NCAA Female Athletic Directors' Reported Barriers, Pathways, and Mentoring

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Abstract

This study utilized a nationwide survey of collegiate female athletic directors in the three NCAA divisions to ask about their perceptions about organizational barriers, pathways, and mentorship. The following research questions guided the thesis, with a feminist Standpoint Theory focus: (1)What are some of the organizational barriers that keep women from becoming ADs? (2)What are some of the pathways that women take to become an AD? (3)What are the roles of mentoring in advancing through collegiate athletic administration? The 93 respondents provided responses suggesting that women seeking leadership positions are still outsiders within athletic administrations. They still have to push through the glass ceiling and maneuver through the old boys' club in order to have success. Women are the outsiders within the athletic director role and are working together through mentoring to gain access to the position.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Background

      The struggle of women's athletics has been clearly documented throughout history. While women have made several strides forward, it has not been an easy road to get to where they are today. In the early stages of college sports, women were largely unrecognized by historians because competition was within the college solely between students (intramural) rather than between institutions (Bell, 2008). Women's sports were often internal and not intercollegiate like men's college sports. Women's competitions included intramural, club, and sorority matches, in addition to "play days" (Bell, 2008). While women's clubs were starting to form, men's clubs were starting to go coed. "Parallel clubs in colleges began to appear during this time, but a major difference between the social metropolitan clubs and the college clubs was that the latter frequently sponsored coed competition as occasions for social gatherings" (Gerber, Felshin, Berlin, & Wyrick, 1974). Eventually, according to Bell (2008), women's physical educators met to organize a governing organization for women's sports. In the 1920s, the Women's Division-National Amateur Athletic Federation (NAAF) was formed to organize intercollegiate competition among women (Park & Hult, 1993). Women wanted to start moving away from "intramural" competitions to become more competitive so that they could be taken more seriously, have more access to resources than men had, and strengthen women's participation in athletics. In 1941, the Division for Girls and Women in Sports (DGWS) was commissioned under the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation; they held their first national championship in golf.

Collegiate women seeking greater athletic opportunities moved closer to their goals in 1957, when the long-entrenched official position statement of the DGWS was amended to state that intercollegiate programs "may" exist. In 1963, the DGWS view of women in sport evolved further to state that it was "desirable" that intercollegiate programs for women exist (Gerber, et al., 1974). In 1966, the DGWS appointed a Commission on Intercollegiate Sports for Women (CISW) to assist in conducting intercollegiate competitions. In 1967, it was renamed the Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (CIAW). The CIAW established championship games and began working towards a status more in line with men's athletics. In 1969, a schedule of national championships for women's sports was announced that included gymnastics and track and field. Swimming, badminton, and volleyball followed in 1970, and in 1972, basketball was added. But women wanted an institutional membership organization similar to the NCAA. The NCAA had money and an organizational structure that the CIAW did not have. In 1971, the CIAW was replaced by the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW) in an attempt to establish that similar entity. This set the stage for the struggle to control collegiate women's athletics in the 1970s between the AIAW and the NCAA (Gerber, et al., 1974).

The AIAW consisted of 276 charter members and was formed in Overland, Kansas, close the NCAA headquarters in Mission, Kansas (Hedge & Holland, 2012). The AIWA focused on the female college student-athlete's education, not on athletic performance, and thus rejected the "win or die" competitive attitude fostered by the NCAA. Instead, the AIAW emphasized participation in sport as the most important aspect and de-emphasized winning (Sperber, 1990). By 1981, their membership exceeded

900. Their mission was to "lead and conduct" programs at the collegiate level that were competitive for women (Hulstrand, 1993). The emergence of the AIAW coincided with the enactment of federal legislation eliminating gender discrimination that became known as Title IX.

