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Certified Athletic Trainers' Perceptions of Gender Equity and Barriers to Advancement in Selected Practice Settings

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CERTIFIED ATHLETIC TRAINERS' PERCEPTIONS OF GENDER EQUITY AND BARRIERS TO ADVANCEMENT IN SELECTED PRACTICE SETTINGS

By

Cynthia L. Booth
Bachelor of Science, West Virginia University, 1978
Master of Science, University of Kansas, 1982

A Dissertation Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the University of North Dakota In partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Grand Forks, North Dakota May 2000
This dissertation, submitted by Cynthia L. Booth in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy from the University of North Dakota, has been read by the Faculty Advisory Committee under whom the work has been done and is hereby approved.

This dissertation meets the standards for appearance, conforms to the style and format requirements of the Graduate School of the University of North Dakota, and is hereby approved.

Dean of the Graduate School

Date

4-27-00
PERMISSION

Title
The Perceptions of Gender Equity among Certified Athletic Trainers working in Three Different Practice Settings

Department
Educational Leadership

Degree
Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine if gender and/or practice setting were related to certified athletic trainers' perceptions of gender equity and specifically to barriers to professional advancement by women. This study was used to examine the perceptions of gender equity as viewed by NATA-certified athletic trainers of both genders working in three different practice settings: the secondary school setting, the college/university setting, and the clinical/hospital setting. A total of 600 individuals were selected for the sample, 100 each of men and women from each of the three settings.

The findings of this study revealed that perceptions of barriers differed to a statistically significant degree between male and female athletic trainers on 11 of the 12 dependent variables (socialization, advancement opportunities, dual careers, role conflict, administrative capabilities, mobility, experience, age, recruitment practices, hiring practices, and communication). Female respondents scored higher on those questions than males, indicating that women were more likely to perceive barriers than were men. There were no significant differences between practice setting and the 12 dependent variables (socialization, career aspirations, advancement opportunities, dual careers, role conflict, administrative capabilities, mobility, experience, age, recruitment practices, hiring practices, and communication).
The conclusions from this study indicate that issues of gender equity and barriers to advancement in athletic training parallel those in other professions and work settings, that women perceive those barriers in ways different than men, and that the practice setting does not influence such perceptions. The profiles and perceptions of male and female athletic trainers found in this study support the work of Carol Gilligan who postulated that the male voice has been seen historically as the societal norm. They also affirm other findings reported in the literature review that barriers to professional advancement by women are perceived to exist in a variety of professions and work settings. In athletic training, as in society in general, women do not have the same status as do men and see barriers differently than men.
In honor of my mother, Sarah Booth, and in memory of my dad, Hobart Booth, Jr.,

I dedicate this study.
CHAPTER I

THE INTRODUCTION

The number of women in the work force has increased steadily over the past several decades. Unfortunately, women continue to be employed at the lower hierarchical levels within organizations. Wentling (1996) stated that, “although women have gained access to virtually every line of work and many have advanced to certain levels in organizations, their access to senior positions remains limited” (p. 254).

In the athletic enterprise, many have been concerned by the low representation of women in key leadership positions. Although the passage of Title IX of the Education Amendments Act in 1972 aided the expansion of participation opportunities for girls and women in interscholastic and intercollegiate athletics, a very low number of women has still been reported to be serving in the roles of athletic administrators, coaches, sports officials, and head athletic trainers (Acosta & Carpenter, 1998; Booth & Anderson, 1994; Casey, 1992; Wilson, 1991).

Anderson (1991) revealed that, although women have been offered the opportunities to participate in sports, they have not had the same career options available in the athletic professions for men. Women not only have limited access to the top-level positions in those professions, often they have difficulty even gaining entrance. Anderson noted further that barriers impeded both entrance and hierarchical mobility for some women in athletic training, regardless of their experiences and qualifications.
Those barriers have been identified in other research in a variety of settings as personal, interpersonal, organizational/structural, and internal or external (Gupta, 1983; Shakeshaft, 1992; Sharratt & Derrington, 1993; Wilson, 1991). Gender/role stereotyping, socialization, androcentrism, dual careers, family responsibilities and lack of mobility, hiring/recruiting practices, and communication are barriers found to impede the progress of women in ascending the hierarchical ladder.

Athletic training is an allied health care profession involving the prevention, recognition, management, and rehabilitation of sports injuries (National Athletic Trainers’ Association [NATA], 1999). The history of athletic training is generally considered to have originated in the 1900s when football became an intercollegiate sport. However, Anderson (1991) reported that the first known athletic trainer was hired by Harvard University in 1881.

Certified athletic trainers are employed in various practice settings throughout the United States, including colleges and universities, secondary schools, clinics and hospitals, and professional sports. Additional employment opportunities for certified athletic trainers are provided in health clubs, corporate health and wellness programs, clinical and industrial health care programs, and athletic training preparation programs in higher education (NATA, 1999).

The initial attempt to assemble a national association of certified athletic trainers was in 1938, but the organization lasted only six years. In 1950, another attempt was made to form a national association; the resulting organization continues in operation to the present day. There were 101 male athletic trainers on the initial membership roster in
1959 (O’Shea, 1980). By 1998, the National Athletic Trainers’ Association (NATA) had grown to a membership of approximately 22,000, in which 44% of all members were females and 43% of all certified members were females (NATA, 1999). Yet, the percentage of women in head athletic trainer positions had remained significantly less (NATA, 1999). The most recent data available to support this was a study conducted by the NATA Women in Athletic Training Committee during 1996 and 1997 which revealed that of the 443 male respondents, 59% were in Head Athletic Trainer positions, while of the 573 female respondents, 37% held comparable positions.

There has been a lack of research focused on women in athletic training and no research was found which specifically studied women in the various practice settings. The NATA Women in Athletic Training Committee (1997) study involved a survey of 1,000 men and 1,000 women who were certified members of the organization during 1996 and 1997. The purposes of that study were to investigate the demographics of the membership and perceptions concerning professional involvement, salary and benefits, and hiring differences between men and women. The results of the NATA study have been published as raw data only and cannot be found in any referenced journal. The results have been maintained in files, with data generated at the request of members for information from the committee or the NATA. Since those data have not been reported in the literature, there is a need, therefore, to investigate and publicize results from a study of the status of women in the athletic training profession and their hierarchical mobility, or lack thereof, in the various practice settings of athletic training.
The theoretical framework underpinning this study is the research provided by Gilligan (1993) regarding gender differences in human development. Her investigation of developmental theories from the 1900s to the mid-1970s revealed a masculine image serving as a model for all human behavior. Those theories “eclipsed the lives of women and shut out women’s voices” (p. xiii). She postulated questions about voice and relationships throughout her research and her “listening” of women’s and men’s voices and their relational exchanges served as the foundation for her work.

Gilligan (1993), in her work on moral judgment, revealed differences in the manner in which men and women spoke about morality, identity and relationships. She recognized two different voices throughout her studies, one describing an ethic of care and the other an ethic of justice. Gilligan found that caring was dependent on relationship and relationship required interconnectedness of all people in a moral dilemma. Females tended to perceive themselves to be more connected to the outer world and to fear separation. They “judge themselves in terms of their abilities to care” (Gilligan, 1993, p. 17).

The ethic of justice in moral judgment deals with the rights of individuals and acceptance of autonomy without regard to extenuating circumstances. The voice of justice depicts rules as being necessary to control others and to provide a framework for competitiveness. This voice was found to be more often associated with males.

According to Gilligan (1993), many theorists of human development have perceived that separation from the mother is the beginning of an individual’s identity and
that the development process continues until one finds an individual place in society. Gilligan’s belief is that such separation and individuation occur at a slower pace for females than they occur for males.

Gilligan (1993) further illustrated her theory that speaking and listening constitute an ongoing relational exchange and that voice is the integral component for understanding “the psychological, social, and cultural order” (p. xvi). She found different ways in which men and women spoke about relationships between self and others. The importance of intimacy, relationships, and care was evident in the early developmental years for women but did not become clear to men until their mid-life years. Thus, males and females experienced relationships and dependency differently. Gilligan’s studies indicated that women identified themselves by relationships, feared separation, and had difficulty with individuation, while men were autonomous, feared attachment, and had difficulty with relationships. More information on Gilligan’s work is provided in Chapter II.

In summary, Gilligan’s research explored the thinking of females and identified patterns in the moral understanding of men and women across a gamut of real-life dilemmas posed in adolescence and in adulthood. Additionally, the developmental patterns of caring and justice and of self change over the life cycle. The task of identifying the understandings of the self as connected and/or separate and morality as care and/or justice, the interrelationships of self and morality with gender across the life cycle require exploration of age and gender differences in studies so that logic of the developmental changes and their interrelationships can be derived from empirical data.
Gilligan (1982) suggested that a better understanding of the dynamics of how problems are construed and resolved would allow persons to know how to deal with the differences between females and males. Thus, the demographics data collected in this study relate to the question of whether the male dominance revealed by Gilligan in the societal acceptance of the male voice was evident in the athletic training profession. The “perceptions of gender equity” questionnaire was utilized to identify potential barriers to advancement faced by women in athletic training. Those factors were divided into two major sections, interpersonal factors and organizational factors, and were related to Gilligan’s works and other research cited in the literature as being representative of man interactions and of organizational issues that may prevent the advancement of women to leadership positions.

Statement of the Problem

Studies have shown a dramatic increase in the number of girls’ and women’s sports programs over the past two decades. However, the number of women in sport leadership positions has not paralleled this growth. While numerous studies have been focused on women in athletic administrative positions, only limited research has been identified that was focused on women in the athletic training profession. Does the dominant male voice identified by Gilligan exist within this profession? Are the barriers to advancement for women identified in other organizational settings perceived to exist within athletic training?

The purpose of this study was to determine if gender and practice setting are related to certified athletic trainers’ perceptions of gender equity, in particular the barriers
that may limit opportunities for professional advancement by women. This study was designed to examine the perceptions of gender equity as viewed by NATA-certified athletic trainers of both genders working in three different practice settings: the secondary school setting, the college/university setting, and the clinical/hospital setting. Additionally, demographic information was used to profile female and male athletic trainers working in the three practice settings. The following research questions were used to guide this study.

1. Do significant differences exist in the perceptions of certified athletic trainers according to gender and the dependent variables (socialization, career aspirations, advancement opportunities, dual careers, role conflict, administrative capabilities, mobility, experience, age, recruitment practice, hiring practices, and communication)?

2. Do significant differences exist in the perceptions of certified athletic trainers according to practice settings and the dependent variables (socialization, career aspirations, advancement opportunities, dual careers, role conflict, administrative capabilities, mobility, experience, age, recruitment practice, hiring practices, and communication)?

Significance of the Study

As sport participation numbers and rates have increased for girls and women, it might be expected that there would be more opportunities for women to serve in positions as head athletic trainers. However, the gender imbalance in the head athletic trainer positions has continued since the advent of sports for males and females (NATA, 1999).
This study helps to identify perceptions of barriers which impede ascending mobility of women who are certified athletic trainers within the hierarchical structure of the three practice settings: the secondary school setting, the college/university setting, and the clinical/hospital setting. In addition, if differences exist in perceptions of gender equity between men and women or are influenced by the practice settings, the study could serve as a reference for actions by affirmative action officers or other equity experts within those settings.

Limitations

The scope of this study was limited in several ways. A stratified random sample was limited to 600 certified athletic trainers who were members of NATA working in three different practice settings: secondary school, college/university, or clinic/hospital setting. One hundred men and 100 women from each setting were selected from the NATA regular certified membership. Only one mailing occurred and a response rate of 47% was attained. Therefore, the data reported in this study were limited to the responses of those individuals.

The "perceptions of gender equity" questionnaire used for this study was utilized by Wilson (1991) to investigate the perceptions of athletic directors and was replicated for this study. A telephone conversation with Wilson revealed that the validity of her study was based on the study by Parker and Anderson (1980), in which instruments were prepared and piloted by vocational directors and educators certified for vocational education administration. Data obtained from the returned surveys were summarized and compared with the data found in the literature and a model was devised. Therefore,
content validity was established in the original design by Parker and Anderson and supported by Wilson's study.

The certified athletic trainers were asked to complete the survey instrument and the assumption was made that the participants in this study responded honestly to the "perceptions of gender equity" questionnaire.

Some of the certified athletic trainers working in the three practice settings had professional titles other than the choices that were available on the survey, particularly among those in the clinic/hospital setting. The survey question regarding titles best described the college/university athletic trainer.

**Definition of Terms**

**Athletic training:** an allied health care profession which is recognized by the American Medical Association and involves the prevention, recognition, management, and rehabilitation of injuries occurring to the physically active (NATA, 1998).

**Barriers:** factors which impede the progress of women ascending the career ladder (Gupta, 1983; Shakeshaft, 1989).

**Certified athletic trainer:** an individual who is certified by the NATA Board of Certification and who specializes in the prevention, recognition, management, and rehabilitation of athletic injuries (NATA, 1998); also referred to as athletic trainer.

