fostering a relationship, providing teaching strategies, building

trust, and educating protégés. Furthermore, it may be a strategy those entering their

desired industry utilize to become successful.

Mentoring Functions

Development Functions. Mentorship between a protégé and a mentor who takes

"an active interest in and action to advance the protégé's career by providing assistance"

(Higgins & Kram, 2001, p. 268) helps advance individual development. The mentor can

assist in the two main functions of career support and psychosocial support (Ghost &

Reio, 2013; Higgins & Kram, 2001; Kram, 1985; Kram & Isabella, 1985). Career

development specifically suggests the mentor aids in career advancement by sponsoring

the protégé, and then offering coaching, exposure and visibility, protection, and

challenging assignments (Ghosh & Reio, 2013; Kram, 1985; Kram & Isabella, 1985;

Scandura & Pellegrini, 2007). These functions are distinguished because of their focus on

the external tasks of the job rather than the personal emotional and internal development

aspect.

Ghosh and Reio (2013) break down each part of this definition to conceptualize each distinct part (e.g., sponsoring, giving information), and the scholars echo the early findings of Kram (1983). Sponsoring in this context refers to the mentor promoting the protégé, publically advocating on behalf of the protégé regarding his or her abilities, and nominating him or her for projects and promotions (Ghosh & Reio, 2013). Simply put, the mentor uses the depth of his or her voice to be the spokesperson to others who value the mentor's word. He or she is the credible source who speaks on behalf of the protégé's valuable talents.

As coaches, mentors give their protégés information not accessible to people who are not members of the organization or industry (Ghosh & Reio, 2013; Kram, 1983). This includes career histories and specific strategies for success for long-term career goals, but also assistance with job-related duties and skills needed to be successful in the protégé's current position (Ghosh & Reio, 2013; Kram, 1983).

Exposure and visibility are also essential to further networking for professionals in any industry. A mentor can give his or her protégé exposure to important people, which can further advance the protégé's professional career, creating opportunities to impress these individuals and introduce them to more people to enhance their professional network. This is an invaluable gift from a mentor to his or her protégé (Ghosh & Reio, 2013; Kram, 1983). A selfless act allows protégés to grow, make contacts, and take their future into their own hands with the opportunity to meet people who can help them advance their careers and become the professionals they want to become.

Similar to giving a protégé exposure and visibility, mentors also protect their protégés, reduce any sort of risk that might threaten their reputation, keep them shielded

from issues in their given industry, and look out for them (Ghosh & Reio, 2013; Kram 1983). In a way, coaching and protection go hand in hand. Both of these functions involve teaching strategies for success. At some times, learning what not to do is equally important as learning what to do. Some people do not know how much they are capable of until they are pushed further than they thought they could go. A mentor can help his or her protégé achieve more, develop new skills, and dream bigger to become more successful (Ghosh & Reio, 2013; Kram, 1983).

Psychosocial Functions. Rather than a focusing on the protégé's career or external development, mentors can concentrate on personal development. Personal development may help protégés feel competent, which may elevate their performance and lead to long term advancements in their own careers. Psychosocial support is characterized by "enhancing sense of competence, clarity of identity, and effectiveness in the job through modeling, counseling and friendship" (Scandura & Pellegrini, 2007, p. 2). There is a focus on building a personal connection, which some individuals need to capitalize on to improve their own skillset. Ghosh and Reio (2013) later added acceptance and confirmation as major factors in the psychosocial functions, among others.

Acceptance and confirmation may be achieved by conveying unconditional positive regard and respect to help protégés feel more competent in their roles (Ghosh & Reio, 2013; Kram 1985). Even in times of failure, if the mentor conveys this level of respect in the relationship, the protégé experiences more room for growth and learning and fewer internal competency struggles.

A mentor serving as a counselor can be pivotal in establishing the bond needed to get through the ups and downs of any sort of relationship. Showing empathy, encouraging an open communication system, and always having an open ear can help

foster a safe space and serve as a great foundation for a relationship (Ghosh & Reio, 2013, Kram 1985). This type of relationship provides comfort to protégés and helps them feel truly cared for.

Ghosh and Reio (2013) describe the friendship function of mentoring as important in contributing to the effectiveness of a protégé in a professional role. They report that interacting socially, allowing their protégé to confide in them, and spending leisure time discussing non-work interests can help this relationship immensely.

Finally, what may be considered the most practical function for a mentor is the natural formation as role model. Ghosh and Reio (2013) state "As role models, mentors represent someone who the protégé might want to emulate, display appropriate attitudes, values, skills, and behaviors, and demonstrate ethical integrity as strong professionals" (p. 107). Less experienced protégés may see how their mentor performs duties, handles problems, and interacts with others. Through these observations, protégés can learn valuable lessons for success.

Mentoring in Modern Career Context

Although the findings of Kram (1983; 1985) stand as the foundations for many studies on research in mentorships, another finding has emerged in more recent studies. Scandura and Pellegrini (2007) highlighted that individuals can develop more than one mentoring relationship over their careers. Baugh and Scandura (1999) also supported this in their earlier studies. They suggested multiple relationships may enhance mentoring outcomes through greater organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and career expectations; increased perceptions of alternative employment; and lower ambiguity about one's own work (Baugh & Scandura, 1999; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2007).

Theories and conceptualizations of mentorship have evolved over the last 25 years and continue to evolve; however, scholars have not completely agreed upon the definition of a mentor. While the functions of a mentor might vary, the value of a mentorship is consistent. A mentor can be a major influence in advancing less-experienced, younger individuals pursuing their career aspirations and managing career barriers. In the context of women in intercollegiate athletics administration, some of the barriers include work family conflict, gender ideologies and role congruencies, and lack of networks, called the "good old boys" club, as discussed throughout this literature review. The presence of a mentor in the lives of these women may offer a potential way to manage these barriers, triumph, and become successful.

Bower and Hums (2014) identify different mentor characteristics and career and psychosocial benefits of having a mentor in intercollegiate athletics. Information from their study could be useful in practice to understand what characteristics to look for in a good mentor and how a protégé may benefit from having a mentor, specifically in intercollegiate athletics. Bower and Hums (2014) found the top characteristics of their mentors were (a) being supportive, (b) hardworking, and (c) knowledgeable. The most important career functions found were (a) exposure and visibility and (b) coaching (Bower & Hums, 2014). Exposure and visibility provided opportunities for the protégé to network and assist in making relationships, while coaching meant the mentor transmits knowledge, provides strategies needed to succeed, offers feedback, and provides relevant information (Kram, 1985). This is consistent with the findings of Bower and Hums. Finally, the psychosocial functions found important to the success of female intercollegiate athletic administrators were (a) counseling, (b) role modeling, and (c)

acceptance/confirmation. Findings of this study are consistent with the benefits of mentorship found by other scholars (Ghosh & Reio, 2013; Higgins & Kram, 2001).

The research documenting the career and psychosocial benefits along with successes of mentorships for protégés' futures may serve as a way for women battling adversity to overcome these hurdles. The combination of the struggles women have in intercollegiate athletics with the heavily supported theories of mentorship make the two a very interesting match to study further.

Summary

The experience of women working in intercollegiate athletics has sparked the interest of sport management scholars. Researchers identified one of the biggest barriers for women in the industry to be the work-family conflict. The work-family conflict is problematic for women because the demands of working in intercollegiate athletics partnered with the expected responsibilities to care for her family often is too much, causing women more than men to have to choose one or the other (Dixon & Bruening, 2005).

The scarcity theory is a theoretical explanation that explains the challenges women face in the work family conflict. Greenhaus and Powell (2003) state that both work and family life have the capacity to give satisfaction. However, these two seem to be mutually exclusive to a degree. The more satisfaction or time spent with one comes at the expense of the other (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001). This tension causes many women to either leave the industry, or choose not to pursue a career in the industry in the first place.

Organizational structure and work environment have a great impact on the severity of the work-family conflict for women. If the organizational structure or work

environment is supportive it can relieve some of the tension for women, accommodating their needs and giving women more flexibility creates a very positive culture that can mitigate the struggles that women often times face (Staines & Pleck, 1984).

Part of the organizational structure and work environment for women in intercollegiate athletics is having supportive organizational policies. Policies can give women the needed security that they do not have to fear that certain family responsibilities will take away from career advancement or hinder their job in any way (Dixon et. al, 2008). However, it is very important that organizations do not have these policies for public image purposes. Supportive organizational policies are only beneficial if the culture around utilizing them is also positive (Burton, 2015).

Another very notable barrier women have to overcome is the "good old boys" network. This phenomenon suggests that the college sport system is sex discriminatory, and is an industry "where men protect the interests of each other, serve as gate keepers by hiring men who reflect their style, image, and values; and create insular decision-making processes that elevate men who epitomize the systems ideals while restricting women in terms of numbers and roles" (Staurowsky & Smith, 2016). The "good old boys" network provides men an exclusive network that is to their advantage in gaining opportunities and advancement in an organization.

Homologous reproduction is the result of the "good old boys" network at work. Men are likely to look to their network of other men similar in looks, values, and beliefs when looking to fill new positions (Kanter, 1977). Women continue to be left out of these opportunities because the small network is typically only other men.

Another major obstacle women have to face while working in intercollegiate athletics is the socialized gender ideologies. Gender ideologies suggest that there are

expectations for men and women to behave, look, and act a certain way (Burton, 2015; Burton & Hagan, 2008; Eagly & Karau, 2002). Society constructs different masculine characteristics appropriate for men, and feminine characteristics appropriate for women.

The role congruity theory builds on the gender ideologies and takes them one step further. Women working in intercollegiate athletics, especially in leadership or decision-making positions often times contradict what is considered appropriate for women. Women who challenge the status quo and the script society handed them must overcome those who oppose them and criticize them for it (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Grappendorf, Pent, Burton & Henderson, 2008).

While there are many documented barriers for women in intercollegiate athletics, Kram (1983) offers a way to combat them through effective and meaningful mentorships. Other scholars applied these mentoring functions to the sporting industry (Ghosh & Reio Jr., 2013; Higgins & Kram, 2001; Lankau & Scandura, 2002; Scandura & Pelligrini, 2007). The mentoring functions are divided into two functions: developmental function, and psychosocial function (Kram, 1983).

Developmental functions for mentorship are defined by assisting a protégé through career advancements. Kram characterizes development functions as: sponsorship, coaching, exposure and visibility, protection, and challenging assignments. These tasks are focused more specifically at career development to help the protégé learn how to be successful in their given job, and help them advance in their careers.

On the other hand, psychosocial mentoring functions are directed towards the personal development of an individual, and centered around the supportive relationship to enhance an individual's skillset. These functions include: role modeling, counseling, friendship, and acceptance and confirmation (Kram, 1983).

Scholars studied the significance of mentorships in senior-level or executive level sport administrators (Bower & Hums, 2014). The functions of Kram (1983) were the guides into finding what functions were most important for women in these positions. These findings showed that the most important developmental functions were (a) exposure and visibility and (b) coaching. The most important psychosocial functions were (a) counseling, (b) role models, and (c) acceptance and confirmation (Bower & Hums, 2014). Understanding the types of functions most beneficial to the success of senior level women in sport administration can help future generations understand the types of relationships to form with mentors to overcome the inevitable barriers they will face in the industry.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Previous research has examined senior level female intercollegiate athletic administrators and the many obstacles they face in the workplace (Burton, 2015; Burton & Hagan, 2009; Diacin & Lim, 2012; Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Dixon, Tiell, Lough, Sweeney, Osborne & Bruening, 2008; Henderson et al., 2011; Diacin & Lim, 2012). There is a general acceptance that females are certainly underrepresented in the male dominated industry of intercollegiate athletics. Researchers to date developed several theories explaining the difficulties women face accessing high level administrative positions. However, few studies look at the entry-level positions women hold in athletic departments.