As the AIAW was attempting to develop its sports programs, Congress was working on an educational bill that would give women more access to advance college education (Brake, 2010). In 1972, Congress passed Title IX (Title 20 U.S.C. Sections 1681-1688), an education amendment act which states, "No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subject to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving federal financial assistance" (U.S. Department of Labor, 2015). While the passage of Title IX addresses all levels of education, this study will only focus on the collegiate level. After the passage of Title IX, the Department of Health, Education and Welfare (HEW) was put in charge of informing schools of the new guidelines at the institutional level. In November 1973, word spread among colleges that Title IX might involve sports (Brickley et al., 1979). This would require colleges to provide funding and opportunities for women to play sports. As a result, male athletic directors (ADs) from the NCAA lobbied the Senate to exclude "revenue-producing" sports from providing that funding. Senator John Tower (R-TX) responded with support by creating a proposal to exclude revenue-producing sports from having to help fund women's sports (Hedge & Holland, 2012; Hogshead-Makar & Zimbalist, 2007). From 1974-1976, the NCAA tried multiple means to legally restrain HEW from including revenue-based collegiate sports from the application of Title IX legislation (Hedge & Holland, 2012). At the same time, women's

groups feared the idea of losing access to a possible revenue source from male sports that could be used to help fund women's programs (Brickley et al., 1979). If women lost access to funds, women's sports would be unable to expand.

Shortly after Senator Tower's proposal, Senator Shirley Chisholm (D-NY) worked with the AIAW to write a counter proposal. In an interview in 1979, Senator Chisholm, (D-NY) stated that the college presidents and football coaches came to Washington because they perceived that something was going to be detrimental to their specific interest from misinterpreted policy (Brickley et al., 1979). The women of Congress and women's groups worked with the policy to develop some sort of equity, not in a literal policy in terms of dollar for dollar but other factors that may arise (Brickley, 1979). The AIAW was willing to make concessions, such as taking the team size into account when allocating funds for programs, in order not to lose access to the opportunities mandated by Title IX. For example, the AIAW realized that some male sports like football would require higher budgets due to the cost of equipment. The AIAW understood the concerns about the equipment cost and the general size differences between teams. At the time, men's college football teams averaged eighty-five to one hundred players, and women's teams averaged ten to fifteen players. Therefore, the AIAW realized the cost of equipment would be higher for men's football, and they were willing to concede those costs. More comparable women and men's teams, such as basketball, tennis, and the like, expected to be treated on a more equal basis.

Even with the concessions the AIAW was willing to make, the NCAA continued to fight the legislation and the AIAW. Mary Jolly, Director and Counsel to the Senate Subcommittee on the Constitution, stated in an interview in 1979 that Congress turn

down the NCAA's attempt to exempt football at least four times (Brickley, 1979). During the early years of Title IX, the NCAA attempted to change legislation and filed several lawsuits against the AIAW in order to minimize the effects of Title IX on men's sports. In the first two years of Title IX, HEW had not published guidelines. While the AIAW was trying to get the published guidelines established, the NCAA was trying to influence and change what those guidelines might be. In the fall of 1974, the NCAA agreed to a meeting with the AIAW. The NCAA wanted the AIAW to affiliate itself with the NCAA providing the NCAA with the sole voice; the AIAW hoped to form a joint committee to draw up rules. The NCAA did not consider the AIAW its equal, and it would not agree to a 50-50 joint union and equal representation at all policy-making levels (Festle, 1996). The AIAW demanded that HEW finally publish rules for Title IX, since it had been two years since the passage of the original act. In 1975, HEW had produced rules, but it still need to tell the schools how they would know if they were complying. It was not until 1979 that HEW introduced the three-prong test that would help schools to know if they were in compliance with Title IX. By the late 1970's, the AIAW expanded to 961 schools and received a television contract, which then drew the attention of the NCAA (Houser, 2014). For example, the NCAA perceived the AIAW as interfering with contracts for TV coverage (Hogshead-Makar & Zimbalist, 2007, p.106). The NCAA continued to bury the AIAW in lawsuits, and after losing several court cases (Ware, 2007), the NCAA decided it would be a better use of its money to take over the AIAW.