**Gender equity:** fair-mindedness or impartiality in dealing with either male or female (Wilson, 1991).

**Head athletic trainer:** the most senior position to which a certified athletic trainer can ascend in athletic training.
Interpersonal barriers: the interactions between aspiring women and dominant power groups within an organization, including sex-role stereotyping, career aspirations, advancement opportunities, mobility and experience, and dual career/role conflict (Gupta, 1983).

NATA: the National Athletic Trainers' Association, a not-for-profit organization dedicated to advancing, encouraging, and improving the athletic training profession (NATA, 1999).

Organizational/structural barriers: factors inherent in employment settings which may impede professional advancement. Organizations have access and control over people (Wilson, 1991), while "structures are created to ensure the continued participation of the dominant group" (Gupta, 1983, p. 3). These factors include recruitment systems, hiring systems, and communication systems.

Personal barriers: factors inherent in the individual which may impede advancement and which may include personality characteristics, background influences, and/or socialization patterns (Gupta, 1983).

Practice setting: the employment setting for certified athletic trainers. Settings are within secondary schools, colleges/universities, and clinics/hospitals.

Organization of the Study

Chapter I has included the introduction to the study, including background in athletic training and the theoretical frame for the study; statement of the problem, including the research questions underpinning the study; the significance of the study; limitations of the study; and definitions of terms. Chapter II is focused on a review of
literature relative to the theoretical construct of the study; profiles and career pathways in
the workforce; barriers for working women, including interpersonal factors and
organizational/structural factors; athletic training and women; and a summary of the
literature. Chapter III contains a description of the research design of the study, including
the population and sample, instrument, data collection procedures, and analysis of data.
Chapter IV is used to report the results of the study through the presentation and analysis
of data. Chapter V includes a summary of the study, the conclusions and
recommendations from the study, and a final commentary.
CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the findings of a review of literature relevant to the study regarding perceptions of gender equity among certified athletic trainers working in three different practice settings. The review of the literature identified limited research regarding women in the athletic training profession, particularly concerning gender equity within the workplace (Anderson, 1991, 1992; Booth & Anderson, 1994). This chapter is divided into the four sections. The first part of the chapter contains more information on Gilligan's work which was used as the theory base for this study. The next sections are used to provide information from the literature on two major topics: profiles and career pathways of women and interpersonal and organizational/structural barriers women face in the work environment. The final section is used to provide a brief description of women in the profession of athletic training.

The theoretical construct based upon the work of Gilligan and her associates as used in this study provides a perspective of male dominance and differences between the gender-focused voices used in society. The literature on the career paths of women and the barriers to advancement that they face is used later in the study to compare the perceptions of athletic trainers to those of individuals in other professions and work settings.
Theoretical Construct

The theoretical underpinning for this study was based on gender differences in human development as studied by Carol Gilligan (1993), a renowned psychologist and professor at Harvard University. As she reviewed the literature regarding human development, Gilligan found theories and models being applied equally to men and to women without regard to gender differences. Her in-depth study of the psychological literature went as far back as Freud and continued through the literature of the 1970s. Her analysis revealed that the psychological development theories were concerned primarily with men and excluded women.

Gilligan's exploration of the literature regarding psychological and moral development led her to conduct her own research

whose aim is to provide, in the field of human development, a clearer representation of women's development which will enable psychologists and others to follow its course and understand some of the apparent puzzles it presents, especially those that pertain to women's identity formation and their moral development in adolescence and adulthood.

(Gilligan, 1993, p. 3)

Gilligan's research (Brown & Gilligan, 1992; Gilligan, 1993; Gilligan, Lyons, & Hanmer, 1990) was focused on listening to girls, women, boys, and men. She discovered that psychological theories presented a male model as the norm and omitted the lives and voices of women. When women didn't fit the historical psychological theories, they were considered deviant from the norm. The products of Gilligan's research further
focused on voice, relationships, and morality. This work delved into listening and found a "different voice," the woman's voice. "Voice is a new key for understanding the psychological, social, and cultural order – a litmus test of relationships and a measure of psychological health" (Gilligan, 1993, p. xvi). Gilligan and her collaborators found voice and listening to be a powerful and continuous relational exchange. Voice was identified as the connection to establishing relationships. In their research, they found differences between the voices of men and of women.

A woman's voice, according to Gilligan (1993), was found to be a relational voice preoccupied with staying in connection with others, whereas, a man's voice was found to be concerned with separation and dissociation.

The differences between women and men which I describe center on a tendency for women and men to make relational errors—for men to think that if they know themselves, following Socrates dictum, they will also know women, and for women to think that if only they know others, they will come to know themselves. Thus men and women tacitly collude in not voicing women's experiences and build relationships around a silence that is maintained by men's not knowing their disconnection from women and women's not knowing their dissociation from themselves. (Gilligan, 1993, p. xx)

Women have had difficulty in finding their voices and often speak in a self-doubting tone. This tone of deference has been embedded in their social subordination, according to Gilligan, and was found to be representative of their moral concern. Women's sensitivity to the needs of others and their tendency to care for others has led women to
incorporate others into their own voices, thus creating a confusion of judgment within themselves.

Gilligan (1993) observed other gender-based and developmental differences. She found that men and women experienced relationships very differently. Separation and individuation were linked to gender identity for boys and men, particularly since separation from the mother was critical for finding one's place in this world. However, for girls and women, feminine identity was tied to attachment and intimacy. Girls saw themselves like their mothers, while mothers saw their sons as being different from them. Consequently, males began to experience separation issues and to form ego boundaries in their early years of life. For females, because mothers saw them much like themselves and parented them differently, separation and individuation occurred much slower. Males tended to have difficulty with relationships, while females tended to have problems with individuation.

Gilligan (1993) also found that males tended to value autonomy at an early age while females valued relationship and judged themselves by their ability to care. Moving into adulthood and maturity, men appeared to realize the importance of relationships and the value of caring, and then integrated these into their identity, while women recognized those qualities earlier in their lives. At the crossroads of adolescence and adulthood, relational struggles occurred for girls and feelings of disconnection and disassociation emerged. The strife of becoming selfless meant to lose relationships or lose one's voice in relationships, which would lead to isolation and sadness.
Brown and Gilligan (1992), in their research on adolescent girls, found that, for girls, speaking their thoughts and expressing their feelings meant risking the loss of relationships and feeling powerless and isolated. The ways in which girls spoke of themselves, with and without "I," as reflected in their stories, revealed to the researchers the struggle with relationships.

'Listening to girls' voices, we heard the degree to which morality, in a male-voiced culture and a male-governed society, justifies certain psychologically debilitating moves which girls and women are encouraged to make in relationships and creates internal as well as external barriers to girls ability to speak in relationships and move freely in the world.

(Brown & Gilligan, 1992, p. 21)

According to Gilligan (1993), the attachment and separation seen in infancy appeared in adolescence as identity and intimacy and in adulthood as love and work. In young adulthood, identity and intimacy created struggles with self and other. Men and women's experiences were found to be different and their "voices" reflected those differences in how they spoke, how they defined and empowered themselves, and how they dealt with attachment (Brown & Gilligan, 1992; Gilligan, 1993; Gilligan et al., 1990).

Gilligan conducted three particular studies, the college-student study (Gilligan, 1981), the abortion decision study (Gilligan & Belenky, 1980) and the rights and responsibilities study (Gilligan, Langdale, & Lyons, 1982) and referred to those studies in her book, *In a Different Voice* (Gilligan, 1993). All of the studies delved into self and
morality and the experiences of conflict and choice. The college student study (Gilligan, 1981), a five-year study based on interviews with women both while in college and after they graduated, was designed to examine identity and moral development in the early adult years. The second study (Gilligan & Belenky, 1980), the abortion decision study, explored the relation between experience and thought and role conflict in development. That study was based on interviews of women, ages 15 to 33 from diverse ethnic and social status backgrounds, at the time each was considering an abortion and one year later. The results of those studies led to the third study (Gilligan et al., 1982), the rights and responsibilities study, which matched men and women ages 6 to 60 by age, intelligence, education, occupation, and social class. The third study involved interviews about self, morality, moral conflict, choice, and judgments of hypothetical moral dilemmas.

The findings of those three studies led Gilligan (1993) to her identification of the two distinct voices about identity and morality in relational terms. As noted previously, one voice described an ethic of justice while the second voice described an ethic of care. The ethic of justice voice involved moral development based on laws that protect an individual's rights and addressed disconnections which were found to be at the root of violence, violation, and oppression. In that voice, rules and laws are important in controlling others and in providing for competition. Gilligan identified the ethic of justice voice more often with males. The ethic of care voice was found to be dependent on relationship and the interconnectedness of people in a moral dilemma. She found that women viewed a moral problem as a problem of care and responsibility in relationships
and not one of rules or laws; therefore, Gilligan associated the ethic of care voice most often with women.

It was the essence of Gilligan's research (Brown & Gilligan, 1992; Gilligan, 1993; Gilligan et al., 1990) that girls' and women's voices were identified as distinct from those of boys and men whose voice was dominant in society. "Women bring to the life cycle a different point of view and order human experience in terms of different priorities" (Gilligan, 1993, p. 22). Within this context, career profiles and perceptions of gender equity among certified athletic trainers were explored in this study. Is there evidence of a dominant role of men within that profession? Do men and women speak with different voices when considering careers and advancement in athletic training?

Profiles and Career Pathways

In this portion of the chapter, the first of two major topics will be reviewed from the literature. The focus of this section is on profiles of women and their career pathways. The studies reviewed were done in a variety of settings and dealt with individuals in a number of different professions. The purpose of this review was to determine the existing perceptions of careers for women in order to provide a basis for comparison with the perceptions of issues related to athletic training as a career.

Gilligan et al. (1982) investigated female and male perspectives in constructing theories of human development and conceptions of morality and found that morality as justice was associated with a male voice and morality as caring was predominantly female. The conception of self as separate was predominantly male, whereas the conception of self as connected related to females. Those different modes of morality
and identity revealed that there was a significant relationship present between identity and morality. Understanding identity constructs and integrating these into further studies would allow for a better knowledge base of the differences between men and women. The dominance of the male voice and the differences in voice may influence the profiles and career pathways of women. In support of that possible connection, the literature included below was identified for relevance to this study.

The study of career pathways and profiles of women in administrative and managerial positions was evident across the disciples of business (Aburdene & Naisbitt, 1992; Estrich, 1998; Fauth, 1984; Pilotta, 1983; Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989; Swiss, 1996; Wentling, 1996); education (Hubbard & Robinson, 1994; Mertz & McNeely, 1991; Parker & Anderson, 1980; Sederberg & Mueller, 1992; Sharatt & Derrington, 1993; Walton, 1996), and athletics (Abney & Richey, 1991, 1992; Anderson, 1992; Davis, 1993; Smith, 1995; Wilson, 1991). Demographic factors such as age, ethnicity, gender, marital status, children, educational background, position held, salary, career path, and networking were used variously to profile the individual aspiration to or occupation of an administrative position.

According to Wentling (1996), more than 50% of women in the United States worked outside the home in 1985, and trends indicated that, through the year 2000, the majority of the 25 million new workers would be women. “Women are making steady gains in the worlds of politics, business, and in other realms of social and economic power” (Ottinger & Sikula, 1993, p. 1).
Wentling (1996) conducted research on career development and aspirations of 30 women in middle management positions in 15 Fortune 500 companies in the Midwest. The women worked in industrial corporations whose sales varied from $500 million to more than $20 billion. The profile of the woman in middle management was found to be that of a Caucasian, approximately 38 years old, married and without children. The average number of years of work experience acquired by the women in the study was 15, while their managerial experience at all management levels averaged 7.6 years and their middle management experience averaged 4.5 years.

Estrich (1998) reported under-representation of women in upper management positions. “Almost 90% of all board seats on Fortune 500 companies are held by men, 98% of them white” (p. 11A). She further indicated that 16% of those companies had no women on their boards, nearly 50% had only one, 30% had two, and 6% had two or more. There were 498 men and 2 women serving as chief executive officers of the Fortune 500 companies. Swiss (1996, p. 69) stated that, “if women continue to move into top business ranks at the current rate, the numbers of male and female senior managers will not be equal until the year 2470.”

Salary disparity was found to be prevalent between men and women throughout their patterns of promotion and career development (Swiss, 1996). Swiss found that women earned 28% less than men and that, as they grew older, the wage gap widened. In the age group 25-29, women earned 89% as much as comparable age men and, by ages 55-59, women earned only 59% as much.
In higher education, Ottinger and Sikula (1993) reported that women possessed 53% of all bachelor's degrees in 1990 and were concentrated in the fields of business and management, education, health sciences, and social sciences. They further revealed that women also earned 53% of the masters degrees, primarily in the fields of education, business, and health professions. At the doctoral level, women earned approximately 44% of the degrees awarded. The top three doctoral fields for women were education, social sciences, and humanities. Ottinger and Sikula (1993) further reported that women held approximately 165,000, or 32%, of full-time faculty positions in 1991. In regard to faculty rank, women were more likely to be at the lower ranks and were less likely to have been awarded tenure.