Women at the beginning and middle stages of their careers hold a unique place and perspective to researchers, simply because they can provide new perspectives on trends in the industry. Women in these positions have obtained secure administrative positions and may be the future senior level administrators of the next generation (Burton, 2011). Understanding their experiences may provide insight into whether the industry is changing to be more inclusive so women can become more successful. Exploring the role of a mentor in the lives of these individuals provides an avenue for women who aspire to become senior level administrators in the industry. The purpose of this study is to explore the barriers for women in intercollegiate athletics today and identify the impact of a mentor in their career development.

Because so little research has focused on females in entry level positions in intercollegiate athletics, this study will focus on this specific population. For the purpose of this study, entry-level positions are defined as a female with the keywords "manager," "coordinator," or "director" in their job title. Females with an "Assistant Athletic Director" or "Associate Athletic Director" as part of their title were not considered for this study.

A central question guided this study: What role does a mentor play in the lives of female intercollegiate athletic administrators in entry-level positions in overcoming career barriers? Further research addressed in this study are:

1. What obstacles do women face in the male dominated industry of intercollegiate athletic administration?

2. What career plans do women have in regard to advancing into higher positions in intercollegiate athletic administration?

3. What types qualities do mentors have that are helpful for women entering intercollegiate athletic administration?

This chapter explains the methodology for this research study particularly in the defined areas of: (a) research design type, description, and reasoning; (b) definitions of the particular sample studied; (c) approach/method of data collection; (d) data analysis, (e) strategies for validating findings (trustworthiness); and (f) anticipated ethical issues

Study Design

This study used a qualitative design approach to answer the stated research questions. A qualitative study was the best fit for this study based on the nature of qualitative research. Qualitative research by design is based on "assumptions, a world view, the possible use of a theoretical lens, and the study of research problems inquiring

into the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem" (Creswell, 2007, p. 38).

Qualitative studies enable researchers to hear the voices of participants in the study in a way that statistical analysis in quantitative methods overlooks. Each individual's uniqueness is expressed, which allows researchers to understand "what" and "how" participants have experienced each outcome they share (Creswell, 2007). Participants are empowered to share their individual stories. Qualitative research takes into account the interactions and lived experiences both difficult to capture and sensitive to individual differences among participants (gender, economic, race) (Creswell, 2007). There is a consensus within the literature that qualitative research is a naturalistic approach to understand phenomenon in particular contexts (Eisner, 1991; Hoepfl, 1997; Patton, 1990). This study looked at particular women's experiences working in a male dominated industry and prompted questions about the presence of a mentor in their lives. Real life perspectives from participants is most effectively illustrated through qualitative research.

Qualitative research also was appropriate for this study because qualitative studies allow for a more in-depth understanding of context. As researchers, we need a detailed and very compound understanding of the issue. Qualitative research allows researchers to dig deeper into the participants to explore the theory or issue being studied (Patton, 2002). Studying the theories describing different barriers for women, and also the mentoring theories in literature, it is important to go beyond the surface when obtaining data from participants. This is consistent with earlier definitions of qualitative research by Strauss and Corbin (1990), who stated qualitative research should be conducted when looking to gain new perspectives or gain more in-depth information that is challenging to

quantify. Women's career experiences and relationships is very difficult to quantify, but qualitative research allows for open ended questions to discover new information (Hoepfl, 1997).

Qualitative Research Strategy

Creswell (2007) lists five strategies for qualitative research: narrative research, grounded theory, ethnography, case study, and phenomenology. This particular study utilized the phenomenological research approach. Phenomenological studies describe the "meaning for several individuals of their shared lived experiences of a concept of phenomenon" (Creswell, 2007, p. 57). Participants in this study had a common experience (i.e., early careers in intercollegiate athletics). The phenomenological approach explores their experience, by allowing participants to speak about their individual experiences. For this study, each participant was a female working in the intercollegiate athletics industry in an entry-level position in a major conference athletic department. This is the common experience, which is not the same as saying "same experience" (Patton, 2002). It simply states that each participant has gone through the phenomenon studied, but their individual experiences will vary and be unique (Creswell, 2007; Patton, 2002).

Participants

The participant sample for this study included women working in entry intercollegiate athletic administration positions in one NCAA Power Five Conference. Entry level positions were defined more specifically as a title with the words "coordinator," "manager," or "director" in their title. "Assistant Athletic Director" or "Associate Athletic Director" roles were not included.

This particular sample was defined and selected for several reasons. Extensive research has already explored experiences of the senior level administrators (Burton, 2015; Grappendorf et al., 2008). Those women are at the highest level of administration in their respective departments. Researchers have explored the experiences of women who have obtained the "Associate Athletic Director roles" (Bower & Hums, 2014). Conversely, this study examined individuals who have often been overlooked in research. This intentional decision in this study was to gain new perspectives from a group whose voices have not been heard. Reaching out to the women in these positions represented studying those who have the potential to be the next generation of leaders in intercollegiate athletics. In other words, these women could advance their careers and become the next Associate and Assistant Athletic Directors.

Learning their experiences can help researchers understand whether trends in the industry are changing. Historically, intercollegiate athletics have been unwelcoming for females (Burton, 2015; Burton & Hagan, 2009; Diacin & Lim, 2012; Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Dixon et al., 2008; Henderson et al., 2011; Diacin & Lim, 2012). The sample of women in this study provided perspective on whether the industry has evolved into a more inclusive one for females. Likewise, we can understand if the presence of a mentor still can be used as a tool to be successful in the industry and what to look for in a mentor in today's society.

Participants for this study were selected using purposeful sampling. According to Creswell (2007), the researcher selects participants for a study because these individuals "can purposefully inform an understanding of the research problem and central phenomenon of the study" (p. 125). The goal of this type of sampling is to represent those who experience what the researcher is studying and this selection can help in developing

emerging themes through the participants' responses to specific questions. Participants can communicate experiences and opinions in an expressive and reflective manner (Palinkas, Horwitz, Green, Wisdom, Duan, & Hoagwood, 2016). While there are several means to attain a sample, this study utilized criterion sampling, meaning each participant met set criteria required to participate (Creswell, 2007). The required criteria for participation in this study were (a) Female; (b) currently working in an entry-level position in athletic department (directors, coordinators, managers); and (c) employment is a designated conference school.

Sample Size

With qualitative research, it is important to generate credible data. With qualitative studies, this means having a sufficient number of participants to accurately speak to their experiences of the phenomenon and also provide necessary depth to each participant's response. Sample size should be selected at a number where repeated patterns and themes emerge, saturation develops, no new information is reported during data collection (Dworkin, 2012). Though researchers may disagree on what number is appropriate to reach saturation, there is a consensus that saturation is the primary factor in considering sample size for qualitative research (Dworkin, 2012, Creswell, 2007; Charmaz, 2006; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1994). Likewise, the data must be in-depth enough to gain a clear and accurate perspective on the phenomenon so others can understand the experience (Charmaz, 1990). For a phenomenological study, Polkinghorne (1989) recommends selecting 5 to 25 participants who have all experienced the phenomenon studied. Having both criteria met improves the trustworthiness of the study. This study sought to achieve this by having a sample size of 15 participants.

Access and Rapport

Permissions from a human subjects' review board, regardless of the approach, must be obtained in order to advance research (Creswell, 2007). Permission for this study was sought from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the researcher's home institution (IRB #17.0983). Once granted permission, the researcher solicited participants through email. Emails included an explanation of the purpose of the study, why they were chosen to participate, along with a consent form (see Appendix A). A follow-up email was sent to those who did responded after one week. An additional three weeks after the initial invitation was sent, the researcher sent a final email to potential participants who had not responded previously.

Ethical Concerns

Protecting participants from any harm related to the research is absolutely essential with any study performed. This must be considered in every phase of the study (Creswell, 2007; Edwards & Skinner, 2009; Patton, 2002). Patton (2002) explains how important it is for the researcher not to overlook the protection of participants. It must be an integral component of the entire process (Edwards & Skinner, 2009). Lipson (1994) categorizes ethical issues in research as informed consent procedures, deception, and confidentiality.

Obtaining voluntary and informed from potential participants is imperative in performing ethical research (Creswell, 2007; Edwards & Skinner, 2009; Patton, 2002). Each participant in this study was sent an informed consent form. This informed consent form included the following: (a) the purpose of the study, expected duration, and precise procedures to eliminate deception; (b) any reasonable foreseeable risks to the participant; (c) description of benefits to participants expected from the research; (d) a statement explaining that everything obtained in the research will be confidential; and (e) a

47

statement that participation in the study is voluntary, and refusal or withdrawing from the study at any time is acceptable. The bottom of the informed consent form provided a place for the participant to sign and return and for the researcher to sign as well.

Confidentiality was achieved by following Glesne and Peshkin's (1992) model of assigning numbers to individuals. Confidentiality typically relates to the "degree to which individual comments or data can be attributed to individual participants" (Edwards & Skinner, 2009, p. 90). For example, the school affiliation of participants was not shared with any other person. The only purpose for this information was to find potential participants initially in the selection process.

Data Collection

Phenomenological studies seek to understand an individual's experience in regard to a given phenomenon, and through these studies researchers hope to uncover perceptions, perspectives, and understandings of a particular situation (Van Manen, 1990). The process of collecting information for this type of study typically involves in-depth interviews (Creswell, 2007; Jacob & Furgerson, 2012; Patton, 2002). The interviews are initiated to "describe the meaning of the phenomenon for a small number of individuals who have experienced it" (Creswell, 2007, p. 131).

Participants offer researchers their lived experiences through interview questions. Semi-structured interviews were conducted on each participant (see Appendix B for interview protocol). Semi-structured interviews allow the researcher to address the topic with a guide but not a strict protocol that must be followed. These interviews also allow flexibility, social interaction, and exploration of ideas (Edwards & Skinner, 2009). A script was used to initiate the interview and remind the participant of all important information regarding the purpose of the study as well as everything covered on the

informed consent form. Having a script for an interview can also help in building rapport and make the participant feel safe and secure and comfortable (Jacob & Furgerson, 2012). Creswell (2007) suggests that there should be approximately five open ended questions with space for responses and notes. Open ended questions allow for wider perspectives and greater elaboration than can be achieved through yes/no questions (Creswell, 2007; Jacob & Furgerson, 2012; Patton; 2002). This also allows the researcher to adapt to each interview depending on each participant responses. This adaptation is inevitable at some point (Jacob & Furgerson, 2012).

Interview questions for this study were designed to address five distinct concepts. These included (a) barriers faced entering the field, (b) barriers observed while working in the field, (c) mentor characteristics, (d) mentor role in success, and (e) aspirations for career advancement. Interviews were conducted over the phone or in person whenever possible and were recorded using an audio recording device. After each interview was complete, the interview was transcribed verbatim. Each study participant was designated by a number as an alias to protect privacy and confidentiality. Each transcription was kept in a safe and separate folder on the lead researcher's encrypted computer. Each participant had her own folder including the transcribed interview, notes during interview from the script/protocol, the signed informed consent form, and all contact information.