Once they over took the AIAW, the NCAA introduced women's championships for intercollegiate sports by offering the institutions sponsoring women's sports a

proposition that ultimately led to the demise of the AIAW. The NCAA offered to: (a) pay all expenses for teams competing in a national championship, (b) charge no additional membership fees for schools to add women's programs, (c) create financial aid, recruitment, and eligibility rules that were the same for women as for men, and finally, (d) guarantee women more television coverage. The NCAA had earmarked three million dollars to support women's championships. The AIAW could not compete with the NCAA inducements and the loss of membership, income, championship sponsorship, and media rights; this forced the AIAW to cease operations on June 30, 1982 (Festle, 1996). The AIAW sued the NCAA for allegedly violating the Sherman Anti-Trust Act, but the suit was unsuccessful when the courts ruled that the market for women's athletics was open for competition; therefore no anti-trust laws had been violated (Schubert, Schubert, & Schubert-Madsen, 1991). In 1982, the NCAA finally absorbed the AIAW.

With demise of the AIAW, women's leadership roles in collegiate athletic administration decreased significantly. Before its absorption, the AIAW awarded forty-one national championships and governed nineteen sports. In addition, women held 90% of coaching positions for women's teams and directed 90% of its programs (Acosta & Carpenter, 2000). Acosta and Carpenter (2012) point out that once the NCAA took over, the number of females who coached women's teams decreased from 90% in the 1970s to 42.3% in 2012, depending on the sport. In the AIAW, women held 90% of the administrative roles in the 1970s, yet by 2014, under the NCAA, women represent only 6% of ADs in Division 1 schools (Sander, 2011). After the AIAW was completely dissolved, the remaining women needed to navigate the various divisions within the NCAA to continue to play as significant a leadership role as they formerly had.

The NCAA is comprised of three divisions. The 353 schools that are classified as Division I (DI) are schools that generally have more students, larger athletic budgets, and more athletics department support than schools in Division II (DII) or Division III (DIII). The 324 schools in DII emphasize a life balance in which athletically gifted students can compete at a high level, while maintaining a traditional collegiate experience. Academics are the primary focus for 450 DIII schools. The student-athletes experience shorter practice and playing seasons, reducing their time away from academic studies and other campus activities. Eligibility standards are similar, but not identical, between Divisions I and II. At DIII schools, college-bound student-athletes must meet the admission standards set by the school for all new students, (NCAA, 2014).

Each division has a similar organizational structure of its athletic departments. The ADs oversee the whole program and supervise senior managers, who are the heads of departments such as compliance, game operations, facilities, and human resources (Angst, 2014). An AD's responsibilities typically include hiring coaches, budget preparation, promotion, and facility management. One of the senior management positions created with the absorption of the AIAW was the Senior Woman Administrator (SWA) position. The institutions designate the highest-ranking woman in athletic administration the senior woman administrator (SWA) (Hoffman, 2010). This role is intended to encourage and promote the involvement of women in decision-making, enhance the representation women's experiences and perspective, and support women's interest in intercollegiate athletics (Morrison, 2011). While head coaches have a say in their programs, they are not considered part of the administrative team unless they hold another title like SWA in DII or DIII. However, while there was a management position

created for women, men still hold the majority of AD jobs. As of January 2015, there are

1,127 schools across the three divisions that have athletic departments. There are 216

women that hold AD positions across the three divisions (DI, DII, & DIII). Men hold

911, or 81%, of the AD positions. The number of women who work in each of the NCAA

divisions is as follows: thirty-six (36) women in DI; sixty (60) women in DII; and one

hundred and twenty-nine (129) women in DIII[1].

Despite the significant decrease in the number of women administrators and

coaches since the passage of Title IX in 1972 (Acosta and Carpenter (2012), participation

by girls and women in sports has grown exponentially. One in twenty-seven girls (3.7%)

were playing sports in 1972, compared with two in five girls (40%) playing sports today,

according the Women's Sports Foundation (Dusenbery & Lee, 2012). The number of

women who play collegiate sports has grown 600%, while females in youth sports (K-12)

has grown from 295,000 to more than 3.2 million (Dusenbery & Lee, 2012). Given the

large number of women in collegiate sports, one might wonder why there is such a

discrepancy between the number of women participating in sports and the number who

transition into leadership roles as ADs. As women and girls' participation in sports

increased, the interesting paradox of players versus coaches and females in athletic higher

administration positions could suggest that the NCAA's absorption of the AIAW may

have hampered the ability of women to rise to leadership positions in the NCAA.