Similarly in academic medicine, there were fewer women who held positions of higher rank within the faculty or who served as the chief executive officers or as department chairs, and women received less compensation when compared to men (Association of American Medical Colleges, 1996). This report further detailed that, although 22% of the full-time faculty in internal medicine were women, only 7% of all full professors were women. Additionally, women constituted less than 5% of all academic chairs while only four medical schools within the United States had women in dean positions. Furthermore, “of the chief executive officers of hospitals who are members of the Council of Teaching Hospitals about 10% are women” (p. 803). The profile of a woman serving as the chief academic officer of a college or university was found to be that of a Caucasian, “52 years old, the daughter of a mother who worked
outside the home, held a liberal arts degree from a women's college, and worked at a private institution with 500 to 1,999 students" (Walton, 1996, p. 15).

Shakeshaft (1989) revealed the difference between the profiles of women and men in education administration. Women were found to be "older than men in similar positions, less likely to be married, more often members of minority and ethnic groups, more often come from urban backgrounds, more likely to have been a teacher for a longer period of time, and earn less for doing the same job as a man" (p. 61). The difference in salary between men and women was evident across all academic ranks in higher education (Leatherman, 1991; Maitland, 1990).

In athletics, the profile of a woman in an administrative position reflected similar aspects to profiles of women in business and in education (Acosta & Carpenter 1992, 1998; Casey, 1992; Karr-Kidwell & Sorenson, 1993; Knoppers, 1992). In a 1991 study of athletics directors within the National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics, Wilson found that male athletic directors were 10 or more years older than female athletic directors; women tended to be single while men were more likely to be married; women were less likely to have children, while men had on average two or three children; and fewer women possessed a doctoral degree. In addition, both men and women athletic directors had participated in and coached team sports and thus served in dual roles (coaching-teaching) for most of their careers. Women's annual salaries ranged from $26,000 to $35,000, while men received between $36,000 and $60,000 (Wilson, 1991).

Acosta and Carpenter (1998) revealed in their 21-year longitudinal study on the status of women in athletics that, in 1972, more than 90% of women's programs were
directed by female administrators, whereas at the time of their publication only 19% of women's programs were directed by females. While 47% of the coaches of women's teams were female, only 14.2% of the institutions employed females as full-time sports information directors and only 28.6% of 867 programs employed full-time athletic trainers who were women.

Sport has grown to a multi-billion dollar industry, creating increased opportunities for sport-related careers. Although male domination in sport-related careers has been the norm, Snyder (1993) reported that women were found in high profile positions, such as owning major league baseball teams, working as sports reporters, serving as executive directors of national governing bodies of sports, and driving race cars at the Indy 500. "While women still may be scarce at some levels and in some areas of sports, they are no longer oddities" (Snyder, 1993, p. 266).

Barriers to Women

Various studies have shown that women have entered the work place in record numbers and have aspired to leadership, management, and/or administrative positions within organizations (Gupta, 1983; Helgeson, 1995; Hubbard & Robinson, 1994). However, few women were found in higher-level positions due to the barriers which confronted them. Those barriers included interpersonal factors and organizational/structural factors (Gupton & Slick, 1996; Mertz & McNeely, 1991; Shakeshaft, 1992; and Wentling, 1996). In this second major topic from the literature review, such barriers will be identified from a variety of studies. The literature can then serve as a basis for comparison with the results from this study so that perceptions of barriers to
advancement by women in athletic trainers can be compared to perceptions of barriers in
other job settings and professions.

Warner (1988, p. 4) identified three types of barriers: "(1) the way in which men
and women enter high education administration; (2) individuals' perceptions and
experiences of barriers (e.g., race or sex discrimination, lack of an advanced degree); and
(3) the ranking of individuals' relevant life roles (e.g., career, family, leisure)."

Other researchers labeled barriers in the workplace as ideological, structural, and
individual (Anderson, 1991; Davis, 1993), while some classified them as internal and
external (Deaux, 1983; Luzzo, 1995; O'Leary, 1974). However, the barriers examined in
this research project paralleled those analyzed in studies by Wilson (1991) and Parker
and Anderson (1980). Those barriers were classified as interpersonal and organizational.

**Interpersonal Barriers**

Factors that limited women in organizational advancement included the
interpersonal barriers of socialization, career aspirations, advancement opportunities,
mobility and experience, and dual career and role conflict (Parker & Anderson, 1980;

**Socialization.** "Socialization is the most powerful process for transferring the
beliefs about gender roles from one generation to the next" (Miner, 1993, p. 45).
Influences of parents, teachers, peers, and others were found to be significant to the
socialization process, which begins at birth and continues throughout one's life span,
shaping behavior and values. According to Greendorfer (1993, p. 4), "socialization is an
influential process mediated by individuals, groups and cultural practices; the outcome of 
socialization is the acquisition of an agreed-upon system of standards and ethics.”

In her research on women and girls in sports, Greendorfer (1993) suggested that females’ interest and involvement in sports were a result of a socialization process, involving a complex integration of psychological, social, and cultural learning and development. She further suggested that discriminatory socialization practices occur when little boys are presented with “balls, bats and blue items, and females dolls, stuffed toys, and pink items” (p. 4). By the time a child has reached middle childhood, definite gender differences in games have become evident, whereby boys were found to play in larger groups with rules to meet the size of the group. In contrast, girls’ games consisted of fewer participants and involved taking turns rather than competing with others. Boys’ games provided a progression of skill development while girls’ games did not.

Greendorfer (1993) further surmised that the game experiences to which boys were exposed in early childhood prepared them better for adulthood experiences; whereas the girls’ games did not allow for negotiation in competition or provide skill acquisition for achievement of goals. “Consequently, females are limited in the number of social outcomes they can possibly derive from their game playing, and they are not adequately prepared for a variety of adult, social, political, or economic roles” (p. 9).

The socialization process has defined gender roles as masculine or feminine, with certain behavior traits assigned to each (Greendorfer, 1993; McGivney, 1993; Miner, 1993). McGivney (1993) indicated that children learn stereotyped expectations and assumptions at an early age, while Wood (1994) claimed that by age five children knew
which sex they were and understood the basic societal expectations of being male and female.

Gupta (1983) reported that “boys are socialized to be aggressive, competitive, and achievement-oriented, but girls are often socialized to be passive, noncompetitive, and nurturant” (pp. 4-5). Those different qualities to which boys are exposed early in life were found to have allowed men to gain positions of power in the workforce and have deterred women from seeking positions of power. Davidson and Gordon (1979) also indicated that society, not biological differences, determined the limitations placed on men and women and that the prescribed gender behaviors varied significantly from one society to another.

Gilligan (1993) suggested that the “different voices” used by men and women for communication were based on how males and females attained their own identity. Her research further illustrated “that men and women may speak different languages that they assume are the same” (p. 173). However, due to an “overlapping moral vocabulary” (p. 173), men and women may misinterpret one another, an action “which [may] impede communication and limit the potential for cooperation and care in relationships” (p. 173).

Career Aspirations. Career aspirations were found in the literature as another interpersonal barrier for women in the workforce. Shakeshaft (1989) provided two contrasting positions relative to career aspirations relevant to women. The first position showed that “women [do] aspire but the traditional definition of aspiration fails to fit female experience and thus if measured by this definition it appears women don’t aspire” (p. 86). The second position posited “that women aspire but organizational and societal
barriers prevent women from acknowledging or acting upon their aspiration and thus it appears that women lack aspiration” (p. 86). Friesen (1983) noted that at times women avoided leadership positions because of the masculine sex-role image equated to such roles.

Gupton and Slick (1996) revealed that the cultural image of education administration has been a depiction of white male domination with women and minorities struggling to gain access due to their lack of networks and support systems. However, they suggested that there had been a shift from women's lack of aspiration for administrative positions to an increasing emphasis on better support systems. Role models, mentors, networks, and family supports were identified as assisting in women’s increasing acquisition of and success in administrative positions.

Hill and Raglund (1995) also highlighted several barriers which were found to impede the career aspirations of women. Those were male dominance of key leadership positions, lack of political savvy, lack of career positioning, lack of mentoring, lack of mobility, and bias against women. Similarly, Brown and Merchant (1993) identified the absence of role models for women, lack of support from others, lack of organizational support, and lack of networking as deterrents to career aspirations for women.

Brown and Irby (1994) analyzed career attitudes, fears, and misconceptions among female administrators and found that 80% of the women had misconceptions concerning career development techniques. In addition, 95% of the respondents indicated a lack of self-confidence and 100% of the responses indicated misconceptions relative to networking.
Advancement Opportunities. The literature review revealed other barriers that existed for women and that limited advancement opportunities across all facets of employment (Bronstein, Rothblum, & Solomon, 1993; Johnsrud & Wunsch, 1994; Rochman, 1998). Bronstein et al. reported that the psychological barriers to academia for women and minorities were found in the institutional and social oppression that created self-denigrating and self-limiting thoughts and behaviors.

Johnsrud and Des Jarlais (1994) found women and minorities in academia to be promoted and to be tenured less often than white male faculty members. Their study investigated faculty perceptions of organizational, professional, and personal barriers to tenure and retention at one major research institution and revealed that women and ethnic group members experienced academic careers differently than men at a western major urban public research university. Further findings showed that women perceived a more negative climate with both organizational and personal discrimination, which limited their career advancement opportunities. Also, women perceived that they had received less institutional and departmental support than had their male counterparts and also had higher teaching and advising loads. Because of those perceptions, women indicated that they left the institutions more often than did men.

Eagley (1987) found that women had little power and limited opportunity for advancement and were likely to be employed in relatively low status positions. The earnings ladder was considered as another impediment to advancement opportunities for women and minorities in the employment arena. Data analysis by the Bureau of the Census (1994) revealed that persons in the categories of women, younger workers, less-
educated individuals, and Hispanics were more likely to earn less than $13,000, whereas a person in the categories of men, college degree holders, and whites was likely to earn at least $50,000.

In the decade previous to 1996, only a two percent increase was seen in minorities and women in the top executive positions of the 1,000 largest companies in the United States (Wentling, 1996). In her study of 30 women in middle management positions, Wentling found factors most pertinent to their success and identified barriers which hindered their career aspiration and progression. Furthermore, she revealed that the majority of women aspired to attain top management positions and had received the education and work experience required to obtain those positions. However, Wentling acknowledged that, in order to improve the chances of successfully promoting women to senior management positions, leaders in business organizations needed to understand the barriers impeding women managers and limiting the opportunities for career advancement.

**Mobility and Experience.** According to Bell (1992), career mobility was described as an asset for advancement opportunities within a profession, and the willingness to move would allow one to be competitive in seeking more advantageous positions. As Twombly (1986, p. 3) stated, “careers are structures of organizations through which the process of recruiting, training, socializing, and allocating the right (as defined by the organization) individuals to the right positions at the right time takes place.”
Cunanan’s (1994) research demonstrated that in education, although they outnumber men four to one at the administrative level and despite their academic credentials, women struggle to achieve many administrative positions, especially as superintendent, assistant/associate superintendent, and secondary school principal. Other researchers supported the under-representation of women in elementary and secondary educational administration (Goesetti & Rusch, 1995; Matthews, 1995; Shakeshaft, 1989, 1992; Sharatt & Derrington, 1993). The inability of women to secure the top-level administrative positions in school districts was attributed to the “glass ceiling” (Cunanan, 1994; Gupton & Slick, 1996; Scherr, 1995). In educational administration, women and members of minorities have had fewer opportunities for career mobility and were found to be more likely to hold staff positions and/or be responsible for administering special projects rather than allowing them to hold more secure, line positions (Patterson, 1994).

Shapiro (1987) reported that both internal and external obstacles hindered career mobility for women and that existing hierarchical and bureaucratic systems needed to be modified to allow women to have the same opportunities for advancement as men had available to them. External obstacles cited were low levels of encouragement for women to become administrators, lack of role models, lack of networking, and improper discriminating practices in hiring and promoting women. Internal obstacles were low levels of confidence, family and home responsibilities, socialization, and sex-role stereotyping (Shapiro, 1987).

Hill and Raglund (1996) researched 35 women in leadership positions in educational settings utilizing a series of interviews to capture their experiences as a
practical guide for those who aspired to leadership positions in those settings. Their findings revealed that the range in ages of interviewees at the first administrative position was 22 to 49 years and that 40% received their administrative position at the age of 30 or younger. The wide range was due to the fact that some chose to wait until their children were older before applying for an administrative position. Over half of the women interviewed had their career or graduate study interrupted by their husbands’ career moves or lack of ability to move due to their husbands’ jobs. Hill and Raglund reported that when the woman was a single parent, mobility was a bigger concern than for men, and the stated reasons were due to safety, socialization, and child care factors.

Kanter (1977) suggested that opportunity plays a vital role in one’s work behavior and attitudes. A person who had little or no opportunity for career advancement or upward mobility within the organization’s hierarchy tended to leave the job.