Data Analysis

Data were coded in a two-cycle process to aid in data reduction (Saldana, 2009). The initial open-coding process was designed to create codes and emerging themes. Following the open-coding process, the researcher debriefed, compared codes or themes, and clarified findings and meanings of coded data for agreement with the project advisor. During the second cycle, the researcher engaged in in axial coding, which provided the

opportunity to connect codes from the open coding process. Second cycle axial coding helped create a clearer context in which mentoring contributes to women's early career experiences. The researcher also used several strategies to establish trustworthiness of the data: including verbatim transcription (Patton, 2002), triangulation across researchers and participant experiences (Patton, 2002), and analytic memos and field notes (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014).

Trustworthiness

According to Guba and Lincoln (1985), trustworthiness is the quality of research that encourages other researchers to pay attention to the findings of a study. Trustworthiness of this study was established by credibility, dependability, and transferability.

Credibility indicates whether or not research has enough significance to interest other researchers, and whether or not the research findings are believable (Bower, 2009; Guba & Lincoln 1985). The researcher attempted to achieve credibility by gaining true authentic descriptions from participants lived experiences directly. Interviews were recorded, and all interviews followed the same interview protocol to ensure consistency. Extensive time spent through interviews (i.e., 15 interviews) required sustained time in the field (Marshall & Rossman, 2011).

Transferability, or external validity, refers to the "formation of suitable operational measures for the concepts being investigated" (Edwards & Skinner, 2009, p. 109). It refers to how the study's findings can be used in similar situations with similar research questions in the future (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). Thick description was utilized in this study. Thick description "enables researchers to transfer information to other settings and determine whether the findings can be transferred because of shared

50

characteristics" (Bower, 2009, para 15). Bower (2009) states the thick descriptions of participant quotes helps develop themes, which help the researcher consider whether the findings are generalizable. This study attempted to achieve transferability through transcriptions of each interview.

Dependability reflects the quality of the data collection process, analysis, and theory generation process (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). This was achieved in this study through (a) replication and (b) external auditing. Replication refers to the idea that another researcher could replicate the study given the methodology and data analysis (Glesne, 2011). Replication was achieved by discussing different processes of methodology with three members of the thesis committee, who were very knowledgeable of methodology processes and provided direction. The primary investigator on this study has conducted several similar qualitative studies, and provided constructive feedback to ensure proper methodology for data collection and analysis were followed. Likewise, external auditing via peer debriefing is vital towards data analysis. Sharing information with the thesis committee can both help in clarifying findings and asking questions to consider different perspectives, and also think more critically about the findings.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter includes the findings from the study. It will cover the following sections: (a) a breakdown of each research question and its corresponding interview questions, (b) themes that emerged from the recorded and transcribed interviews, and (c) examples of direct quotations from participants to further explain how the emerging themes were selected.

We begin with the Research Questions Matrix found in Appendix C. This questions chart visually explains how each question asked in the interviews was connected directly to a research question being studied. This ensures that each question has a purpose, and that responses can be connected back to current literature on the topics. For example, interview question #8 is connected to both Research Questions #1 and #2.

Next, this chapter will list out the emerging themes after a very detailed analysis of transcriptions of each and every interview. The analysis process involved going through each interview one by one, focusing on one question at a time, and searching for repetitive key words and phrases. The words and phrases that emerged most often became the themes for that research question. We will begin with question #1, and then move to question #2 and question #3. Table 1 presents the research questions and the themes that emerged.

Table 1

Research Questions and Themes

Research Question #1- What obstacles do women face in the male dominated industry of intercollegiate athletic administration?

Theme 1. Needing to prove self/capabilities/knowledge to others

Theme 2. "Good old boys" network

Theme 3. Department matters

Theme 4. Work-life balance

Research Question #2- What career plans do women have in regard to advancing into higher positions in intercollegiate athletic administration?

Theme 1. Know their abilities and think their goals are achievable

Theme 2. Goals of advancing have not changed

Theme 3. Moving away from wanting to be Athletic Director

Research Question #3- What types of qualities do mentors have that are helpful for women entering intercollegiate athletic administration (Kram, 1985)?

Development Functions	**Psychosocial Functions**
Theme 1. Coaching	Theme 1. Counseling
Theme 2. Exposure and visibility	Theme 2. Role Modeling
Theme 3. Challenging Assignments	

Research Question #1- What obstacles do women face in the male dominated industry of intercollegiate athletic administration?

The women intercollegiate athletic administrators surveyed worked in seven different departments within their respective university athletic departments. The female athletic administrators identified obstacles of working in the industry that developed into four main themes of (a) having to prove self, credibility, and knowledge; (b) "good old boys network"; (c) the department in which one works matters; and (d) work-family balance.

Having to Prove One's Self

The obstacle the women most often identified when working in intercollegiate athletic administration were the need to prove themselves, their credibility, and/or their knowledge of sport more than their male counterparts. For example, one respondent stated, "I think the biggest challenge, and I will guess you will probably hear this a lot, is having to validate my abilities. You definitely have to prove yourself a little bit more. Whereas when a male walks into the room, it's an automatic acceptance." Another woman expressed her challenges of being taken seriously in her position, "One challenge I would say is being taken seriously as a young female professional. Head coaches even in female sports are predominately male, and I think no fault to their own they have a bias."

One participant shared her experience and frustrations of feeling "smaller" in comparison to men,

> It just feels like you feel smaller in the room. You feel like if you are going up
> against a male they feel louder and more confident. I know my strengths, but there

is always doubt that I don't think males come in with. I feel like there is more of a confidence issue because of this lingering stereotype in the industry.

Good Old Boys Network

The second most frequently identified obstacle for women working in intercollegiate athletics was the lingering "good old boys" network. One woman spoke about what type of men these were in particular, and the implications of their presence in the industry:,

> The good old boys that I am talking about are the people who have worked at an organization for so long. Athletics is predominately male, especially since the 70s, so those people that refuse to change their mind, ways. It is just the status quo. I think a lot of times when women speak it is easy for the good old boys to analyze immediately 'well she doesn't get it, she doesn't understand, this isn't how we do things, or how we always have done things.

Another woman spoke to the added challenges the "good old boys" network imposes on the women it affects,

> There are not a lot of woman at the table when you go to the table. When I go to the table here I am working with five or six departments, and I am always the only female in the room when we are talking about something external. But if we are talking about internal, or something that affects the student athlete experience, there are always other women at the table. But when you are talking business, I am typically the only female.

One participant expressed the simple exclusivity of the "good old boys club." "I mean, this does happen in all work areas. You have the 'good old boys club' still, and you don't automatically fit into that, and I see that."

This exclusivity creates added challenges for women to navigate. In order to get into the conversation, sometimes women have to figure out where these conversations are happening, because often times they are not automatically invited. One woman said,

There were certain instances of that "old school good old boys network." It is like as a woman you have to strategize on and figure out where the conversations are happening at. It is strategizing and finding out: who are the decision makers, and not only the decision makers, but influencers. Also, where are the conversations happening between the decision makers, the influencers, and how can I get into those conversations.

The Department One Works in Matters

The third emerging theme was the idea that the department where one works matters. Many respondents suggested that certain departments are much more female oriented (academic services), and some are the exact opposite (development). In practice, this means the obstacles women face certainly vary depending on the respective department within the athletic department where the woman works. For example, one woman who worked in an external department at her university talked about the challenges the lack of female representation in those given departments presents:

One of the things too that I have found is there is not a lot of females leading external units. There are not a lot of women at the table when you go to the table. When I go to the table here I am working with five or six departments, and I am always the only female in the room when we are talking about something external. But if we are talking about internal, or something that affects the student athlete experience here are always other women at the table. But when you are talking business, I am typically the only female.

56

Another woman discussed how the apparent placement of females in athletic departments creates negative perceptions of women:

I also work in life skills though, too. Most women kind of work in life skills. I know people in development--very male oriented--and even some of our staff have had some things that maybe should not have been said to them because they are female. One of my colleagues ha[s] been told that the only reason she may get a raise is because she is pretty.

One participant who worked in an internal department expressed that although she works in a primarily female department within athletics, she understands the consequences and realities for women in other departments.

I think the demands of the profession may discourage women from pursuing a career in the profession. I think it's definitely different in different departments. We don't have a single woman working in facilities here. Marketing is very hard. Compliance is relatively more 9-5 so it is more manageable. If you are taking on a sport administrator role in addition to your role that will change your schedule.

Finally, another woman in an internal department suggested that working in those types of departments can limit upward mobility, creating the continuous cycle for women to never make it to the top. She stated,

In your departments that are more male oriented, I have seen that there is still a bias. Development and the business offices, you don't really see a lot of women, even sometimes sports info. Those are male dominant. Things like life skills and academics--sort of like teaching a little bit--you are going to have a lot more women. It is hard sometimes for people in these types of departments to move up.

Work-Life Balance

57

The fourth most frequently identified obstacle for women in intercollegiate athletics administration was work-life balance. For example, one participant who was a single mother expressed the difficulties she faced working in an external department before switching to academics,

> You want a family, and you want a work-life balance where work does not define you necessarily. I realize I cannot have that lifestyle and could not raise my daughter the way I wanted if I stayed in marketing. I believe that many women who go in that route end up leaving because of that sentiment.

Another woman stated the work-family balance challenges that women face may be why women may not only leave the profession altogether, but discourage others from entering altogether,

> For women in general, I think that child care is the most difficult. This is a very demanding and a 24/7 career, and I think that when women have children, that is when you see them often times leave the profession, and I think it is very tough to keep up. I think the demands of the profession may discourage women from pursuing a career in the industry.

Finally, one respondent shared she felt that women more so than men have to choose between their career and raising children, which is extremely unfair to them. She stated,

> Entry and mid-level positions, you do see a lot of time that people get families. A lot of times it is more challenging for women who have multiple kids, and feel like they pigeon hole themselves. The father won't see it that way. It is more accepted for the female to stay there and have to choose, which is not a life I want to live. I don't want to have to choose family or career. I would like them both to exist.

RQ2: What career plans do women have in regard to advancing into higher positions in intercollegiate athletic administration?

The most frequently identified themes regarding plans for advancement were (a) know their abilities and think their goals are achievable, (b) know their goals of advancing have not changed, and (c) move away from wanting to be an athletic director.

Knew Their Abilities and Thought Their Goals are Achievable

Women who participated in this study were very optimistic and aware of their abilities. All the women in the study revealed that given their experiences, they still believed their goals and dream jobs were achievable. Though some cautiously stated it may not be easy, and certain situations must work out in their favor, the end result was they each believed eventually they would get there. For example, one woman shared,

> I do think its achievable. I do think it is extremely difficult and the timing of everything has to work out for that to happen. I just think the stars really need to align in so many ways to advance to get to that level, and align for you to make the jump for something like that.

Many women were very straightforward and self-aware of their motivation and the process of getting to where they wanted to be. One woman shared, "I am the type of person that wants to train to be the best, and the best is typically the athletic director."

Some women shared that their experiences and skills were very transferrable, and the more they learned the more likely they were to reach their goals. For example, one respondent said,

> Although I am enjoying my time at [Participant's University], I do feel like I need to get my doctorate and get a few more years of experience and learn some more. I do believe I will get there. I don't have any doubts about getting there. It may

59

not be at a Power 5 school initially, but I will be able to somewhere when I get

that experience.

Similarly, another participant responded,

Yeah, I think so. I keep adding to my resume each year and getting more

experiences, and my supervisors are really open to educational advancement and

improvement or whether it be in the industry doing different conferences and

things like that. Even within our department, maybe sitting on different

committees and things. The more experiences that I am getting here certainly

[are] helping me build my resume for the future.