In studying athletics, Knoppers (1992), investigated how access to positions, opportunities for income, networking for jobs, and frequency of feedback from supervisors were gender-differentiated for female and male NCAA Division I coaches. The results revealed that men had more opportunities to coach both women’s and men’s teams and had a greater chance than women of moving into athletic administrative jobs. Other research substantiated male dominance in athletic positions (Acosta & Carpenter, 1992, 1998; Casey, 1992; Wilson, 1991).

**Dual Careers and Role Conflict.** Although women comprise 52% of the workforce, they have struggled to balance career and family (Watkins, Herrin & McDonald, 1993). Watkins et al. indicated that achieving quality professional status
occurred between the ages of 25 and 35 which conflicts with the optimum childbearing years. They also found in higher education settings that combining family and career restricted women from attaining promotions, tenure, and other forms of advancement. Additionally, the authors found that fewer married women achieved high academic rank than married men, and men were more successful in combining parenthood and academic careers.

Several other researchers acknowledged also that home and family responsibilities were obstacles for women in the workplace (Gupta, 1983; McGivney, 1993; Shakeshaft, 1989; Warner, 1988). Women who had to take leaves of absence subsequently returned to work lacking the scholarly productivity needed for promotion and tenure. Hensel (1991) noted that gender discrimination was prevalent in higher education and was most evident for women trying to balance family life and a career life. Hensel further suggested that most institutions were male-dominated and women incurred higher attrition rates and slower mobility.

Warner's (1988) study of administrators at the levels of dean and higher indicated that women, more so than men, were likely to place family first and that family responsibilities were a significant issue for women. Additionally, the study revealed that 57% of the women were married versus 90% of the men and that 95% of the male administrators had children compared to 60% of the female administrators.

Family relationships and career demands were identified also by Bronstein et al. (1993) as causative factors keeping women at lower faculty ranks and in part-time positions. Like Warner (1988), they noted that women who were married or in other
relationships held their partners' needs superior to their own. Additionally, they reported that “for many female PhD’s, living with one's partner means foregoing a tenure track position – or alternatively, obtaining a tenure-track position, and remaining single” (p. 25).

Organizational/Structural Barriers

As defined by Gupta (1983), organizational/structural barriers are those which are found in the institutional systems of education administration. They can be detected in the recruitment systems, hiring systems, and communication systems.

Recruitment and Hiring Systems. Sex discrimination in recruitment and hiring has been well documented in the literature as an organizational barrier impacting women in the workplace (Gupta, 1983; Hill & Ragland, 1995; Shakeshaft, 1959; Sharratt & Derrington, 1993; Warner, 1988). Sharratt and Derrington (1993) identified school district attributes that attracted or limited women applicants for a superintendent position. Five attributes that were found to interest females as applicants were a good match between the district’s needs and individual skills and abilities, a stable and visionary board, ability to implement new programs, stable district finances, and favorable potential for district success. The identified barriers were sex role stereotyping, sex discrimination, few female role models, and lack of available mentors. Their study concluded that current recruitment practices systematically overlooked qualified females or blocked them from access to leadership positions “by the lack of encouragement, incentives, or support for choosing to enter the profession” (p. 6).
Gender bias in hiring and promoting practices was evident in a West Virginia study conducted by Martin and Grant (1990). Fifty-five percent of the women who completed school principal preparation programs reported that gender discrimination in hiring and promotion practices had prevented them from attaining administrative positions. They found that men with less teaching experience and fewer graduate hours were selected over the female candidates.

Johnsrud and Wunsch (1994) explored the perceptions of senior and junior female faculty members regarding the barriers to success experienced early in the academic career. They noted that recruitment and retention of qualified faculty had been a concern in higher education for the previous decade. Junior faculty perceived most barriers as less problematic than the senior women. Senior women faculty anticipated that junior women would experience more isolation than they reported. Both junior and senior women faculty perceived the barriers surrounding roles and responsibilities and the sense of belonging similarly. However, senior women anticipated more feelings of personal insecurity by the junior faculty than what the junior faculty reported. The researchers noted that longitudinal data regarding changing perceptions of women faculty members over time are needed to allow for a better understanding of the perceptions and experiences incurred by women.

Ottinger and Sikula (1993) analyzed economic and demographic trends for women relative to their educational attainment, labor market participation, and position in academia. They found that women continued to have median earnings below those of men with similar educational credentials, women were found to be disproportionately
represented at the lower faculty ranks, and the number of women serving as the chief executive officers of colleges and universities had risen, but slowly.

Opportunity, power, and proportion across all administrative roles were structural determinants affecting work behavior and attitudes resulting in vacating a job, according to Kanter (1977). The author further stated that women left positions or had lower career aspirations not due to their gender but rather because their positions afforded little or no opportunity for advancement for them.

In athletics, Davis (1993) identified structural limitations occurring in officiating for women that involved obstacles related to job responsibilities or to governing organizations. Her review of the literature revealed barriers relative to recruitment and retention of women officials. Structural limitations included financial opportunities, discrimination, lack of organizational support, and lack of legal support. Sports traditionally have been male-oriented and, when job opportunities occurred in officiating, men had been assigned to those jobs instead of women applicants. “Sexism and inequality are evident in the lack of assignments for women officials, and in the subordinate treatment of women officials by male officials, coaches, and administrators” (p. 58).

In their longitudinal study from 1977 to 1998 on the status of women in intercollegiate sport, Acosta and Carpenter (1998) found that only 19.4% of women’s athletic programs were directed by females and 47.4% of the coaches of women’s teams were females. In 1972, when Title IX was enacted, more than 90% of women’s programs were directed by a female head administrator and more than 90% of women’s teams were
coached by females. Additionally, their study revealed that in 867 NCAA institutions that were reported, 28.6% had a woman as the head athletic trainer.

**Communication Systems.** Wood (1994) explored issues of communication, gender, and culture relative to individuals' personal and professional lives. Institutions and individuals were found to parallel one another as they operated according to beliefs, values, and goals. Institutional beliefs were communicated through structures, policies, and practices. When those beliefs had been made into broad generalizations about men and women as groups, the result was gender stereotypes. She then identified the stereotypes of women and men, stereotypes of professional communication, and gendered communication systems in organizations.

The norm for communication in professional settings was found to be defined by males and to be linked to assertion, independence, competitiveness, and confidence while collaboration, inclusivity, deference, and cooperation were linked to subordinate roles (Wood, 1994). Those traits were substantiated in other research as well (Brown & Gilligan, 1992; Gilligan, 1993).

Because men have historically dominated institutional life, masculine forms of communication are the standard in most work environments. Defining men and masculine patterns as normative leads to perceptions that women and feminine styles are not just different, but inferior. (Wood, 1994, p. 271)

Case (1990) conducted a study at a leading management school in regard to communication styles in higher education. The study involved looking at 34 different
language traits and found differences between men and women. In groups, men were twice as assertive as females and interrupted the women, as had been predicted. However, women were not less talkative or more supportive in their language, contrary to what had been predicted. The results revealed a masculine speech style and a feminine speech style. The researcher indicated that the different cultural histories of men and women accounted for their different communication styles, different skills, and different means of personal presentation.

Athletic Training and Women

The purpose of this final portion of the literature review is to provide information relative to the profession of athletic training. Included in this brief review is material related to the history, growth and development, and current status of this profession.

Athletic training originated in ancient Greece, one of the societies in which organized sports evolved; the “paidotribai” or “boy rubbers” and “aleiptes” or “anointers” were the athletic trainers in Athaneum society (Arnheim & Prentice, 1993; Ebel, 1999). Anderson (1991) reported that athletic training in America began in the 1900s when football was introduced as a collegiate competitive sport and parents, coaches and players voiced concerns regarding the treatment, or lack thereof, given to the injured athletes. Ebel (1999) and Anderson (1991) both noted that Harvard University hired the first collegiate athletic trainer in 1881.

In 1938, an initial attempt was made to form a national association for athletic trainers but the impact of World War II resulted in disbanding the organization in 1944 (Anderson, 1991; O'Shea, 1980). Another attempt was made in 1950 and approximately
200 men met in Kansas City to form the National Athletic Trainers’ Association (NATA) (Anderson, 1991; O’Shea, 1980; Randall, 1994). It wasn’t until the 1960s that the first woman joined the national association, with the second woman following one year later. The first certification examination for athletic training was administered in 1971 and, in 1972, the first woman sat for the test (Ebel, 1999).

Anderson (1991) chronicled the experiences of 13 women who practiced as athletic trainers in the 1960s and 1970s. She identified a number of obstacles they had to overcome. Few athletic training programs admitted women at that time, athletic training classes excluded women because the location of instruction was held in the locker rooms, and women students had no supervision by qualified athletic trainers like men had in those days. By the mid-1980s, however, the first woman was elected to the Board of Directors of the NATA and in 1991 the first woman vice-president was elected.

The mid-1990s showed increased visibility of women in the NATA, as they reflected 44% of the membership and held 26% of the leadership positions on the Board, committees, and task forces (Ebel, 1999). The 1998 NATA demographics revealed that among the regular certified membership 43% were female, 54% of undergraduate student members were female, and 57% of the graduate student members were female (Ward, 1998).

A 1996 study was conducted by the NATA Women in Athletic Training Committee (1997). A review of the demographics of the female members of the NATA revealed that, of the 573 respondents, 16% worked at the secondary school level, 23% worked at the college/university level, and 24% worked at the clinic/industry/corporate
levels. Fifty-three percent of the women earned an average salary between $20,000 and $35,000. Additional findings revealed that 29% of the women and 50% of the men had salaries over $35,000.

Summary of the Literature Review

Perceptions of gender equity have been influenced by sociological and psychological factors identified throughout the literature and serve as barriers to women as they attempt to ascend the hierarchical chain of leadership. Socialization, sex-role stereotyping, career aspirations, advancement opportunities, mobility, and experience were the interpersonal factors identified as barriers to gender equity, while other barriers emanated from the organizational/structural factors of recruitment, hiring, and communication systems.

The use of demographic information has served to develop profiles of men and women in the labor market. Coupled with the study of their career pathways, gender differences experienced by women can be interpreted. In business, education, medicine, and athletics, obstacles have confronted women, obstacles which have led to fewer numbers of women in the upper echelon of administrative and/or leadership positions. Additionally, the profiles and career pathways of women were found to have differed from those of men.

Organizations were found to have internal or structural barriers which serve to limit access or prohibit women’s advancement into administration roles. Researchers recommended that recruitment and hiring policies and procedures need to be scrutinized to ensure that discriminatory factors are reduced or eliminated. Likewise, studies
indicated that promotion and tenure decisions in higher education need to be made
through systems designed to provide better balance between men and women.

Significant research is available regarding the study of gender equity among
women and men in disciplines of business, education, medicine, and athletics. However,
there is limited information relative to gender equity in the health care field of athletic
training.
CHAPTER III
RESEARCH DESIGN

The purpose of this study was to determine if gender and practice setting are related to certified athletic trainers' perceptions of gender equity. This study was used to examine the perceptions of gender equity, including barriers to professional advancement, as viewed by NATA-certified athletic trainers of both genders working in three different practice settings: the secondary school setting, the college/university setting, and the clinical/hospital setting. Additionally, demographic information was used to profile female and male athletic trainers working in the three practice settings. The following research questions were used to guide this study:

1. Do significant differences exist in the perceptions of certified athletic trainers according to gender and the dependent variables (socialization, career aspirations, advancement opportunities, dual careers, role conflict, administrative capabilities, mobility, experience, age, recruitment practice, hiring practices, and communication)?

2. Do significant differences exist in the perceptions of certified athletic trainers according to practice settings and the dependent variables (socialization, career aspirations, advancement opportunities, dual careers, role conflict, administrative capabilities, mobility, experience, age, recruitment practice, hiring practices, and communication)?
This chapter contains a description of the research design for this study. Included in the chapter are descriptions of the population and sample, the instruments, procedures used in data collection, and the data analysis.

Population and Sample

The population for the study consisted of certified athletic trainers who were members of the National Athletic Trainers' Association (NATA) in 1998 and were classified as "regular certified" according to the NATA office. Members were categorized by gender and by practice setting. Three practice settings were secondary school, college/university, and clinic/hospital. Data regarding gender and practice settings were supplied by Sandy Ward, Director of Membership at the NATA office. From those data, a stratified random sample was selected of 100 women and 100 men from each of the three practice settings. The stratified sample, therefore totaled 600, 300 women and 300 men.

Instruments

The initial instrument to be completed by the participants was a demographic questionnaire (Appendix A). The demographic questionnaire was a composite of information developed by Parker and Anderson (1980) and adapted by Wilson (1991) and modified only in this study to reflect the athletic trainer profile. Information requested included gender, practice setting, age, ethnicity, marital status, highest educational degree earned, number of years worked as a certified athletic trainer, salary, current position and employment status.
The second instrument to be completed by the certified athletic trainers was the “perception of gender equity” questionnaire (Appendix B). This questionnaire was utilized by Wilson (1991) to study perceptions regarding gender equity of athletic directors within the National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics. Permission was obtained during a telephone conversation with Wilson to use a slightly modified form of the questionnaire to reflect only the change in subjects using certified athletic trainers rather than athletic directors (personal communication, September 2, 1998).