Their Goals of Advancing Have Not Changed

The second most frequently identified theme the women mentioned related to

advancing their careers. The participants consistently felt their goal of advancing had not

changed. While the interpretation of advancing, and the degree of advancement, did vary

from participant to participant, the desire to advance remained constant. One woman

shared the restrictions of being at the entry-level, and how she strives for more in her

position. She stated, "I want to be an AD. Having a lot of different responsibilities is how

I have always been. That hasn't changed. I just want to be a boss, ever since I was a kid."

While very few still had goals of becoming an athletic director, many wished to

lead their own internal or external department and have oversight of their own staff. For

example, one woman who worked in an external department at her university said,

I would like to run my own department. I would love to run my own office, pick

my staff and everything like that, and work with a Division-I football team. I

would love to be an assistant AD overseeing an office but also working with

football.

60

Another woman who worked in an internal department similarly shared, "I would like to advance for sure…. Once I do pursue my doctorate that would allow me to look at other options to move up in my career."

Moved Away From Wanting To Be an Athletic Director

The third most frequently identified theme related to career advancement was women moving away from wanting to be an athletic director. While a couple of women did in fact maintain their ambitions of becoming an athletic director, the overwhelming majority shared at one time this could have been a goal but has changed since working in the industry. Many women shared similar sentiments about the responsibilities needed for the athletic director role being the reason for their change of heart. For example, one respondent shared,

> I think upon first graduating I had an ultimate goal of being an athletic director. That has definitely changed. That is not in my wheelhouse anymore. Especially at a Power 5. There is too much. I would be a terrible fundraiser, and I know that about myself. There is too much of that stuff, and I can play that game to a certain extent, but not to the extent that would be necessary. Athletic director went out the window about five years ago, not to say I couldn't accomplish it.

The most common reason for the participants moving away from the athletic director role was the desire to stay close to and have more interaction with student-athletes. For example, one participant shared,

> At first, I wanted to be an AD but then I saw what a day to day would be for that person and I didn't want to be that far removed from students. That wouldn't really interest me that much. I wanted to be closer to that academic area, and

having contact with the students, so that became my clear goal and I believe it still is.

Another woman shared a similar sentiment, stating she is much happier in the type of department she is in now. She said,

> Before I started this job in marketing, I thought I wanted to go the sport agent or athletic director route. I am so happy I chose sport marketing. I get to interact with student-athletes, meet tons of people in the sport world, create a great fan experience at the games and be a part of game day production.

RQ 3: What types of qualities do mentors have that are helpful for women entering intercollegiate athletic administration?

Past literature (Kram, 1985) on mentoring has indicated mentoring functions fall into two main categories: (a) career development functions and (b) psycho-social functions. A similar pattern emerged in this study.

Career Development Functions

The most frequently identified career development functions included (a) coaching, (b) exposure and visibility, and (c) challenging assignments. The most frequently identified career development function was coaching. This meant the mentor showed his/her protégé how to be successful on the job by providing specific teaching and instruction. For example, one respondent said, "so, again she tempered the skills. I didn't know much about compliance coming in. She was a teacher and very helpful and taught me how important it is to help other people." Similarly, another woman mentioned how her mentors taught her about job related tasks that certainly helped her see what she needed to do to be successful. That respondent stated,

They took me under their wings and showed me the ropes. I learned a lot about marketing and what it takes to be successful. They constantly pushed me to get better. Some things they taught me are game day production, tips/ideas on marketing and training on Photoshop.

Another part of coaching was that the mentor taught not only the job-related tasks, but also how to navigate the sports business world overall. One woman shared,

I think her approach to how she works with people, how she negotiates, how she figures out different situations within college athletics to get what she needs to for accomplishing her job. I think I have learned a lot of different strategies from her.

The second most frequently identified mentor career development function was exposure and visibility. Exposure and visibility help women develop relationships and expand their network, meet more people, and grow professionally. One woman shared,

My first boss would call anyone and everyone if he needed to and do anything to help me progress in the profession. He gradually gave me more and more experience, recommended me to be on the All-America committee, which I still do today, and introduced me to a lot of people in the profession.

Another participant shared similar feelings about her mentor. She specifically noted the mentor's willingness to introduce her to others in the industry,

She has always been a great reference for sure. She also set me up with networking opportunities as well along the way in terms of just meeting people. She has some contacts at other universities that I have been able to network with that she has put me in touch with. She is very helpful in terms of 'hey, this person may be helpful too,' so helping me build my network too.

The third most frequently identified career development mentoring function was challenging assignments. Not only were challenging assignments presented to the women in the study, but the trust and/or confidence that they could successfully complete them was equally important. For example, a respondent shared

> If it's a direct mentor in the field, giving them tasks and putting trust in them to accomplish the tasks that may be slightly out of their range of being comfortable. He literally just handed over the reins to me. It let me spread my own wings, since I had no choice. For him to trust in me for two weeks to get what we needed to get done was very valuable.

This confidence can help women start to become self-sufficient and believe in themselves. One woman expressed,

> They gave me my GA and also my internship coming out of undergrad. Not just giving it to me, but giving me the confidence that I was able to do it. Also, giving me things that did not only just challenge me, but gave me autonomy, which was great.

Challenging assignments also provided very practical, hands-on experience that someone can apply into his or her next job. One participant appreciated the assignment her mentor allowed her to work on in her office. She shared,

> She gave me some really long and big projects that could benefit her looking at different things. It was a really long project but it was awesome, and really helped me get to where I want to be professionally because when I applied for this job-that was business experience.

Psychosocial Functions

The women most frequently identified two main psychosocial mentoring functions: (a) counseling and (b) role modeling. The psychosocial function of counseling was the most frequently identified theme among both psychosocial and development themes.

Counseling qualities proved to be extremely important for the women participating in the study. Counseling took the form of the mentor and protégé having open and honest conversations in which the mentor was able to share his or her achievements and struggles, and allow for constructive criticism to help the protégé grow. One woman shared,

> I think that one of the most important things that a mentor can do especially for women is to be open and honest, as hard as it can be sometimes to help them navigate how to build those relationships. Being open and honest is probably the most important for me, but being able to have the tough conversations and constructive criticism.

Another woman said, "we always have open and candid conversation. They give me the feedback I need, when I need it. If I need advice on basically anything, it is very much an open-door policy, which is awesome."

Another key element of counseling was a protégé being able to go to her mentor for both professional and personal advice or to discuss ideas if a problem arose in her jobs. For example, one respondent stated, "every time I have had something that I am like 'hey, I ran into this situation at work' or 'this situation is a challenge and just want to run some ideas by you, how would you go and present this?'" Having a mentor to bounce ideas off, and getting advice from, is extremely beneficial, making it the most identified mentoring function.

The second most identified psychosocial mentoring theme was role modeling. A role model provides an illustration of what it takes to be successful and provides an example the protégé can emulate. This was very important to the participants. For example, one woman stated,

> There's not a lot of women in this field who are able to have it all--family, profession and things like that--because it is very hard. She is more of a role model--someone I always keep in mind like 'it is possible?'

Likewise, another woman said, "I saw her balance that she was able to have in her life. She was able to have a great personal life and still succeed professionally, and I was able to see that I could do that too." Another woman also shared, "they are both very successful--great moms, have great work ethic--so it is just inspiring to see how they do it and juggle all the different tasks." Having a mentor to look up to as a role model was invaluable for women aspiring to advance their careers.

Summary

The findings of this study highlight the experiences of women working in entry-level athletic administration positions at universities in a given NCAA Division I conference. Each research question prompted participants to share experiences about a range of topics ranging from obstacles they face, if these obstacles affected any career aspirations, and their relationships with mentors.

Research Question #1 looked at the obstacles faced by women in entry-level positions. The results showed that the most prevalent obstacles faced by women in these particular positions were needing to prove self, the existing "good old boys" network, department where one works matters, and work-life balance. This study confirmed that many of the obstacles faced by senior level and executive level female administrators

found in previous studies are also being faced today in entry-level positions (Burton, 2015; Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Diacin & Lim, 2012; Lovett & Lowry, 1994). Specifically, Lovett and Lowry (1994) discussed the prevalence of the "good old boys" network throughout athletics, and how those who are not part of it felt like they must prove themselves more. Dixon and Bruening (2005) found that women in senior level positions struggled with work-family balance, very similarly to what this study found with its participants. The other two findings highlight much of what has already been mentioned. Many of the challenges women in senior level positions face are also present at lower levels of administration. The experience does not seem to change much from entry-level to senior level.

Research Question #2's purpose was to identify whether or not obstacles for women in athletic administration have any sort of impact on their career aspirations. The highlight of this research question was that participants were not discouraged by the obstacles they faced and believed they had the skills to succeed. This finding is an optimistic look at the future, and shows that women are not likely to go away in the industry. The last finding that women are moving away from wanting to be athletic directors is very similar to what research has already seen historically. Acosta and Carpenter (2014) found that women are very much underrepresented at the athletic director level, and this study suggests that statistic will continue.

Research Question #3 highlighted the most significant mentoring functions that women in entry level positions felt were be most helpful in both their career and personal development. The mentor characteristics seen as most beneficial for the entry-level athletic administrators in this study were almost identical to the characteristics seen as most important by participants Bower and Hums' (2014) work. The significance of this

finding is that women in senior-level positions understand the importance of mentorship in their own lives and what types of functions are most important for them. By understanding this, these women will also know the best way to be the most beneficial mentor to women just starting their professional careers. Women are looking for the same types of guidance from the start of their careers in entry-level positions through their advancement into senior-level positions, so this study highlights which characteristics women can seek out when looking for a mentor of their own.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Since its beginning, intercollegiate athletics has been predominately dominated by men. There has been a consistent lack of female representation in leadership positions, and women consistently face many obstacles in their careers as intercollegiate athletic administrators. Several theories suggest explanations for why females are so underrepresented in the industry including work-family conflict, the "good old boys" club, and gender role theory. Given this underrepresentation and the concern that many women may face barriers and challenges in the industry, a growing need exists to understand the career experiences of women in entry-level administrative roles. Previous research looked at the experiences of senior level administrators, so looking specifically at lower level female administrators can provide insight to the next generation of leaders in sport administration. Exploring the role of mentoring in these women's careers also can provide insights into potential ways for them to overcome these challenges and find success. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate the barriers women face as they enter the workplace in entry-level positions in intercollegiate athletics and explore the role of mentors in their success.

Three research questions guided this study looking at the challenges females face in intercollegiate athletics, plans for advancement, and mentoring functions that aid in the success for women in the industry.

RQ1. What types of obstacles do women face today in the male dominated industry of intercollegiate athletic administration?

RQ2. What career plans do women have in regard to advancing into higher positions in intercollegiate athletic administration?

RQ3. What types of qualities do mentors have that are helpful for women entering intercollegiate athletic administration?

In-depth interviews were conducted in person and over the phone with ten women working at university athletic departments in a designated Power 5 conference, who were currently in an entry-level position characterized by the titles "coordinator," "manager," or "director," but excluding Assistant or Associate athletic director.

This chapter was created to outline how the findings in the current study on the obstacles these women face in their careers, advancement plans, and mentoring functions related to previous research. This chapter looks specifically at each research question and the emerging themes that arose and discusses their relevance and additions to the literature. This chapter concludes with implications of this research and points out directions for future research.

Research Question 1: What types of obstacles do women face today in the male dominated industry of intercollegiate athletic administration?

Needing to prove self/knowledge/capabilities to others

The most commonly stated emerging theme found in this study was women felt like they had to prove themselves, their knowledge, and their capabilities to others significantly more than their male counterparts. These responses were spread across departments, and were not isolated, department-specific responses. Women felt they had to prove they were able to do their job to be taken seriously, and shared that they did not

feel men ever had to deal with this obstacle. Men working in similar positions seemed to have the privilege of never have to prove themselves to anyone in the same way women did. This obstacle relates to the idea of what it is like to not be "in" with the dominant group (Buzuvis, 2015; Lovett & Lowry, 1994). Because women do not have automatic acceptance, they feel they must prove their worth and value to their co-workers and supervisors, essentially confirming the exclusive requirements of "good old boys" club membership. Previous research discussed how the creation of the "good old boys" network inevitably leads to homologous reproduction. According to Buzuvis (2015), the "homologous character of a dominant group of insiders is reproduced by extending a presumption that those of the same sex or race as the insider group are qualified to be insiders, and requiring others to prove their qualification for membership" (p. 276). Women are not a part of the dominant group of insiders, so they must therefore prove their qualification for membership. The "good old boys" club is an underlying establishment, and was the most frequently mentioned theme for obstacles among participants in this study

"Good Old Boys" Network. The emergence and existence of the "good old boys" network can have extremely destructive consequences for those who do not fit into the dominant demographic. Lovett and Lowry (1994) found the exclusionary nature of a profession can often discourage women from even attempting to enter certain male dominated industries altogether. The "good old boys" most often creates challenges for upward mobility for women who want to advance their careers or want to bring new and innovative ideas to their organizations. The "good old boys" network limits women from being considered in many hiring situations, or from having their voices heard, as they are

often overshadowed by men who are not open to hearing what they have to say (Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Knoppers, 1989).

As shared above, a major theoretical component of the "good old boys" club is homologous reproduction. Homologous reproduction refers to the phenomenon that a dominant group systematically reproduces itself in its own image (Buzuvis, 2015; Kanter, 1977; Lovett & Lowry, 1994). Because men historically have dominated the industry, those typically making the major decisions are in fact men. Women entering the industry have to face this historical trend of male dominance, and try to create a new and more inclusive look for who can work in the sport industry.

Previous research on the "good old boys" network and homologous reproduction found that when there was a female Athletic Director, the percentage of female coaches in a department was significantly higher than when there was a male Athletic Director (Diacin & Lim, 2012). This finding suggests men in leadership positions typically extend the cycle and hire other men more often than they hire women. This study looked at entry-level female administrators and found that the "good old boys" network certainly is still present, and its existence continues to present a challenge for women. Many participants stated that many men who worked at their Universities for a long time were simply unwilling to change their ways or mind on just about anything. When a female presents a new idea, it is often shut down, and the woman is told she does not know how things have always been done in the past. A statement like this just further indicates that as long as men like this exist in the industry, the mobility for women who bring new innovative ideas will constantly be challenged.

Men who are part of the "good old boys" network are provided a greater support system and an open door to move up in the industry ahead of women. Men can form

more connections with other men, giving them a systematic advantage over their female counterparts. Men who utilize this network can outrank the few women who have made it into these positions.

Research shows a structural divide between which departments typically have more men and which typically have more women (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Lovett & Lowry, 1994). External departments typically involve financial responsibilities and decision making, and it is not surprising that those positions are still very male dominated. Previous research looked at this idea and found men dominating these departments (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Lovett & Lowry, 1994). The findings from this study certainly confirm this separation, and discuss the implications of this divide. For example, many women working in an external department commented that they were the only female at the table during meetings and their voices are often overlooked. The limited presence of females in these types of positions makes it more difficult to feel included or valued in the department. It also makes it harder to network with other females and form professional relationships with other likeminded females in those positions. The results of this study confirm those of Fink et al. (2001), suggesting that men can more readily access networks with other men to form relationships and alliances, reinforcing male dominance.

The interviewees in this study expressed how many times the men made decisions at places women were not even invited. This forces women to be strategic in finding where the men have these conversations so they too can be included in the decision making. These experiences are consistent and validate the findings of Dixon and Bruening (2005) and Knoppers (1989), who found that historically men innately have been given advantages over women because of the opportunities to network with other

men. Overall, this study validates that the "good old boys" network is still an issue women in intercollegiate athletic administration face today.

The Department One Works in Matters. Very similar to the "good old boys" network, the department in which one works matters in athletics. The challenges females face differ depending on the department in which they work. The experiences of women working in an external department are different from those working in an internal department. Studies have shown this can be explained by the different job descriptions and the types of characteristics that make a person in those positions successful (Diacin & Lim, 2012; Eagly & Karau, 2002). These characteristics can be further broken down along the lines of masculinity and femininity. Certain positions may seem to favor more typical masculine characteristics, and others feminine characteristics. Eagly and Karau (2002) found masculine characteristics include aggression, ambition, dominance, forcefulness, independence, and self-confidence. These types of characteristics were found to help people succeed in managerial positions within the athletic department, often times in higher managerial positions, or in positions in external departments such as development, sales, and business (Burton et al., 2009; Grappendorf et al., 2008; Henderson et al., 2011). Similarly, feminine characteristics like affection, helpfulness, kindness, sympathy, nurturance, and sensitivity are most beneficial for positions typically dominated by females in areas such as academics and life skills (Burton et al., 2009; Grappendorf et al., 2008; Henderson et al., 2011).

This study identified that the challenges women in entry-level athletic administration roles face are very dependent on the department in which they work. The struggles females working in external departments face are a lot steeper because they are working with the men who possess those aggressive, ambitious, dominant, forceful,

independent and self-confident characteristics Eagly and Karau (2002) discussed in their research. Often times the men outnumber the women in these departments, and the nature of these jobs is typically more masculine. Women in this study who revealed these types of challenges worked in marketing, business, and sports information. Participants shared a level of frustration of often being often the only female in the room or at the table. The women felt they needed to overcome feminine gender expectations, and strongly hold their ground when dealing with the masculine characteristics of their male counterparts. The gendered separation was much clearer for women in these positions and much more challenging for them since they worked in departments where women typically did not work (Burton et al., 2009; Grappendorf et al., 2008; Henderson et al., 2011). The women who did not personally experience many challenges in their careers often recognized that they knew women in other departments whose experiences were much different than their own.

Women in this study who worked in internal departments (academics, HR, and life skills) provided interesting responses. These women indicated they did not feel like they were treated any differently in their positions based on their gender. However, these women recognized their internal departments consisted almost entirely women, and their experiences were certainly different from women working in other more male dominated departments (facilities, marketing, business, fundraising). This reality presented a different set of challenges. A few women in these internal departments shared that it may be much harder for them to move up in leadership positions in athletic departments. This is consistent with the studies of Burton and Hagan (2009). Even if participants did not personally experience any direct barriers, they either recognized this was not the case for other women, or recognized that it may be harder for women like them to advance into

75

more powerful decision-making leadership positions coming from internal departments, instead of coming from external departments. This reality stems back into how gender role theory limits upward mobility for females in the industry, and why we do not see as many women in the top positions in athletic departments (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014).

Work-Family Conflict. Work-family conflict is one of the most researched theories in many male-dominated industries (Boles et. al, 2001; Diacin & Lim, 2012; Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus et al., 1997). The sport industry is one of these industries that has received the attention of scholars. Work-family conflict refers to the conflict that exists between the responsibilities of work duties and the responsibilities for family duties (Boles et al., 2001). This phenomenon dates back to Greenhaus and Beutell (1985).

The nature of intercollegiate athletics is less than ideal and accommodating for people who also want to either spend a lot of time with their family or hope to have children and need time for childcare. The irregular schedule, long hours, and potentially extensive travel does not accommodate needing to spend time with significant others and family, especially young children. Dixon and Bruening (2005) found that the burden of childcare often is put on the mother, and the struggle to balance both the career and family time affects women more so than men. The theory underlying work-family conflict is scarcity theory put forth by Greenhaus and Powell (2003). Scarcity theory refers to individuals being able to receive satisfaction from both work and home. The problem is an individual has only so much time to devote to both. The more time a person spends at one, the more time s/he must give up time with the other. This means that the more time an individual spends at home, the less time an individual can spend at work. There is no way to have satisfaction at both. This tension affects women significantly

more than men (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003). Society expects men to work long hours and be workaholics more so than women, especially when there is a baby at home who must be taken care of (Carlson, 1999; Dixon & Bruening, 2005; 2007; Dixon et al., 2008; Kirchmeyer, 1998; Kossek, Colquitt & Noe, 2001). Perceptions of female roles are that women handle more family responsibilities, especially with childcare (Dixon et al., 2008; Kossek et al., 2001).

This study confirmed that the work-family conflict phenomenon still affects women working in intercollegiate athletic administration today. One woman working in academics shared that she left her position in an external department because of the time commitments. She shared that raising her child as a single mother has become very important and more of a priority for her. Other women in similar positions shared that childcare may be the reason women actually leave the industry altogether or never enter the industry in the first place. Women shared the frustrations that men are not expected to have to choose work life or family life, but women have to make this choice, consistent with previous studies (Boles et. al, 2001; Diacin & Lim, 2012; Dixon & Bruening, 2015; Dixon et al., 2005). This means that although this concept was first studied back in the 1980s, society's expectations of females and family duties have not changed enough to where this conflict does not affect women who also have careers in male dominated industries like athletics.

Research Question #2: What career plans do women have in regard to advancing into higher positions in intercollegiate athletic administration?

Women have consistently been underrepresented in leadership positions in intercollegiate athletics, particularly high-level leadership positions. Athletic directors across divisions have traditionally been almost entirely men. Historically, women hold

only 10.6% of athletic director positions in Division I, 23.2% in Division II, and 30.3% in Division III, respectively (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014). Hagan and Burton (2009) noted this underrepresentation of females in top leadership roles has been consistent throughout the last few decades.

Studies have shown industries like college athletics often reflection society. Society perpetuates norms of what behavior is acceptable and expected for both men and women. Hums and MacLean (2013) stated these expectations exist throughout culture, and sport is just a magnified lens illustrating this phenomenon. Gender role theory and role congruity theory lay the foundation of what behaviors are expected, how much or how little an individual adheres to those expectations, and the positive or negative consequences of each (Claringbould & Knoppers, 2007; Henderson et al., 2011). For example, males are considered strong and have leadership qualities such as aggression, ambition, domination, force, independence, and self-sufficiency (Burton et al., 2009; Diacin & Lim, 2012). Top leadership positions typically require a candidate with these types of qualities. Therefore, because masculine characteristics are necessary for these types of positions, when a male is in these types of positions there are few to no negative responses by society. This is considered typical for males. However, a woman possessing these characteristics may be met with resistance, and will oftentimes be responded to negatively (Burton & Hagan, 2009). Women often have to overcome the perception that they do not have the innate ability to be a good leader. Consequently, women continue to be extremely underrepresented in the athletic director position (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014).

This study was designed to investigate whether women in entry-level positions wanted to continue to advance their career and believed their career goals were

achievable. Unanimously, the women believed they had the capabilities to reach their goals. Many of the women shared that their ultimate goal was to lead their own department and oversee their own staff. Participants were discouraged neither by the historic trends of male dominance nor by any obstacle they faced in their careers. They were aware of their experience, and believed they had the ability to make an impact and achieve whatever they set out to do.

Not only did the women in this study believe in themselves, but their goal of wanting to advance had not changed since starting their careers. No experience the participants faced deterred them from wanting to move up in their current departments even though they did not want to be athletic directors. The obstacles they had overcome in the industry did not affect their ultimate goal of advancing in their careers.