The perceptions of gender equity survey requested subjects to rate each of the 75 items on the questionnaire utilizing a six-point Likert scale: 6 = strongly agree; 5 = agree; 4 = uncertain but tend to agree; 3 = uncertain but tend to disagree; 2 = disagree; and 1 = strongly disagree. The questionnaire was organized into two sections, interpersonal factors and organizational factors, which are consistent with the literature on barriers to advancement, as reported in Chapter II. There were nine scales under interpersonal factors with questions for each scale. Those scales were socialization, career aspirations, advancement opportunities, dual careers, role conflict, administrative capabilities, mobility, experience, and age. The section on organizational factors included questions for each of three scales: recruitment practices, hiring practices, and communication. Each of the 12 scales is described in the following paragraphs.

Socialization measured potential influential processes due to individuals, groups or cultural practices. There were eight items pertaining to socialization and the range of scores was from 8 to 48, with an average score of 28. Career aspirations measured the aspirations of the individual to be promoted within the institution or organization and the
importance of professional involvement. There were five items pertaining to career aspirations and the range of scores was from 5 to 30, with an average score of 17.5. Advancement opportunities measured the status of women within an institution, the status of their salaries comparable to men, knowledge of federal and state legislation regarding gender equity, and the necessity of a support group. There were 12 items pertaining to advancement opportunities and the range of scores was from 12 to 72, with an average score of 42.

Dual careers measured support women or men receive from their spouses, marriage as an asset, and the effect of children on a woman in a head athletic trainer position. There were three items pertaining to dual careers and the range of scores was from 3 to 18, with an average score of 10.5. Role conflict measured the potential restrictions placed on women due to their family responsibilities and gender differences relative to positions. There were four items pertaining to role conflict and the range of scores was from 4 to 24, with an average score of 14. Administrative capabilities measured the knowledge base of federal and state laws relative to gender equity and leadership skills. There were 10 items and the range of scores was from 10 to 60, with an average score of 35.

Mobility measured the ability of women to ascend the hierarchical ladder. There were two items pertaining to mobility and the range of scores was from 2 to 12, with an average score of 7. Experience measured professional and educational experience. There were seven items pertaining to experience and the range of scores was 7 to 42, with an average score of 24.5. Age measured whether one attained a job or not. There was one
Recruitment practices measured the influence of an institution's policies and procedures regarding affirmative action, the role of mentoring, and recruitment practices within an institution or organization. There were six items measuring recruitment practices and the range of scores was 6 to 36, with an average score of 21. Hiring practices measured an institution's or organization's hiring policies and procedures relative to men and women. There were seven items pertaining to hiring practices and the range of scores was 7 to 42, with an average score of 24.5. Communication measured the ways in which men and women communicate with each other and their respective staffs and in developing a support communication system. There were nine items pertaining to communication and the range of scores was from 9 to 54, with an average score of 31.5.

A telephone conversation with Wilson revealed that the validity of her instrument was based on the study by Parker and Anderson (1980) in which the instruments were prepared and piloted by vocational directors and educators certified for vocational education administration (Wilson, personal communication, September 2, 1998). Data obtained from the returned surveys were summarized and compared with the data found in the literature and a model was devised. Therefore, content validity was established in the original design of Parker and Anderson and supported by Wilson's study (1991).
Data Collection

The proposal for this study was approved by the researcher’s advisory committee and by the University of North Dakota Institutional Review Board. A packet of information containing a cover letter (see Appendix C), the demographic survey, and the perceptions of gender equity survey was mailed to each subject in September of 1998. The cover letter was used to describe the purpose of the study and to specify the desired date by which to return the surveys. The subjects were advised in the cover letter that their participation was completely voluntary and that they were not required to respond to questions which they considered to be inappropriate. A pre-addressed stamped envelope was included in the packet.

A code number was placed on each envelope and instrument so that the code numbers could be compared with a master list of subjects when each completed survey instrument was returned. The coding was intended to support follow-up activities relative to non-respondents. However, it was determined that the size of the sample and return rate from the initial mailing did not require a follow-up mailing. The master list was destroyed after the study was completed. All returned surveys will be kept in a sealed box in the Educational Leadership Department at the University of North Dakota for three years following completion of the study. Three years after completion, all contents will be shredded and discarded.

Analysis of Data

To accomplish the purpose of the study, a 2 (gender) x 3 (practice settings) Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was utilized to test the main effects and interactions of
the two dependent variables (gender and practice setting) with the independent variables (socialization, career aspirations, advancement opportunities, dual careers, role conflict, administrative capabilities, mobility, experience, age, recruitment practices, hiring practices, and communication). The Statistical Package for the Social Services (SPSS, version 8.0) was used for analysis.

Twelve scales were created and reliability was established through item analysis to determine coefficient alpha of each scale (see Table 1). The scales were socialization, career aspirations, advancement opportunities, dual careers, role conflict, administrative capabilities, mobility, experience, age, recruitment practices, hiring practices, and communication. Reliability analysis was performed on the 12 scales which resulted in 6 scales having questionable items. Those scales were career aspirations, dual careers, role conflict, administrative capabilities, recruitment practices, and communication.

To eliminate the questionable items from the scales, reliability analysis was repeated and the result was the elimination of two items from each of the following scales: administrative capabilities, recruitment practices, and communication. One item was eliminated from each of three scales: role conflict, dual career, and career aspirations. All items in the scales of socialization, advancement opportunities, mobility, experience, and hiring practices were found to be reliable. Only statistically significant findings at a level less than or equal to .05 were reported.

The cross-tabulation/Chi-square analysis was used with the demographic information provided by the certified athletic trainers. The cross-tabulation/Chi Square analysis was performed using the following independent variables: age, ethnicity, marital
Table 1

Reliability Analysis on Scales of the 12 Dependent Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Reliability</th>
<th>Revised</th>
<th>Final Number Of Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Socialization</td>
<td>.6929</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Aspirations</td>
<td>.2201</td>
<td>.3367</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advancement Opportunities</td>
<td>.8603</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dual Careers</td>
<td>.2303</td>
<td>.2751</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role Conflict</td>
<td>.4749</td>
<td>.5409</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative Capabilities</td>
<td>.6882</td>
<td>.7615</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobility</td>
<td>.5464</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>.8735</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recruitment Practices</td>
<td>-.0108</td>
<td>.5536</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hiring Practices</td>
<td>.8402</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>.6335</td>
<td>.7439</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Career Aspirations: eliminated item 1
Dual Careers: eliminated item 2
Role Conflict: eliminated item 4
Administrative Capabilities: eliminated items 1 & 10
Recruiting Practices: eliminated items 1 & 4
Communication: eliminated items 6 & 9
status, education level, number of years as a certified athletic trainer, salary, and position held. The demographic data were analyzed in order to profile and draw comparisons of female and male certified athletic trainers working in the three different practice settings. The results of the data analyses are presented in Chapter IV.
CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to determine if gender and practice setting are related to certified athletic trainers' perceptions of gender equity, specifically as it pertains to barriers to professional advancement and to the dominance of the male voice. This study examined the perceptions of male and female NATA-certified athletic trainers working in three different practice settings: the secondary school setting, the college/university setting, and the clinical/hospital setting. Additionally, demographic information was used to profile female and male athletic trainers working in the three practice settings.

The following research questions guided this study and were addressed:

1. Do significant differences exist in the perceptions of certified athletic trainers according to gender and the dependent variables (socialization, career aspirations, advancement opportunities, dual careers, role conflict, administrative capabilities, mobility, experience, age, recruitment practice, hiring practices, and communication)?

2. Do significant differences exist in the perceptions of certified athletic trainers according to practice settings and the dependent variables (socialization, career aspirations, advancement opportunities, dual careers, role conflict, administrative capabilities, mobility, experience, age, recruitment practice, hiring practices, and communication)?
Data were gathered by means of a demographic questionnaire and a "perceptions of gender equity" questionnaire. A profile of the respondents is presented first in this chapter followed by the findings relative to the research questions. A summary of the results is located at the end of the chapter.

Profile of the Respondents

Participants in the study were 600 male and female certified athletic trainers who were members of NATA and were working in the secondary, college/university, and clinic/hospital settings within the United States. The overall response rate was 283 of 600 surveys (47%). As noted in Table 2, 151 (53%) of the respondents were women and 132 (47%) were men. All returned surveys were determined to be useable.

Also noted in Table 2, the proportion of respondents varied among the three practice settings. The college/university produced 120 respondents, 42.4% of the total, while 87 respondents (30.7%) were in the clinic/hospital settings. The secondary school setting produced the lowest response rate among the three settings, with 76 respondents (26.9%) of the total. While females responded in greater proportion than males, females represented a greater proportion of the respondents only from the secondary setting and not from the other two settings.

As shown in Table 3, 277 respondents provided information about the age category to which they belonged. While just over half (57.6%) of the respondents were in the age groups 25-29 and 30-34, women were more likely to fall within those ages than were men. While no women respondents were older than 54, six men (4.7%) fell within such age categories. Women were represented in larger proportions in all age categories.
below age 40 while men were represented in larger proportion in all age categories 40 and above.

Table 2

Respondents by Gender and Practice Setting

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Secondary Setting (n) (%)</th>
<th>College/University Setting (n) (%)</th>
<th>Clinic/Hospital Setting (n) (%)</th>
<th>Total (n) (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>46 30.5</td>
<td>62 41.1</td>
<td>43 28.5</td>
<td>151 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>30 22.7</td>
<td>58 43.9</td>
<td>44 33.3</td>
<td>132 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>76 26.9</td>
<td>120 42.4</td>
<td>87 30.7</td>
<td>283 100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An analysis of respondents by ethnic origin revealed that about 94% of both male and female respondents were Caucasian (see Table 4). The remaining male respondents were represented somewhat evenly across African-American, Hispanic, Asian, and other categories. Non-Caucasian females were represented disproportionately higher in the Hispanic ethnic group than the other categories.

Table 5 contains the data regarding marital status of respondents in this study. While 55% of the female athletic trainers reported being single, only 19% of the males reported in this category. On the other hand, 77% of the male respondents were married and 40% of women were married. The response of divorced was selected by six women (3.9%) and by four men (3.1%).
Table 3
Respondents by Gender and Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Female (n)</th>
<th>Female (%)</th>
<th>Male (n)</th>
<th>Male (%)</th>
<th>Totals (n)</th>
<th>Totals (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20-24</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-34</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>24.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-39</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-44</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>14.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-49</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>20.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-54</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-49</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60-above</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An analysis of educational degrees achieved by the respondent athletic trainers revealed that the majority held masters degrees (see Table 6). Women were more likely to hold a bachelor's degree (28.3% compared to 18.9% for men) while men were more likely to have earned a doctorate (7.6% compared to 3.9% for women).

As illustrated in Table 7, over half of the respondents had 10 or fewer years of experience as athletic trainers. While the proportion of respondents in the experience
Table 4

Respondents by Gender and Ethnic Origin

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnic Origin</th>
<th>Female (n)</th>
<th>Female (%)</th>
<th>Male (n)</th>
<th>Male (%)</th>
<th>Total (n)</th>
<th>Total (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>94.0</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>94.7</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>94.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African American</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

groups of 1-5 and 6-10 years were nearly identical (27.8% in 1-5 and 27.5% in 6-10), females were disproportionately represented in the group with 6-10 years of experience.

In that category were 36.8% of female respondents compared to 16.7% of the males. The proportions of males and females in the experience categories of 11-15 and 16-20 were very similar. Nearly 20% of the men had more than 20 years of experience while less than 3% of the females had that same level of experience.

Respondents were asked to indicate their salaries by selecting from 10 categories. Salary categories were broken down according to $5,000 increments, as shown in Table 8. One quarter (25.8%) of the female respondents indicated salaries of less than $28,000 compared to 16.1% of males. At the other end of the scale, over one quarter of men
Table 5

Respondents by Gender and Marital Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>Female (n)</th>
<th>Female (%)</th>
<th>Male (n)</th>
<th>Male (%)</th>
<th>Total (n)</th>
<th>Total (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>55.3</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>38.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>40.1</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>77.1</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>57.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separated</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(27.5%) had salaries at or in excess of $53,000 while only 9.6% of women had salaries that high.

The data showing the types of positions held by the certified athletic trainers who responded to this study are shown in Table 9. One third of the women (33.8%) held the title of Head Athletic Trainer while over half of the men (55.3%) held this status. While women represented 53% of the respondents, they represented only 41% of the individuals with that title. Women were more likely to hold the titles of Associate Athletic Trainer and of Assistant Athletic Trainer. While 35 men reported having a different ("Other") title, 53 women reported that status.
Table 6

Educational Degree Achieved by Respondent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational Degree</th>
<th>Female (n)</th>
<th>Female (%)</th>
<th>Male (n)</th>
<th>Male (%)</th>
<th>Total (n)</th>
<th>Total (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bachelors</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>28.3</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>23.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>66.4</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>72.0</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>69.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 10, 90% of the respondents reported that they were employed on a full-time basis. It should be noted, that the proportion of females in part-time employment was 13.2% while the proportion of males with that employment status was 5.3%.