Women may still want to advance their careers from the entry-level position, but this study revealed women were moving away from wanting to be an athletic director. The new goal typically was to lead their own departments. There were two possible consistent explanations for this. The first explanation was many females did not want to be as far removed away from student-athletes as they would be at the athletic director position. Many women shared that the daily interaction with student-athletes was part of what made their jobs so fulfilling. The second explanation was many women enjoyed the nitty-gritty day-to-day hands on work that often times athletic directors are removed from in their position.

Research Question #3**: What types of qualities do mentors have that are helpful for women entering intercollegiate athletic administration?**

Development and career theorists believe mentoring relationships certainly can enhance the development of individuals early in their careers (Kram & Isabella, 1985;

Dalton, Thompson, & Price, 1977; Hall, 1976; Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978). According to Bower and Hums (2014), "the mentoring relationship constitutes a reciprocal, interactive process of giving between the mentor and the protégé which helps both parties reach their goals" (para 5). Researchers believe this relationship can be extremely beneficial for both career and personal development and growth (Kram, 1985; Kram & Isabella, 1985). Levinson et al. (1978) studied these relationships and found strong relationships with mentors aid adults entering into the work world while also helping them become their own strong and independent persons. Kram (1985) specifically researched these mentorships and created two divisions of functions, the development function and the psychosocial function, and his work has been used by many other scholars in recent years (Ghosh & Reio, 2013; Higgins & Kram, 2001; Lankau & Scandura, 2002; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2007).

Developmental Function**.** The first mentoring function established by Kram (1985) is the development function. Kram (1985) established five distinct career development functions. These included sponsorship, exposure and visibility, coaching, protection, and challenging assignments. Sponsorship refers to the mentor helping the reputation of the protégé either by highlighting the hard work of an individual or promoting him/her. Exposure and visibility take place when the mentor either introduces protégés to important people or helps them grow their network to advance their careers. Coaching occurs when the mentor teaches the skills and provides knowledge, while protection occurs when the mentor looks out for the protégé and tries to limit the chance of failure. The last function is challenging assignments, which involves pushing the protégés out of their comfort zones to help them grow (Kram, 1985).

This study looked at the relationships between entry-level female athletic administrators and their mentors. The most frequently occurring themes in this study were (a) coaching, (b) exposure and visibility, and (c) challenging assignments. This finding compares very closely with those of Bower and Hums (2004), which identified mentoring functions of associate athletic director level female administrators. Their study found women identified exposure and visibility and coaching as the two most commonly mentioned career functions. This study also found that challenging assignments were very important. This finding suggests that entry level administrators want to be challenged and want to gain autonomy in their positions. Their positions provide more room to grow, and having a mentor at this level who challenges them adds to the success of their careers.

Psychosocial Function. Kram (1985) also identified four key psychosocial functions including (a) role modeling, (b) acceptance and confirmation, (c) counseling, and (d) friendship. Role modeling provides the protégés with behaviors and actions to emulate by observing how their mentor acts in any given situation. Acceptance and confirmation refers to when a mentor relays encouragement and confidence and confirms the protégé's talents and abilities. Counseling is seen when the mentor provides any sort of advice that may or may not be related to the job itself, but may be more personal and affect the job performance. Friendship is a more personal type of relationship where the protégé feels comfortable enough with a mentor and can share information as a friend and as a mentor simultaneously (Bower & Hums, 2004; Kram, 1985).

This study identified the most important psychosocial functions of their mentors to be (a) counseling and (b) role modeling. Counseling was the overall most frequently identified theme among both developmental and psychosocial functions. This finding

suggests that having someone to talk to and get advice from at this point in the

participants' careers was crucial. This is consistent with the study of associate level

female athletic administrators by Bower and Hums (2004). Bower and Hums (2004) also

stated that this confirms the findings from a similar study done with assistant women's

basketball coaches being mentored by head coaches (Bennett, 2011). The second function

of role modeling was also consistent with Hums and Bower (2004). This study confirmed

that role modeling takes place when a "mentor effectively performs organizational tasks

while the female intercollegiate athletic administrator observes the mentor's behaviors,

attitudes, and values" (p. 11). Having a good role model in a mentor allows the protégé to

observe and emulate positive behaviors that can "strengthen her expectations regarding

the ability to successfully perform managerial tasks" (Bower & Hums, 2004, p.12). This

is a significant finding because this was also one of the most identified psychosocial

functions for women at higher levels in athletic administration, and also in coaching. This

consistency proves that this is something women should seek out when identifying a

mentor.

<div align="center">**Implications**</div>

The implications for this study are divided into two sections including (a)

implications for sport administrators and (b) implications for future research.

Implications for Sport Administrators

This study adds to the literature on the careers of female athletic administrators in

a variety of ways. The study expands on theoretical explanations of obstacles female

sport administrators face in the workplace and also the impact of a mentor in their lives.

Works of scholars in the past primarily focused on the senior level administration (Bower

& Hums, 2014; Burton et al., 2009; Grappendorf et al., 2008; Henderson, Grappendorf &

<div align="center">82</div>

Burton, 2011). This study provides a new perspective from a population that has not been looked at in literature, and provides interesting insight and implications for sport administrators.

The findings of this study certainly correlate with and confirm the findings from previous studies about obstacles women face in the athletic workplace. It confirms that many of the obstacles faced by women in high executive or senior level leadership positions still exist in entry-level positions today. These findings add to the literature and extend the capacity of what is known about the career obstacles facing women athletic administrators. The findings of this study can help administrators be aware of the different challenges that women face, and can use this information to create a more positive culture and environment to minimize these challenges. Sport administrators can recognize the importance of not only creating and putting policies in place that are accommodating to the struggles of women, but also creating a positive culture without a negative stigma around actually using these policies. Understanding what women face in these entry-level positions may assist higher level administrators to create policies that will support women and make their workplace experiences as barrier-free as possible.

This study adds to the literature in finding that women are not discouraged, and feel confident in their abilities to advance their professional careers. Sport administrators need to know that women are determined to break the cycle of male dominance and are determined to reach top managerial positions.

Finally, this study adds to the current literature on mentorship functions, based on Kram's (1985) two distinct functions. The psychosocial and developmental functions have been studied and applied by many other scholars (Bower & Hums, 2014; Higgins & Kram, 2001; Kram & Isabella, 1985; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2007). This study confirms

the findings of these studies and sport administrators can leverage this information when either seeking out mentors for themselves, or if they become mentors for someone else.

Implications for Future Research

This study identified obstacles entry-level women athletic administrators face in their careers, and how the role of a mentor can help overcome these obstacles. Themes emerged on obstacles, career advancement plan, and beneficial psychosocial and developmental functions a mentor can provide. This study looked specifically at a Power 5 conference in Division I athletics. Further research could look at other mid-major levels of Division I, or also look at experiences of women working in these positions at Division II or Division III. There may also be disparities between men and women working in these positions, so further research could also do a similar structure study comparing the experiences of females with the experiences of males in entry-level athletic administration roles.

<div align="center">

Summary

</div>

The purpose of this study was to investigate the barriers women face as they enter the workplace in intercollegiate athletics, and also to explore the role of mentors in their success. Each barrier women face was analyzed using the theoretical lens of previous literature, and then applied into this study and its distinct population. Likewise, the mentoring functions from the early works of Kram (1985) was studied through previous literature of sport administrators, and applied into this demographic of participants that has not been previously studied.

Previous research of the barriers women face in intercollegiate athletics primarily focused on the same demographic of women: senior level or executive level administrators. These women are women who have the title of assistant and associate

athletic director. (Lapchick, 2010). These are high power leadership positions in athletics departments. There was an apparent gap in literature for understanding the barriers and experiences of women in lower-level positions. This study focused on women in entry-level positions. This included the women with "manager, director, or coordinator" in their job title.

Theoretical frameworks outlined in the literature of this study focused primarily on three main categories of obstacles: barriers to entry, lack of networks available, and gender ideologies. Each of these theoretical frameworks was further broken down into deeper analysis.

The barriers to entry for women were first outlined through work-family conflict. This heavily studied concept proved to be very evident and present in studies of senior level female sport administrators. Work-family conflict occurs when there is an imbalance between the demands and responsibilities of work and the responsibilities that come at home (Boles, Howard, and Donofrio 2001). The work-family conflict is problematic for women because the demands of working in intercollegiate athletics partnered with the expected responsibilities to care for her family often is too much, causing women more than men to have to choose one or the other (Dixon & Bruening, 2005). Previous studies showed that work-family conflict is sometimes the determining factor that a woman to leave the industry and it affects women significantly more than it affects men (Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Greenhaus and Powell 2003). This study found that this is not an obstacle just women at the top management levels deal with. Work-family conflict affects women in entry-level positions as well. The participants in this study shared that they felt the demanding schedule of working in intercollegiate athletics inevitably does force women out of the profession if they want to have a family.

Participants also felt it was unfair that women often times had to choose between work and family, while men did not have that same type of ultimatum. From a work-family conflict perspective, it does not necessarily matter what level a female works in intercollegiate athletics. It does not necessarily mean that work-family conflict is more apparent the higher a female advances in her career in the industry.

The "good old boys" network is a notorious phenomenon that lingers around the sport industry. Previous research noted the continuous cycle of elite males in powerful positions. Historically, males have typically occupied many of the top leadership positions in intercollegiate athletics (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014). The "good old boys" network exists when the dominant group reproduces itself based on the presumption that the people in power prefer those of the same sex and/or race (Buzuvis, 2015; Kanter, 1977). It suggests that all others must prove their credibility, qualifications to be included. In the context of intercollegiate athletics, the "good old boys" network is an informal system where men are thought to have a very exclusive network of colleagues that they use to their advantage to gain opportunities for career advancement. Women are left out of this network, limiting them and creating an uneven playing field in the industry (Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Knoppers, 1989, Lovett & Lowry, 1994). Research confirms at the senior-level positions this is a very challenging barrier for women to overcome (Diacin & Lim, 2012; Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Knoppers, 1989, Lovett & Lowry, 1994). This study proves that just like the work-family conflict this is a major barrier for women in entry level-positions as well.

The first two emerging themes from this study are related to the "good old boys" network. The first theme is an indirect consequence of the "good old boys" club and homologous reproduction that happens in the industry. Those not part of the dominant

group to have to prove themselves, their capabilities, and their credibility. This was the single most identified barrier for women participating in this study. This is a significant finding for two key reasons. First, it shows that this is a barrier that women can expect to face at all levels of the industry, not just at the top. Second, it can prepare women for the reality of working in intercollegiate athletics. Several women in this study very candidly stated that this is something they experienced from day one. Women starting their careers can understand going in that this double standard may exist, and that before they get their respect, they often times will have to prove their worth even more so than their male counterparts, fair or not.

Gender ideologies are a societal understanding of behaviors and expectations for both men and women. Research shows that senior level administrators often times have to combat the inconsistency ((Burton, Barr, Fink, & Bruening, 2009; Claringbould & Knoppers, 2007; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Grappendorf, et al., 2008; Henderson et al., 2011; Hums & MacLean, 2013;). Although this was not one of the most emerging themes in this study, it was mentioned by a few women. What this means is perhaps it does not seem to be as present at the entry-level, but the more a woman advances her career and is in more a powerful position, the inconsistency in role congruency is more apparent, resulting in more negative experiences in that regard for women.

New themes emerged from this study that can be added to the previous literature on barriers women face in intercollegiate athletics. Building on gender ideologies, certain positions in athletics can be seen as more in line with the types of qualities possessed by either men or women. In other words, previous research suggests that there is a segregation of positions, so men and women gravitate to certain departments, based on the nature of the position (Burton & Hagan, 2008; Diacin & Lim, 2012). This study

confirms that this segregation exists, but also adds to literature stating the experiences of women in one department may be very different than the experience of a woman working in another department (Burton, Barr, Fink, & Bruening, 2009; Grappendorf, Pent, Burton & Henderson, 2008). Women in this study who worked in academic support services or life skills mentioned that they understand their experience is very different than some of their other colleagues in areas such as development, and they understand the challenges those women face on a day-to-day basis.

Previous research very candidly shows that the number of women in athletic director positions has been extremely disproportionate (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014). This study found that women who once may have had the aspirations of being an athletic director have had a change of heart on those aspirations, but absolutely want to continue to advance their careers and believe they have the skills and abilities to do so. This is a significant finding because it shows that the next generation of female sport administrators are not discouraged by any sort of obstacles they face in their career. As a result, the intercollegiate athletics industry may see more women than ever leading either internal and external departments.

The mentor-protégé relationship also has sparked interest of sport administration researchers (Bower & Hums, 2014). However, this study also exclusively looked at senior level administrators. This study adds to that previous literature by identifying the most important mentoring functions for women in the entry-level positions. The significance of this study is that it shows almost identical results. This result informs women entering the industry, women established in the industry, and also researchers as to what types of characteristics are most important to seek out in mentors. There seems to

be no noticeable differences in what is most beneficial for entry-level sport administrators or what is important for senior level administrators.

This study's overall findings are very consistent with previous literature. The same challenges and experiences faced in senior level administrative positions are consistent with experiences of these participants in entry-level positions. Likewise, the mentoring functions most beneficial for women in these positions are very comparable to those at the senior and executive level. While women may not be as interested in athletic director positions, the future generation of female sport administrators looks very encouraging and promising.

REFERENCES

Acosta, R. V., & Carpenter, L. J. (2014). *Women in intercollegiate sport: A longitudinal study thirty-seven year update (1977-2014).* Authors: West Brookfield, MA

Boles, J., Howard, W. G., & Donofrio, H. (2001). An investigation into the inter-relationships of work-family conflict, family-work conflict, and work satisfaction. *Journal of Managerial Issues, 13,* 376-391.

Bower, G.G. (2009). Effective mentoring relationships with women in sport: Results of a meta-ethnography. *Advancing Women in Leadership Journal*, 29(3). Retrieved from http://www.advancingwomen.com/awl/Vol29_2009/Dr_Glena_Bower.pdf

Bower, G.G. & Hums, M.A. (2014). Examining the mentoring relationships of women working in intercollegiate athletic administration. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, 22(1), 4-19.

Burton, L. J. (2015). Underrepresentation of women in sport leadership: A review of research. *Sport Management Review, 18(2),* 155-165.

Burton, L., & Hagan, E. (2009). Examination of job descriptions in intercollegiate athletic administration: application of gender typing of managerial subroles. *The Smart Journal*, *5*, 84-93.

Burton, L., Barr, C., Fink, J., & Bruening, J. (2009). Think athletic director, think masculine?: Examination of the gender typing of managerial subroles within athletic administration positions. *Sex Roles, 61,* 416-426.

Buzuvis, E. (2015). Barriers to leadership for women in college athletics. In Eddie

Comeaux, ed., 2015. *Introduction to intercollegiate athletics* (pp. 272-282).

Western New England University: Digital Commons.

Carlson, D. (1999). Personality and role variables as predictors of three forms of work-

family conflict. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 55*(2), 236-253.

Carlson, D. S., & Perrewe, P. L. (1999). The role of social support in the stressor-strain

relationship: An examination of work-family conflict. *Journal of Management,

25,* 513-540.

Charmaz, K. (1990). 'Discovering' chronic illness: Using grounded theory. *Social

Science and Medicine, 30,* 1161-1172.

Claringbould, I., & Knoppers, A. (2008). Doing and undoing gender in sport governance.

Sex Roles, 58, 81-92.

Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design* (2nd ed.). Thousand

Oaks, CA: Sage.

Dalton, G. W., Thompson, P. H., & Price, R. L. (1977). The four stages of professional

careers- A new look at performance by professionals. *Organizational

Dynamics, 6*(1), 19-42.

Diacin, M., & Lim, S. (2012). Female representation within intercollegiate athletics

departments. *The Sport Journal, Nov 2012,* 1-14

Dixon, M., & Bruening, J. (2007). Work-Family conflict in coaching I: A top-down

perspective. *Journal of Sport Management, 21,* 377-406.

Dixon, M., Tiell, B., Lough, N., Sweeney, K., Osborne, B., & Bruening, J. E. (2008). The

work/life interface in intercollegiate athletics. *Journal for the Study of Sports and

Athletes in Education, 2,* 137-160.

Dixon, M., & Bruening, J. E. (2005). Perspectives on work-family conflict in sport: An integrated approach. *Sport Management Review, 8,* 227-253.

Dworkin, S.L. (2012). Sample size policy for qualitative studies using in-depth interviews. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 41(6), 1139-1320.

Eagly, A. H., & Karau, S. J. (2002). Role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders. *Psychological Review, 109,* 573-598.

Edwards, A. & Skinner, J. (2009). *Qualitative research in Sport management.* Burlington, MA: Butterworth-Heinemann

Eisner, E. W. (1991). *The enlightened eye: Qualitative inquiry and the enhancement of educational practice*. New York, NY: Macmillan Publishing Company.

Ferber, M.A., & O'Farrell, B. (1991).*Work and family: Policies for a change work force.* Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press

Fink, J. S., Pastore, D. L., & Riemer, H. (2001). Do differences make a difference? Managing diversity in division IA intercollegiate athletics. *Journal of Sport Management, 15,* 10-50.

Galinsky, E., Bond, J. T. & Friedman, D. E. (1996). The role of employers in addressing the needs of employed parents. *Journal of Social Issues, 52*, 111–136

Ghosh, R., & Reio Jr., T. (2013). Career benefits associated with mentoring for mentors: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 83,* 106-116.

Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research*. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co.

Glesne, C. (2011) *Becoming qualitative researchers: An introduction (4th ed.).* Boston, MA: Pearson.

Glesne, C., & Peshkin. (1992). *Becoming qualitative researchers: An introduction.* White

Plains, NY: Longman.

Grappendorf, H., Pent, A., Burton, L., & Henderson, A. (2008). Gender role stereotyping:

A qualitative analysis of senior woman administrators' perceptions regarding

financial decision making. *Journal of Issues in Intercollegiate Athletics, 1,* 26-45.

Greenhaus, J. H., & Beutell, N.J. (1985). Sources of conflict between work and family

roles. *Academy of Management Review, 10*, 76-88.

Greenhaus, J. H., Collins, K. M., Singh, R., & Parasuraman, S. (1997). Work and family

influences on departure from public accounting. *Journal of Vocational Behavior,

34*, 249-270.

Greenhaus, J. H., & Powell, G. N. (2003). When work and family collide: Deciding

between competing role demands. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision

Processes, 90*, 291-303.

Guba, E.G. & Lincoln, Y.S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In

N.K. Denzin & Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp.105-

117). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Hall, D.T. *Careers in organizations.* Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1976.

Henderson, A., Grappendorf, H., & Burton, L. (2011). Attributions for success and

failure in athletic administration positions. *Journal of Issues in Intercollegiate

Athletics*, *4,* 257-270.

Higgins, M., & Kram, K. (2001). Reconceptualizing mentoring at work: A developmental

network perspective. *Academy of Management, 26*(2), 264-288.

Hoepfl, M. C. (1997). Choosing qualitative research: A primer for technology education

    researchers. *Journal of Technology Education*, Fall 1997. Retrieved from

    http://scholar.lib.vt.edu/ejournals/JTE/v9n1/hoepfl.html

Hoffman, J. L. (2011). Inside the huddle: Gender stereotyping work among senior-level

    women athletic administrators. *International Journal of Sport Management, 12,*

    255-274.

Hums, M. A., & MacLean, J. C. (2013). *Governance and policy in sport*

    organizations. (3rd ed.). Phoenix, AZ: Holcomb-Hathaway Publishing.

Jacob, S. A., & Furgerson, S. P. (2012). Writing interview protocols and conducting

    interviews: Tips for students new to the field of qualitative research. *The*

    Qualitative Report, 17(6), 110. Retrieved from

    http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ990034.pdf

Kanter, R. M. (1997). *Men and women of the corporation.* New York: Basic Books.

Kirchmeyer, C. (1998). Determinants of managerial career success: Evidence and

    explanation of male/female differences. *Journal of Management, 24,* 673-692.

Knoppers, A. (1989). Coaching: An equal opportunity occupation? *Journal of Physical*

    Education, Recreation, and Dance, 60, 38-43.

Kossek, E.; Colquitt, J., & Noe, R. (2001). Caregiving decisions, well-being, and

    performance: The effects of place and provider as a function of dependent type

    and workfamily climates. *The Academy of Management, 44*(1), 29-44.

Kossel, E. E., Colquitt, J. A., & Noe, R. A. (2001). Caregiving decisions, well-being, and

    performance: The effects of place and provider as a function of dependent type and

    work-family climates. *Academy of Management Journal, 44,* 29-44.

Kram, K. E. (1983). Phases of the mentor relationship. *Academy of Management Journal, 26,* 608-625.

Kram, K. E. (1985). *Mentoring at work: Developmental relationships in organizational life*. Gleinview, IL: Scott, Foresman

Kram, K., & Isabella, L. (1985). Mentoring alternatives: The role of peer relationships in career development. *The Academy of Management Journal*, *28*(1), 110-132.

Lankau, M., & Scandura, T. (2002). An investigation of personal learning in mentoring relationships: Content, antecedents, and consequences. *Academy of Management*, *45*(4), 779-790.

Levinson, D.J., Darrow, C.N., Klein, E.B., Levinson, M.A., & McKee, B. 1978. *Season's of a man's life.* New York: Knopf.

Lipson, J. (1994). Ethical issues in ethnography. In J. Morse (Ed.), *Critical issues in qualitative research methods* (pp. 333-355). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Lovett, D., & Lowry, C. (1994). "Good old boys" and "good old girls" clubs: Myth or reality? *Journal of Sport Management, 8,* 27-35.

Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (2011). *Designing qualitative research*. (5th ed). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Miles, M.B. & Huberman, A.M. & Saldaña, J. (2014). *Qualitative data analysis: A methods sourcebook and the coding manual for qualitative researchers.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications

NCAA. (2018) Title IX frequently asked questions. Retrieved from http://www.ncaa.org/about/resources/inclusion/title-ix-frequently-asked-questions#title

Oxford. (2018). Old boy network.. Retrieved from

    https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/old_boy_network

Palinkas, L., Horwitz, S., Green, C., Wisdom, J., Duan, N., & Hoakwood, K. (2015).

    Purposeful sampling for qualitative data collection and analysis in mixed method

    implementation research. *Administration and Policy in Mental Health and Mental*

    Health Service, 42(5), 533-544.

Parasuraman, S., & Simmers, C. A. (2001). Type of employment, work-family conflict

    and well-being: A comparative study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 22,*

    551-568.

Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods* (2nd ed.). Newbury

    Park, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Polkinghorne, D. E. (1989). Phenomenological research methods. In R. S. Valle & S.

    Halling (Eds.), *Existential-phenomenological perspectives in psychology* (pp.41-

    60). New York: Plenum.