Findings for the Research Questions

Research Question 1

The first research question was focused on whether significant differences existed between the perceptions of athletic trainers, according to gender, and the dependent variables of socialization, career aspirations, advancement opportunities, dual careers,
Table 7
Respondents by Gender and Years of Experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years of Experience</th>
<th>Gender (n)</th>
<th>Gender (%)</th>
<th>Male (n)</th>
<th>Male (%)</th>
<th>Total (n)</th>
<th>Total (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-11 months</td>
<td>0 0.0</td>
<td>0 0.0</td>
<td>0 0.0</td>
<td>0 0.0</td>
<td>0 0.0</td>
<td>0 0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5 years</td>
<td>42 27.6</td>
<td>37 28.0</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>79 27.8</td>
<td>79 27.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 years</td>
<td>56 36.8</td>
<td>22 16.7</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>78 27.5</td>
<td>78 27.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 years</td>
<td>31 20.4</td>
<td>29 22.0</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>60 21.1</td>
<td>60 21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20 years</td>
<td>19 12.5</td>
<td>18 13.6</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>37 13.0</td>
<td>37 13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>above 20 years</td>
<td>4 2.6</td>
<td>26 19.7</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>30 10.6</td>
<td>30 10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>152 100.0</td>
<td>132 100.0</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>284 100.0</td>
<td>284 100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

role conflict, administrative capabilities, mobility, experience, age, recruitment practices, hiring practices, and communication. As shown in Table 11, significant differences were found between the perceptions of male athletic trainers and female athletic trainers in 11 of the 12 dependent variables, with females scoring higher at the .05 level. Women thus were more likely to have perceived 11 of 12 of the dependent variables to be barriers in the workforce. Those variables were socialization, advancement opportunities, dual careers, role conflict, administrative capabilities, mobility, experience, age, recruitment practices, hiring practices, and communication. Career aspirations was the one variable not perceived to be a barrier by female respondents.
Table 8
Respondents by Gender and Salary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Salary</th>
<th>Female (n)</th>
<th>(%)</th>
<th>Male (n)</th>
<th>(%)</th>
<th>Total (n)</th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>less than $17,999</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$18,000-$22,999</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>10.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$23,000-$27,999</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$28,000-$32,999</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>18.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$33,000-$37,999</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>16.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$38,000-$42,999</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$43,000-$47,999</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>10.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$48,000-$52,999</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$53,000-$57,999</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$58,000 and above</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The mean scores of both female (25.24) and male (22.19) respondents were below the average (28.00) on the scale in responding to items regarding socialization. Women thus tended to be somewhat uncertain about the impact of socialization factors within the workplace while men tended to disagree more with the statements in the survey instrument.
Table 9

Respondents by Gender and Current Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Current Position</th>
<th>Female (n)</th>
<th>Female (%)</th>
<th>Male (n)</th>
<th>Male (%)</th>
<th>Total (n)</th>
<th>Total (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Head Athletic Trainer</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>33.8</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>55.3</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>43.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate Athletic Trainer</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Athletic Trainer</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>17.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>31.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In regard to career aspirations, the mean score for women (16.48) indicated that they were more likely to be in agreement with the statements provided. Men, on the other hand, with a mean score of 15.90, were somewhat uncertain about gender issues in relation to career aspirations. The average score on the scale for career aspirations was 14.00.

The average score on the scale for advancement opportunities was 42, with 12 items on the instrument for that scale. The mean score for female respondents (46.60) was above the average score while the mean score for males (36.31) fell below that average. This indicates that females perceived advancement opportunities, or absence thereof, to be a barrier for women while males did not have such negative perceptions.
The mean scores in regard to dual careers also showed female perceptions of that factor as a barrier and male perceptions indicating the opposite view. The average score for that scale was 7.00; women had a mean score of 8.13 and men had a mean score of 6.73.

Table 10

Respondents by Gender and Employment Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employment Status</th>
<th>Female (n)</th>
<th>Female (%)</th>
<th>Male (n)</th>
<th>Male (%)</th>
<th>Total (n)</th>
<th>Total (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Full-time</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>86.8</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>94.7</td>
<td>256</td>
<td>90.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part-Time</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The scale of role conflict reflected results similar to those for dual careers. In comparison to an average score of 10.50 on that scale, female respondents had a mean score of 11.48 and males had a mean score of 9.25.

Both men and women tended to disagree with the statements regarding administrative capabilities as barriers in employment. While the average score for the scale was 28.00, the mean scores were 24.49 for women and 21.22 for men. Though both were less than the average the difference was significant, as men were more likely to disagree with the statements on the instrument.
Table 11
Means, F-Values and Probability Levels for the 12 Scales Comparing Females and Males

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scales</th>
<th>Mean Scores</th>
<th>Average Scores</th>
<th>F ratio</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Females</td>
<td>Males</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socialization</td>
<td>25.24</td>
<td>22.19</td>
<td>28.00</td>
<td>18.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Aspirations</td>
<td>16.48</td>
<td>15.90</td>
<td>14.00</td>
<td>3.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advancement Opportunities</td>
<td>46.60</td>
<td>36.31</td>
<td>42.00</td>
<td>88.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dual Careers</td>
<td>8.13</td>
<td>6.73</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>20.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role Conflict</td>
<td>11.48</td>
<td>9.25</td>
<td>10.50</td>
<td>37.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative Capabilities</td>
<td>24.49</td>
<td>21.22</td>
<td>28.00</td>
<td>20.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobility</td>
<td>6.58</td>
<td>5.56</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>18.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>24.62</td>
<td>19.36</td>
<td>24.50</td>
<td>48.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>33.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recruitment Practices</td>
<td>13.03</td>
<td>10.39</td>
<td>14.00</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hiring Practices</td>
<td>23.01</td>
<td>18.64</td>
<td>24.50</td>
<td>37.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>21.51</td>
<td>18.52</td>
<td>24.50</td>
<td>18.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The scale for mobility had similar results to that for administrative capabilities in that both men and women had mean scores below the average score for the scale. The average score was 7.00; men had a mean score of 5.56 and women had a mean score of 6.58. Again, even though both groups tended to have less agreement with the statements,
the difference was significant. Men were more likely to disagree with the statements while women were more likely to indicate uncertainty.

A significant difference was found also between the perceptions of female respondents and those of males in regard to experience as a barrier to advancement in employment for athletic trainers. While the scale average was 24.5, the mean score for women was 24.62 and the mean for men was 19.36.

Age was another scale for which women tended to agree with statements about age as a barrier while men tended to disagree with such statements. The mean score for women was 3.70 and for men was 2.83 while the average score for the scale was 3.50.

In regard to recruitment practices, both women and men tended not to agree with the statements provided on the instrument. In comparison with an average score on this scale of 14.00, the mean score for women was 13.03 and that for men was 10.39. Men were thus more likely to indicate disagreement with the statements on recruitment practices as a barrier while women’s responses tended to indicate uncertainty.

The average score for the scales of both hiring practices and communication was 24.5. In both instances, the responses of female athletic trainers indicated less disagreement with the statements than did the responses of male athletic trainers. The mean score for women was 23.01 while that for men was 18.64 on hiring practices. For communication, the female respondents had a mean score of 21.51 and the males had a mean score of 18.52.
Researchers Question 2

The second research question was designed to guide the study in determining whether there were significant differences in the perceptions of athletic trainers according to practice settings. Again, the comparisons were made on each of the 12 dependent variables of socialization, career aspirations, advancement opportunities, dual careers, role conflict, administrative capabilities, mobility, experience, age, recruitment practices, hiring practices, and communication. As shown in Table 12, there were no significant differences between practice setting and the dependent variables.

Summary of the Findings

Demographic factors revealed that a typical female athletic trainer was between the ages of 25 and 34, Caucasian, and single; possessed a master's degree; had between 1 and 10 years of experience; could be found working in a collegiate setting; and was earning between $23,000 and $42,999 each year. The profile of the male athletic trainer revealed he is between the ages of 25 and 44 years old, Caucasian, and married; possessed a master's degree; had between 1 and 15 years of experience; could be found working in the collegiate setting; and was earning between $28,000 to above $58,000. The male athletic trainers thus tended to be older and more experienced than the females, more likely to be married, and likely to be receiving a higher income.

There were significant differences between females and males on 11 of the 12 dependent variables (socialization, advancement opportunities, dual careers, role conflict, administrative capabilities, mobility, experience, age, recruitment practices, hiring practices, and communication).
Table 12

Means, $F$ Values, And Probability Levels For The 12 Scales Comparing Practice Settings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scales</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>College/University</th>
<th>Clinic/Hospital</th>
<th>$F$ ratio</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Socialization</td>
<td>22.71</td>
<td>24.39</td>
<td>23.94</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>.053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Aspirations</td>
<td>16.40</td>
<td>15.88</td>
<td>16.49</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>.177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advancement Opportunities</td>
<td>41.82</td>
<td>41.96</td>
<td>41.42</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.590</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dual Careers</td>
<td>7.97</td>
<td>7.25</td>
<td>7.35</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>.165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role Conflict</td>
<td>10.27</td>
<td>10.73</td>
<td>10.17</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>.324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative Capabilities</td>
<td>22.44</td>
<td>23.91</td>
<td>22.22</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>.066</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobility</td>
<td>6.04</td>
<td>6.24</td>
<td>5.96</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>.520</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>22.06</td>
<td>22.94</td>
<td>21.18</td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td>.151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>.131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recruitment Practices</td>
<td>11.14</td>
<td>12.03</td>
<td>12.01</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>.061</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>20.06</td>
<td>20.68</td>
<td>19.37</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>.266</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There were no significant differences among the three practice settings on the 12 dependent variables (socialization, career aspirations, advancement opportunities, dual
careers, role conflict, administrative capabilities, mobility, experience, age, recruitment practices, hiring practices, and communication).
CHAPTER V
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND COMMENTARY

This chapter comprises four sections, which provide an overview of the study. The first section contains a summary of the purpose of the study, research design, and key findings. Conclusions and recommendations are presented in two separate parts of the chapter. The final section contains a commentary by the researcher.

Summary

The last quarter of the 20th Century was a period of rapid expansion of opportunities for girls and women to compete in athletics. Supported by Title IX, unprecedented numbers and proportions of females became active participants in sports programs. With such growth in numbers of both participants and programs, women also found opportunities for employment as coaches, athletic trainers, and administrators. However, such professions continue to be dominated by men, particularly in leadership positions. This is true of athletic training; while membership in the National Athletic Trainers’ Association (NATA) has become almost evenly divided between males and females, females represent a smaller proportion of individuals who serve as head athletic trainers.

The purpose of this study was to identify the perceptions of certified athletic trainers regarding gender equity and barriers to advancement to leadership positions and
to determine if differences existed between the perceptions of females and those of males. In addition, the study was designed to determine if perceptions varied among certified athletic trainers employed in three different practice settings: secondary schools, colleges or universities, and clinic/hospital settings. The work of Carol Gilligan was selected as the theory base for this study. A determination that the perceptions of male and female athletic trainers did vary would support the theory of Gilligan that there are distinct voices associated with men and with women and that the male voice is dominant in American society. A review of literature identified a number of factors that constituted barriers, real or perceived, for women as they sought to advance within a variety of work settings. Those barriers then were established as the dependent variables for this study. Two research questions were developed to guide the study:

1. Do significant differences exist in the perceptions of certified athletic trainers according to gender and the dependent variables (socialization, career aspirations, advancement opportunities, dual careers, role conflict, administrative capabilities, mobility, experience, age, recruitment practice, hiring practices, and communication)?

2. Do significant differences exist in the perceptions of certified athletic trainers according to practice settings and the dependent variables (socialization, career aspirations, advancement opportunities, dual careers, role conflict, administrative capabilities, mobility, experience, age, recruitment practice, hiring practices, and communication)?

Copies of a demographic questionnaire and a “perceptions of gender equity” questionnaire were sent to 300 women and 300 men who were certified athletic trainers,
were members of the NATA, and were employed in a secondary school setting, a college/university setting, or a clinic/hospital setting. The demographic questionnaire was designed to help profile the certified athletic trainer, while the “perceptions of gender equity” questionnaire contained items to determine perceptions of both interpersonal factors (socialization, career aspirations, advancement opportunities, dual careers, role conflict, administrative capabilities, mobility, experience, and age) and organizational factors (recruitment practices, hiring practices, and communication) that were associated with barriers to advancement as leaders within organizations. Participants were asked to rate each item on the “perceptions of gender equity” questionnaire using a six-point Likert-type scale with the values ranging from “1” (strongly disagree) to “6” (strongly agree). The demographic questionnaire contained items regarding gender, practice setting, age, ethnic origin, marital status, highest educational degree earned, number of years experience, salary, title of position, and employment status.

Surveys were returned by a total of 283 of 600 subjects for a response rate of 47%. Responses were received from 151 of 300 women and 132 of 300 men. The demographic data were used to develop a profile of the female athletic trainer and revealed that she was between the ages of 25 and 34, Caucasian, and single; possessed a masters degree; had between 1 and 10 years of experience; could be found working in the collegiate setting; and was earning between $23,000 and $42,999 each year. The profile of the male athletic trainer revealed that he was between the ages of 25 and 44 years old, Caucasian, and married; possessed a masters degree; had between 1 and 15 years of experience; could be found working in the collegiate setting; and was earning from
$28,000 to more than $58,000. The male athletic trainers, thus, tended to be older and more experienced than the females, more likely to be married and likely to be earning a higher income. While both male and female trainers were more likely to be employed in the college/university setting, a greater proportion of women respondents worked in secondary school settings than men while men were more likely to be working in the clinic/hospital setting.

Significant differences were found between gender and 11 of the 12 dependent variables (socialization, advancement opportunities, dual careers, role conflict, administrative capabilities, mobility, experience, age, recruitment practices, hiring practices, and communication). Women scored higher on those questions than men, a finding that revealed different perceptions relative to gender equity between female and male athletic trainers. Female respondents were thus more likely to perceive gender-related barriers to advancement in the workplace than were the males. This finding paralleled that of Wilson’s study (1991), the model for this study, in which gender was found to have had the strongest relationship to the athletic directors’ perceptions. Career aspirations was the only dependent variable for which a significant difference was not found between the perceptions of men and women.

There were no significant interactions between practice setting and the 12 dependent variables (socialization, career aspirations, advancement opportunities, dual careers, role conflict, administrative capabilities, mobility, experience, age, recruitment practices, hiring practices, and communication). This was also similar to Wilson’s study.
(1991) in which she compared the size of the institution with the same dependent variables and found no significant differences.

Conclusions

1. Issues of gender equity and barriers to advancement in athletic training parallel those in other professions and work settings. The profiles and perceptions of male and female athletic trainers found in this study support Gilligan's work (1993). She postulated that theorists historically have portrayed the male model as the norm and the experiences of the boys and men were assumed to be the same for girls and women. Her work with adolescent boys and girls and adult men and women led her to find differences between the sexes. Those differences related to girls and women's conceptions of self and morality and helped frame one's identity. "Women bring to the life cycle a different point of view and order human experience in terms of different priorities" (Gilligan, 1993, p. 22). The male athletic trainers were older and more experienced than the females, more likely to be married, and likely to be earning a higher income.

2. Female athletic trainers perceive barriers in their work environments and within the National Athletic Trainers' Association that men do not. The perceived barriers were found in 11 of the 12 dependent variables (socialization, advancement opportunities, dual careers, role conflict, administrative capabilities, mobility, experience, age, recruitment practices, hiring practices, and communication). Career aspirations was the one variable not perceived to be a barrier by female respondents. These perceptions of barriers to advancement are similar to those reported in Chapter II from studies of women in a variety of settings and thus lend support to this growing body of literature.
The different perceptions reported by men and women regarding barriers in the work environment are supportive of Gilligan’s research (Brown & Gilligan, 1992; Gilligan, 1993). While listening to the comments of girls and women and boys and men relative to real-life moral conflicts, she discovered an ethic of care voice and an ethic of justice voice. The distinction between care and justice orientations pertains to the ways in which moral problems are conceived and are reflective of human relationships. The ethic of care voice, which is strongly dependent on relationships and the connectedness of those in a moral quandary was found to be more characteristic of women while the ethic of justice voice spoke of rules and laws and was associated with men.

The different perceptions of male and female athletic trainers in this study reflect perceptions in terms of rights and in terms of relationships with others. “Moral language carries the force of institutionalized social norms and cultural values into relationships and psychic life” (Brown & Gilligan , 1992, p. 21). In other words, the distinctions found in this study mirror societal differences identified in numerous other studies by Gilligan and others that were reported in Chapter II.

3. The practice setting of athletic trainers does not affect their perceptions of gender equity and barriers to advancement relative to practice settings. Since there were no significant differences between the setting in which one worked and the dependent variables, the findings again support the literature and the theory base which suggest that males and females perceive the world of work in different ways and that females encounter barriers to advancement more often than do men. This difference of gender is
4. Female athletic trainers are likely to have less experience and to be paid less than men in the athletic training profession. The demographic information is important in profiling the athletic trainer in all practice settings. Even though both women and men were more likely to possess a masters degree and to be employed similarly in the college/university setting, women earned less.

Recommendations

Recommendations for Practice

1. Leaders of a variety of organizations, including educational institutions, should study their settings to determine if barriers to advancement exist for women and minorities. This study lent support to a variety of other studies which identified real and/or perceived barriers in a number of different settings. These barriers were found to exist as either interpersonal and/or organizational barriers that impede women’s opportunities to become involved in leadership positions. It is incumbent upon organizational leaders to identify and eliminate or limit such barriers where they are found to exist. Employment or membership data of the employing institutions or professional organizations should be analyzed relative to the number and proportion of women and men who are in the key leadership positions.

2. Education of administrators and employees regarding cultural stereotypes, sexism, the “glass ceiling,” and other gender equity issues related to barriers needs to occur at all levels of employment and within all professional organizations. Committees
should be established in both the employment arena and in professional associations to study issues relative to gender equity, to provide a better balance of opportunity, and to identify and seek to overcome the barriers that do exist.

3 Administrators of institutions and organizations can intensify the efforts of recruitment and hiring of women and minorities into their organizations. There should be aggressive efforts made to address retention and promotion of women and minorities within the institution or organization. Conscious efforts to neutralize existing barriers and other artifacts of inequity based on gender need to be made throughout society. Leaders should address the issues of inclusion in terms of appointments to key committees and decision-making bodies. Leadership training seminars and workshops on gender equity may be needed to support such efforts.

Recommendations for Further Study

1. A similar study should be made of the head athletic trainers in the college/university setting within the National Collegiate Athletic Association and the National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics. This would provide a more accurate reflection of the number of women and men in head athletic trainer positions in the college/university setting. Since that was the dominant setting of respondents, a study in that setting would identify the degree to which the profiles differ of those in the prominent leadership positions in the profession. Such a study would identify also the perceptions of leaders within this profession and the degree to which such perceptions differed according to gender.
2. If this study is replicated, the demographic questionnaire should be revised to include more categories for the type of position held. The clinic/hospital setting in particular has more diverse titles and wider variety of positions for the athletic trainers. The current demographic questionnaire did not allow for adequate reporting of such variety.

Commentary

As mentioned previously, athletic training is a healthcare profession that includes many different practice settings in which one can be employed. Additionally, the national association is a large organization run by its members with many committees and task forces. Likewise, there are state and district athletic training organizations that have similar structures. However, despite a wide array of opportunities, the number of women present in key leadership positions is clearly limited in comparison to the number of men in those positions. This can be attributed, in part, to the barriers confronted by women and minorities. Barriers are not unique to athletic training and it is well documented in the literature that they exist in education, business, medicine, and athletics.

The literature revealed a myriad of barriers both visible and invisible that impede women in their hierarchical ascension in the employment and professional arenas. Those who are in the leadership positions currently need first, to recognize that barriers do exist and second, to identify those barriers within their specific institutions or organizations. The third step is to break down those barriers and find ways to empower and include...
more women and minorities. Finally, efforts must be made to promote and foster involvement rather than permit continued impact of the “glass ceiling.”

Brown and Gilligan (1992) alluded in their research to the male-centered culture and male-governed society that creates internal and external barriers which inhibit girls to have a voice in relationships and to be self-confident. By listening to women and girls and allowing their “voices” to be heard, the cultural framework of society can then be changed.

Efforts must be made to increase the number of women in leadership positions by identifying worthy candidates and to develop leadership programs that prepare qualified women for those positions. In educational institutions, mentoring programs can be initiated with students as well as with junior faculty. In professional organizations, leadership mentoring programs can be initiated at the state, district, and national levels.

These efforts correspond to the research done by Gilligan, Langdale, and Lyons (1982) as they identified that responsibility in relationships occurs differently in men and women and is not solely a result of obligation or duty; rather, it is due to a caring morality. This also corroborates Gilligan’s original hypothesis that, if only males are researched, the only predominant voice of morality would be their voice; but, studying females allows for another voice to be heard and to be understood.

Networking with other professionals inside and outside of the institution and organization is paramount for advancement into leadership positions. Women need to establish networking systems that involve not just family and work support but other professionals. Involvement in professional organizations is crucial to networking as this
offers opportunities to bond with those with similar positions, concerns, and situations. Networking assists in developing job sharing information, enhances professional growth opportunities, and provides new strategies to use on the job.

Gilligan's research (Brown & Gilligan, 1992; Gilligan, 1993; Gilligan, et al., 1982; Gilligan, Lyons, & Hanmer, 1990) provides frameworks to assess appropriateness of programs and practices to foster responsiveness in relationships and for understanding differences in the ways men and women think about morality in real-life dilemmas. Women's ability to ask questions about voice and relationships, to be present and interact with other women, is essential. "Small voices" give way to "stronger voices" and was evident in Gilligan's research.

The profile of the female athletic trainers as being younger and less experienced than males was not surprising to discover, nor was the fact males were more likely to be married and earning a higher income. The National Athletic Trainers' Association was formed approximately 50 years ago but women were not allowed entrance into the profession until the mid 1970s. It wasn't until Title IX was enacted in 1972, and more importantly when the Restoration Act several years later put more teeth into Title IX, that women were given more opportunities to participate in sports. This increase in the number of sports programs gave way to additional employment opportunities as coaches, administrators, and athletic trainers for women.

As Acosta and Carpenter (1998) found, women are not as visible in the key leadership positions in athletic programs. Men have assumed those positions and, in part because most athletic directors are men, they have a tendency to hire people much like
themselves. Similar hiring patterns are prevalent in athletic training, particularly in those programs where football is present. There are more men in the head athletic trainer positions than women and the reasons are varied. Men would rather have the same gender in the leadership positions as their management styles would be more likely to parallel one another. Also, the glass ceiling is prevalent within many organizations and institutions thus limiting opportunities for women.

This study has provided an overview of barriers that impeded women in the workforce as they attempt to ascend the hierarchical ladder. Athletic training is a profession that is not unique compared to other professions that were described in the literature in Chapter II. In this regard, then, athletic training may be seen as a microcosm of society, the society that Gilligan described as dominated by the male voice. Barriers are present. Those barriers are perceived or recognized by female athletic trainers more often than by males and are not distinct in relation to the setting in which an athletic trainer practices. This provides further evidence of the pervasive nature of such barriers. What is disheartening is that the same barriers were present 20 years ago or more and significant strides have yet to be made. Ten years ago the barriers perceived by women athletic directors were considered by them to be significant whereas the male athletic directors did not share the same view (Wilson, 1991). Anderson's research (1991) on the first women in athletic training identified the obstacles faced by women in the early to mid-1970s. Not much has changed, as the same barriers perceived 20 years ago in a variety of professions and settings still exist today and men and women still speak in their separate voices.
APPENDIX A

NATA CERTIFIED ATHLETIC TRAINERS – DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions: Please complete the blanks except on items which a check mark is needed.

Name of Practice Setting: ________________________________

Classified Variables: Please check.

1. Gender: (1) Female _____
   (2) Male _____

2. Practice Setting:
   (1) Secondary _____
   (2) College/University _____
   (3) Clinical/Hospital _____

Personal Data:

3. Age: _____

4. Ethnic Origin:
   (1) White _____
   (2) African American _____
   (3) Hispanic _____
   (4) Asian _____
   (5) Other (specify) _____

5. Marital Status:
   (1) Single _____
   (2) Married _____
   (3) Separated _____
   (4) Divorced _____
   (5) Widowed _____

Educational Data:

6. Highest educational degree earned:
   (1) Bachelors _____
   (2) Masters _____
   (3) Doctorate _____
   (4) Other ________
Work Experience:

7. Number of years working as an NATA Certified Athletic Trainer:
   (1) 0-11 months
   (2) 1-5 years
   (3) 6-10 years
   (4) 11-15 years
   (5) 16-20 years
   (6) more than 20 years

8. Salary for the 1998-99 academic year or business fiscal year (before taxes):
   (1) less than $17,999
   (2) $18,000-22,999
   (3) $23,000-27,999
   (4) $28,000-32,999
   (5) $33,000-37,999
   (6) $38,000-$42,999
   (7) $43,000-$47,999
   (8) $48,000-$52,999
   (9) $53,000-$57,999
   (10) $58,000 or higher

9. Which best describes your current position?
   (1) Head Athletic Trainer
   (2) Associate Athletic Trainer
   (3) Assistant Athletic Trainer
   (4) Other (please specify)

10. Your employment status is:
    (1) Full-time
    (2) Part-time and my FTE is %
PERCEPTIONS OF GENDER EQUITY QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions for responding: Circle your response at the end of each statement. Base your response on your perception of gender equity in athletic training. Please complete front and back of this questionnaire.