Merriam-Webster. (2018). Protégé. Retrieved from https://www.merriam-

    webster.com/dictionary/prot%C3%A9g%C3%A9

Ragins, B.R., & Cotton, J.L. (1999). Mentor functions and outcomes: A comparison of

    men and women in formal and informal mentoring relationships. *Journal of Applied*

    Psychology, *84*(4), 529-550.

Sagas, M., & Cunningham, G. (2004). Does having "the right stuff" matter? Gender

    differences in the determinants of career success among intercollegiate athletic

    administrators. *Sex Roles, 50,* 411-421.

Saldana, J. (2009). The coding manual for qualitative researchers. Los Angeles, CA:

    Sage.

Scandura, T. A., & Pellegrini, E. K. (2007). Workplace mentoring: Theoretical

    approaches and methodological issues. In T. D. Allen & L. T. Eby (Eds.),

    Handbook of mentoring: A multiple perspective approach. Malden, MA:

    Blackwell.

Staines, G. L., & Pleck, J. H. (1984). Nonstandard work schedule and family life. *Journal*

    of Applied Psychology, 69, 515-523.

Stangl, J. M., & Jane, M. J. (1991). Structural variables that offer explanatory power for

    the underrepresentation of women coaches since Title IX: The case of homologous

    reproduction. *Sociology of Sport Journal, 8,* 47-60.

Straurowsky, E.J., & Smith, M. (2016). Female leaders in corporate sport. In E.J.

    Staurowsky, *Women and sport: Continuing a journey of liberation and*

    celebration (pp. 195-210). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory*

    procedures and techniques. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Strauss, A. L., & Corbin, J. M. (1994). Grounded theory methodology. In N. K. Denzin

    & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 273–285).

    Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Van Manen, M. (1990) *Researching lived experience: Human science for an action*

    sensitive pedagogy. London, Ontario: Althouse

Voydanoff, P. (1988). Work role characteristics, family structure demands, and

    work/family conflict. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, *50*(3), 749-761.

Walker, N., & Bopp, T. (2011). The under representation of women in the male

    dominated sport workplace: Perspectives of female coaches. *Journal of*

    Workplace Rights, *15*(1), 47-64.

LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX

APPENDIX A

Solicitation Email

October ____, 2017

Good Morning (participant name),

You are being invited to participate in a research study on existing barriers for females working in intercollegiate athletics, and the role of a mentor in females currently working in intercollegiate athletic administration. My name is Emma Cohen, a current graduate student at The University of Louisville. Partial fulfillment of my Master's in Sport Administration, I am conducting a study of barriers that exist for females in entry-level positions within athletic departments in intercollegiate athletics, and analyzing the impact of mentorship in their careers. The purpose of this study is to investigate the barriers women face as they enter the workplace in intercollegiate athletics, and also explore the role of mentors in their success.

Your position at your respective institution qualifies you for participation. I would like to invite you to participate in my study. I am requesting one 45 to 60-minute interview either by phone. There are no known risks for participation in this research study. The data collected in this study may not benefit you directly. Your experiences and perspectives provide critical literature that can help professionals understand the up and coming generations of athletic administrators in today's society. Your lived experiences can help researchers understand any new trends or existing trends that still exist in the industry. Your feedback may also directly help young women hoping to pursue a career in intercollegiate athletic administration.

The interviews will take place in November and December. All collected information will be stored at the University of Louisville in a secure office and locked file cabinet. All electronic data and interview transcriptions will be kept on a safe password protected computer.

Participation in this study is entirely voluntary. You do not need to answer any questions that make you uncomfortable. If you agree to participate in the study you may discontinue at any time, or you do not even need to participate at all. If you do not participate or decide to drop at any time, you will not lose any benefits for which you may qualify.

If you have questions, concerns, or complaints about the research please contact Emma Cohen at 413-949-1606 or Dr. Meg Hancock at 502-852-5040

If you are interested and agree to participate, please respond to this email or please call 413-949-1606 to set up an interview.

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.

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.

I hope that you will consider participating in this study. I look forward to hearing back from you.

Sincerely,

Emma Cohen
Graduate Student
University of Louisville

APPENDIX B

Interview Protocol

Preliminary Information for the Interviewer

- Thank the interviewee before beginning and at the end of interview.
- Discuss the informed consent form (read through it together, ask if there are any questions).
- Explain that responses will be kept confidential.
- Inform the interviewee that other individuals (Dr. Meg Hancock, Dr. Mary Hums, Dr Marion Hambrick) will have access to the responses in this interview and data collected in this study. However, Hums, Hancock, and Hambrick will only see participant pseudonyms to maintain anonymity.

Life History and Background (establish trust, and allow interviewee to ease into interview and get comfortable speaking to researcher)

1. Tell me about yourself.
   a. What is your educational background?
   b. How did you become interested in working in sport?
   c. Is this career something you have wanted to do for a long time, or did your interest develop later in your life?
2. How did you become interested in intercollegiate athletics?
   a. What initially interested you in pursuing a career in intercollegiate athletics?
   b. When did you decide you wanted to pursue a career in intercollegiate athletics?
   c. Do you want to advance in your career? What does advancement mean/look like to you?
3. Tell me about your current position.
   a. What are your responsibilities?
   b. What is a typical day for you?
   c. What was attractive about this position?

RQ1: What obstacles do women face in the male dominated industry of intercollegiate athletic administration?

4. Explain any type of the challenges you have faced in your experience working in intercollegiate athletics? (Burton, 2015; Burton & Hagan, 2009; Diacin & Lim, 2012; Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Dixon, Tiell, Lough,

5. Sweeney, Osborne & Bruening, 2008; Henderson, Grappedorf & Burton, 2011; Diacin & Lim, 2012)

6. How have these challenges affected your career day to day? Aspirations?

7. Think about other women working in college athletics that you have worked with and observed. What are the most prevailing challenges have you observed affect females the most working in positions like yours? (Burton, 2015; Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Diacin & Lim, 2012)

8. How do perceive challenges to affect men and women differently in your position in intercollegiate athletics? (Burton, 2015; Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Diacin & Lim, 2012)

RQ2: What career plans do women have in regard to advancing into higher positions in intercollegiate athletic administration?

9. How have your career goals changed since beginning your career in intercollegiate athletics?
10. What is your dream job?
11. Do you feel that your job is achievable given work experience thus far? Why or why not.
12. How are men and women perceived differently in your given position when collaborating together? (Burton & Hagan, 2009; Henderson, Grappendorf & Burton, 2011)

RQ3: How does a mentor aid women in the process obtaining an entry-level position in intercollegiate athletic administration?

13. Please tell me about an inspirational person in your life that you feel is a mentor to you in your career. (Bower & Hums, 2014)
14. How has this individual affected your career goals?
15. How did you meet this individual, and what is their current position now? (Lovett & Lowry, 1994 – lack of networks available)
16. Please provide examples of how this individual has helped you get to where you are in your career.

APPENDIX C

Research Question Matrix

Interview Question	RQ$_1$	RQ$_2$	RQ$_3$
1	✓		
2	✓	✓	
3	✓		
4	✓		
5		✓	
6		✓	
7	✓	✓	
8	✓	✓	
9			✓
10			✓
11			✓
12			✓
13			✓
14	✓		✓
15			✓

CURRICULUM VITA
Emma M. Cohen
1500 S. 5ᵀᴴ St • Louisville, KY • 40208 • (413) 949-1606 • emcohe02@louisville.edu

EDUCATION
Master of Science Sport Administration   Anticipated
May 2018
University of Louisville, Louisville KY
Outstanding Graduate Student in Sport Adminstration Award

Bachelor of Science, Sport Management
May 2016
University of Connecticut, Storrs CT
Cumulative GPA: 3.51/4.00

COLLEGIATE TOURNAMENT EXPERIENCE
2017 NCAA Gymnastics Regional • 2017 ACC Women's Basketball Championship•
2017, 2016 & 2015 NCAA Women's Basketball First and Second round• 2017 College
Football Gameday • 2015 Women's Big East Lacrosse Championship • 2015 AAC Track
& Field Championship • 2015 NCAA Women's Soccer First and Second round • 2015
Big East Field Hockey First and Second Round

EVENT MANAGEMENT/OPERATIONS EXPERIENCE
DIRECTOR OF OPERATIONS ASSISTANT   June 2017-Present
University of Louisville Women's Basketball
- Assists Director of Operations on daily functions of Women's Basketball program including: team travel itineraries and accommodations, travel budgets, summer camp operations and registration, and daily tasks as assigned
- Helps assistant and head coaches with various recruiting projects and efforts, mail outs, and duties as assigned
- Codes and breaks down film for coaches to further use for scouting purposes
- Coordinate all aspects of "Ball Kids" (Kids grade 2-7) for each home basketball game
- Communicate with team Nutritionist weekly to plan and schedule pick up for meals for student-athletes
- Help in the organization and equipment set up for annual Golf Scramble

ADIDAS INTERN, FACILTIES MANAGEMENT   August 2016-May 2017
University of Louisville Athletics

- Served as assistant Event Manager and lead contact with security for all home volleyball matches at the KFC Yum! Center and Cardinal Arena

- Set up and prepare field for all home lacrosse matches, ensure smooth operation, and clean up post game
- Performed various gameday operational tasks for home University of Louisville football games at Papa John's Cardinal Stadium, capacity 55,000
- Performed gameday operational tasks for all home men's and women's basketball games at KFC Yum! Center, capacity 22,000
- Attended monthly meetings and professional development sessions with adidas internship program, developing and enhancing professional skillset (Attended 2017 NCAA Emerging Leaders Seminar)

EVENT MANAGEMENT INTERN   January 2015-May 2016
University of Connecticut Athletics
- Managed and supervised a staff of over 20 student workers at home sporting events, delegating tasks for operation
- Served as primary Event Manager for special events; for example, Huskies Fight Hunger Charity Event
- Served as an assistant to the director of Event Management in the execution of varsity home events for all athletic seasons
- Executed and planned several post season tournaments (see collegiate tournament experience) including: visiting team liaison, monitoring visiting team practices, producing support materials
- Set up and brown down in the operation of all home events, including signage, credential boards, timeline sheets, game notes, locker room preparation for visiting team and officials

LEADERSHIP AND VOLUNTEER EXPERIENCE
Mini Marathon Coordinator   January- April 2017
Gilda's Club Louisville
- Recruited members of the Louisville community to join Team Gilda for the Kentucky Derby Mini Marathon
- Organized entire training schedule for 30 members of Team Gilda for 4 months leading up to mini- marathon

National Wheelchair Basketball Association National Championship   April 2017
- Operated athlete and team check-in for participants the day leading up to tournament, and the day of the tournament
- Provided customer service for participants answering various questions at check in table

Atlantic Coast Conference Women's Basketball Championship Feb-Mar 2017
- Represented the ACC for off-site practices for participating teams
- Performed any needed tasks for all parts of operation for entire week of championship

Ironman Louisville
September 2016
- Set up merchandise and worked the merchandise tent for the entire duration of the race weekend

University of Connecticut First Year Programs. Mentor   Aug-Dec 2013
- Co-taught a First Year Experience class with an instructor using strong organization skills to assist freshman students adjust to college life
- Provided 20 students with knowledge of resources on campus and stood as an approachable mentor

SKILLS
Event Management • Managing groups of student workers • Self-motivated • Conflict management • Ability to work in a group • Adaptability • CPR certified • Communication • Advanced knowledge of Spanish (written and verbal)