The response scale is: 6 = Strongly agree
5 = Agree
4 = Uncertain but tend to agree
3 = Uncertain but tend to disagree
2 = Disagree
1 = Strongly disagree

I. Interpersonal Factors

A. Socialization

1. This NATA district's attitude and traditions make it more difficult for women than men to get head athletic trainer positions ........................................6 5 4 3 2 1

2. Female athletic trainers prefer working for male athletic trainers ........................................6 5 4 3 2 1

3. Parents of student-athletic trainers prefer female rather than male athletic trainers ........................................6 5 4 3 2 1

4. Women athletic trainers in the profession get criticism that relates to being female rather than to performing a job ........................................6 5 4 3 2 1

5. Women are more likely than men to be afraid they will fail as head athletic trainers ........................................6 5 4 3 2 1

6. Women are too polite to express themselves effectively as head athletic trainers ........................................6 5 4 3 2 1

7. Both men and women head athletic trainers are judged according to the evaluator's personal view of appropriate sex roles ........................................6 5 4 3 2 1
The response scale is: 6 = Strongly agree
5 = Agree
4 = Uncertain but tend to agree
3 = Uncertain but tend to disagree
2 = Disagree
1 = Strongly disagree

8. Female student athletic trainers' need for female role models is greater than male student athletic trainers' need for role models ................. 6 5 4 3 2 1

B. Career Aspirations

1. Being employed within the field of athletic training is a lifetime career goal of mine. ......................... 6 5 4 3 2 1

2. Women are often not considered for promotion to head athletic trainer positions because they do not take their careers in athletic training as serious as men. ........................................ 6 5 4 3 2 1

3. Assertively seeking a head athletic trainer position within the field of athletic training is especially important for a woman in attaining this position. ........................................ 6 5 4 3 2 1

4. Qualified women athletic trainers would like to move into head athletic trainer positions because it would mean, among other reasons, an increase in salary. ........................................ 6 5 4 3 2 1

5. Participation in professional organizations (i.e., NATA) is very important for a woman aspiring to a head athletic trainer position. ......................... 6 5 4 3 2 1

C. Advancement Opportunities

1. Within an institution, women athletic trainers generally hold lower status positions than men athletic trainers. ......................... 6 5 4 3 2 1
The response scale is: 6 = Strongly agree
5 = Agree
4 = Uncertain but tend to agree
3 = Uncertain but tend to disagree
2 = Disagree
1 = Strongly disagree

2. Women athletic trainers have lower salaries than men holding equivalent positions. .................. 6 5 4 3 2 1

3. The generally lower salaries of women in athletic training act as a barrier to those women aspiring to head athletic trainer positions. ........................................ 6 5 4 3 2 1

4. It is more difficult for women than men to obtain information about head athletic trainer position vacancies. .................. 6 5 4 3 2 1

5. Men who are in decision-making positions, in terms of hiring and promoting, are more likely to recommend men (rather than women) who have characteristics they themselves possess. .................. 6 5 4 3 2 1

6. Women athletic trainers are regularly excluded, more so than men, from discussions of policy with administrators. ................................. 6 5 4 3 2 1

7. More legislation needs to be enacted to help women attain head athletic trainer positions. .................. 6 5 4 3 2 1

8. The movement of women into head athletic trainer positions is directly related to the Federal Equal Opportunity mandates to improve the status of women in general. ................................. 6 5 4 3 2 1

9. Knowledge of sex-equity laws is important for women in achieving head athletic trainer positions. .................. 6 5 4 3 2 1

10. Financial support for advanced study or additional education is more readily available to men than to women in athletic training. .................. 6 5 4 3 2 1
The response scale is: 6 = Strongly agree  
5 = Agree  
4 = Uncertain but tend to agree  
3 = Uncertain but tend to disagree  
2 = Disagree  
1 = Strongly disagree

11. The women’s movement is a positive force for obtaining equal pay and increased job opportunities for women ............................................. 6 5 4 3 2 1

12. For a potential female head athletic trainer a strong and active support group is necessary. ......................... 6 5 4 3 2 1

D. Dual Careers

1. Women, more so than men, must have the support of their mate in order to become successful head athletic trainers ....................................................... 6 5 4 3 2 1

2. A woman’s working as a head athletic trainer is usually easily accepted by her children ................................. 6 5 4 3 2 1

3. Marriage is an asset for women in athletic training .......... 6 5 4 3 2 1

E. Role Conflict

1. If they have young children, lack of adequate day-care facilities is more of a problem for women than men pursuing a position as a head athletic trainer .............................................. 6 5 4 3 2 1

2. Women athletic trainers are unable to do justice to their professional duties when these are combined with the management of a home ......................................................... 6 5 4 3 2 1

3. Male athletic trainers are more likely to assist males rather than females in developing competencies needed to be a head athletic trainer .................................................. 6 5 4 3 2 1

4. Female athletic trainers do not relate as well with the female athletic trainers as they do with male athletic trainers ....................................................... 6 5 4 3 2 1
The response scale is: 6 = Strongly agree  
5 = Agree  
4 = Uncertain but tend to agree  
3 = Uncertain but tend to disagree  
2 = Disagree  
1 = Strongly disagree

F. Administrative Capabilities

1. Compliance with state and federal sex equity laws strengthens the leadership role of a head athletic trainer in the eyes of those with whom that person works. 6 5 4 3 2 1

2. Generally, head male athletic trainers handle job pressures better than head female athletic trainers. 6 5 4 3 2 1

3. Head female athletic trainers are generally able to handle student athletic trainer discipline in a more positive way than males. 6 5 4 3 2 1

4. More women than men who seek head athletic trainer positions tend to lack the necessary leadership (team-task) skills to do an effective job. 6 5 4 3 2 1

5. Once a woman attains a head athletic trainer position she, more so than a man, has to “make it on her own” without a support system. 6 5 4 3 2 1

6. The lack of teamwork skills (i.e., coalition building and communication) is more a barrier for women than men who aspire to a head athletic trainer position. 6 5 4 3 2 1

7. More women than men who attain positions as head athletic trainers tend to be too demanding and hard on subordinates. 6 5 4 3 2 1

8. Women athletic trainers are more likely than men athletic trainers to be willing to prepare themselves for positions of greater responsibility. 6 5 4 3 2 1

9. Male executive officers (President, Vice President, Athletic Director), more so than female executive officers, are more likely to contend that women cannot cope with the emotional and physical stress of being a head athletic trainer. 6 5 4 3 2 1
The response scale is:

6 = Strongly agree
5 = Agree
4 = Uncertain but tend to agree
3 = Uncertain but tend to disagree
2 = Disagree
1 = Strongly disagree

10. Women athletic trainers are as likely as men athletic trainers to be willing to assume positions of greater responsibility.       6 5 4 3 2 1

G. Mobility

1. Women tend not to be selected for head athletic trainer positions because their ability to travel is perceived as restricted.       6 5 4 3 2 1

2. Female athletic trainers tend to move from one institution to another more than men holding an equivalent position.       6 5 4 3 2 1

H. Experience

1. Women in athletic training are not encouraged to seek advanced degrees because they are perceived to be unlikely to remain in the work force for an extended period of time.       6 5 4 3 2 1

2. Men are often considered for head athletic trainer positions with minimum professional experience, whereas women are considered only when they possess numerous years of professional experience.       6 5 4 3 2 1

3. An unmarried woman in the field of athletic training is not considered for a head athletic trainer position because it is assumed that she will marry and leave the position.       6 5 4 3 2 1

4. A married woman in the field of athletic training is often not considered for a head athletic trainer position because it is assumed that she will follow her husband if he is transferred.       6 5 4 3 2 1

5. A woman returning to the field of athletic training after childbearing years is not considered for a head athletic trainer position because it is assumed that her experience is too limited.       6 5 4 3 2 1
The response scale is: 6 = Strongly agree  
5 = Agree  
4 = Uncertain but tend to agree  
3 = Uncertain but tend to disagree  
2 = Disagree  
1 = Strongly disagree  

6. Once a woman has attained the proper credentials for the position of head athletic trainer, she is told she lacks experience .......................................................... 6 5 4 3 2 1  

7. Women must work harder than men with similar talent and qualifications to achieve a head athletic trainer position. . . . 6 5 4 3 2 1  

I. Age  
1. Age of the applicant is more of a factor when a female is considered for a head athletic trainer position. ................. 6 5 4 3 2 1  

II. Organizational Factors  
A. Recruitment Practices  
1. Legislative enactment information concerning fair employment practices is routinely posted in my employment institution .......................................................... 6 5 4 3 2 1  

2. Within this institution there is affirmative action to eliminate sexism. .......................................................... 6 5 4 3 2 1  

3. Women are not counseled and encouraged by their employers as much as men are to prepare for head athletic trainer positions. .................................................. 6 5 4 3 2 1  

4. Women receive more encouragement from their superiors to seek head athletic trainer positions than do men with comparable ability. ......................... 6 5 4 3 2 1  

5. Recruitment practices for athletic trainers in this NATA district are not communicated widely to all potential candidates .......................................................... 6 5 4 3 2 1
The response scale is: 6 = Strongly agree  
5 = Agree  
4 = Uncertain but tend to agree  
3 = Uncertain but tend to disagree  
2 = Disagree  
1 = Strongly disagree

6. This institution’s executive officers are more likely to encourage applications from men than women for the head athletic trainer position ..................................................6 5 4 3 2 1

B. Hiring Practices

1. Females cannot rely on male athletic trainers for formal recommendations to move into head athletic trainer positions..................................................6 5 4 3 2 1

2. Selection and screening committees for head athletic trainer positions are dominated by men. .............................6 5 4 3 2 1

3. The executive officers of the employment institutions in this NATA district would hire a male athletic trainer over an equally qualified female athletic trainer. .........................6 5 4 3 2 1

4. Although female replacements are available, women holding head athletic trainer positions are being replaced upon resignation or retirement by men. .............................6 5 4 3 2 1

5. The employment of women in athletic training is seen as leading to displacement of male athletic trainer candidates. ..................................................6 5 4 3 2 1

6. Often women are hired for a position previously held by a man only to find the position has been given a different title with less pay. ..................................................6 5 4 3 2 1

7. Regardless of affirmative action programs, women are typically hired for positions devoid of budgets to support their decisions. ..................................................6 5 4 3 2 1
The response scale is: 6 = Strongly agree
5 = Agree
4 = Uncertain but tend to agree
3 = Uncertain but tend to disagree
2 = Disagree
1 = Strongly disagree

C. Communication

1. Role stereotyping inhibits effective communication between male and female athletic trainers. .................. 6 5 4 3 2 1

2. Females more than male head athletic trainers demonstrate useful sensitivity in communicating with their athletic training staff. .......................... 6 5 4 3 2 1

3. The best way for females to attain a head athletic position is to quietly do a good job. ......................... 6 5 4 3 2 1

4. Women are too emotional to communicate effectively. ...... 6 5 4 3 2 1

5. When men and women communicate, the communication is dominated by men. ................................. 6 5 4 3 2 1

6. Women aspiring to head athletic trainer positions are rewarded for speaking out on issues. ..................... 6 5 4 3 2 1

7. There is a lack of communication between male and female athletic trainers as a result of traditional occupational sex role stereotyping in athletics. ................................. 6 5 4 3 2 1

8. Establishing a support-communication-information system within the NATA is more important for a female head athletic trainer aspirant than a male aspirant. ................................. 6 5 4 3 2 1

9. Women athletic trainers communicate as effectively with people in the community as do men athletic trainers. ...... 6 5 4 3 2 1

Thank you for taking the time to complete the survey.
Dear Colleague:

You are one of a group of certified athletic trainers within the National Athletic Trainers’ Association chosen at random for inclusion in an investigation of “perceptions of gender equity” among ATC’s working in three practice settings: secondary school, college/university, and clinic/hospital. This research is being conducted to fulfill the requirements for a doctoral dissertation at the University of North Dakota under the direction of Dr. Gerald Bass.

As a certified athletic trainer, your views regarding perceptions of gender equity within the profession of athletic training are important. I am aware of your busy schedule but, by spending 10 to 15 minutes completing this survey, you can help ensure that the results accurately reflect the attitudes of certified athletic trainers within the NATA.

The enclosed survey includes a “demographic” section and a “perception of gender equity” section. Please take a few minutes to complete this survey and return it to me in the enclosed envelope by October 9, 1998. Participation in this study is completely voluntary, and neither you or the name of your work setting will be identified in the dissertation or any subsequent reports. There is no penalty or sanction for refusal to participate. Your return envelope has been coded only to avoid sending follow-up requests to individuals who have responded. You do not have to respond to those questions which you feel are inappropriate.

Should you have any questions regarding this project, please feel free to contact me (218-236-7404) or my doctoral advisor, Dr. Gerald Bass (701-777-3577).

Thank you for your time and input.

Sincerely,

Cynthia “Sam” Booth, ATC
REFERENCES
REFERENCES