The majority of the research on female leadership and collegiate athletics focuses

primarily on DI coaches (LaVoi, 2014, 2015) and the SWA position (Sander, 2011;

Hoffman, 2010; Hatfield, Hatfield, & Drummond, 2009). As reported by LaVoi (2014,

2015), the numbers for the DI coaches are at an all-time low at 39.5% (LaVoi, 2014,

2015). For example, in 1987, Rosenbrock studied Primary Woman Administrators (PWA) and found that the PWA position was a dead-end position. The women in Rosenbrock's (1987) study reported that they felt as though they would not be able to move up into higher management. The sixteen women she interviewed talked about the PWA being a role to make them feel as they were being included. In the 28 years since Rosenbrock's study, women have continued not only to work in athletics but also to move up in collegiate athletic departments. However, the number of women administrators is increasing at a much slower rate relative to the number of females participating in college sports. This study fills a gap by focusing on women ADs across all divisions of the NCAA. Furthermore, it provides an opportunity for female collegiate ADs to voice their experiences, their opportunities and successes, and the obstacles they face.

Justification

The theoretical grounding that will be used throughout this thesis will be a critical feminist perspective, for this study is concerned with the relationship between gender and organizational communication. According to Mumby (2013), a critical feminist perspective views gender in four ways. First, "it views gender neither as an individual variable nor as a natural, stable feature of women and men but rather as a specially constructed phenomenon that is subject to change" (Mumby, 2013, p. 215). This shows that what determines masculine and feminine perspective has changed over the years. Second, "the critical feminist perspective views gender not as an organizational variable that can be isolated and studied separately from other organizational phenomena; rather gender is seen as an integral and constitutive feature of daily organizational life"

(Mumby, 2013, p. 216). This idea proposes that gender is not only a routine feature of daily organizational life but also is impossible to escape, because it lies at the very foundation of how we define others and ourselves (Mumby, 2013). Third, "following from the idea of organizations as gendered, the critical feminist perspective focuses on way the organizations 'do gender'" (Mumby, 2013, p. 218). "Doing gender," means that everyone is a social actor, and they consistently engage in performance of gender identity. There is more to this one: organizations present a culture that promotes a gendered perspective on rules and roles, potentially leading to limits on participants. Finally, "the critical perspective conceives of gender as an ongoing accomplishment of both women and men" (Mumby, 2013, p. 219). Both men and women worked together to create Title IX, eventually crafting its parameters through years of negotiation. While after Title IX more women are participating in playing sports and funding for women's sports has likely increased, the number of women holding leadership positions, in particular as AD, has declined. This is perhaps an unintended consequence of Title IX, and it is one that was established by the actions of women and men involved in articulating the elements of the policy.

Feminist criticism explores the ways that women and men are implicated together in gender organizing process. Thus, the critical feminist perspective allows exploration of the ways that gender becomes encoded and communicated in multiple and complex ways in daily organizational life (Mumby, 2013). A critical feminist perspective examining collegiate athletic departments would argue that they are considered to be a masculine workplace that perpetuates the old boys' network or club[2]. Expectations of gender roles are exhibited by leadership positions, participation expectations, barriers placed by

unspoken assumptions, and a host of other organizational cultural activities. A critical feminist perspective would seek to discover the many ways that an organization "does gender."

One theory that upholds this perspective is Standpoint Theory. Standpoint Theory represents a critical feminist perspective by noting that societies are made up of groups that have different amounts of power and privilege (Wood, 2015). It suggests that people gain knowledge based on their position in society, and those in power possess knowledge that is different from those not in power. A standpoint, which is a group's position within the social structure that provides a perspective and the ability to make sense of the world, is developed only through effort such as interaction and struggle. Communication is responsible for shaping our standpoints, because we learn our place through interaction with others. Collins (1986, 1991) defined a specific standpoint type of the "outsider within" who is in a nominally marginalized social position but who has gained some access to the inside. This person is more able to gain knowledge beyond what is typically available to someone in his or her position. According to Harding (2004), the outsider within position provides the epistemic advantage of double vision, which grants the ability to balance multiple different roles, knowing which ones are important to occupy at different times. The outsider within is a person who would normally be marginalized but has somehow gained limited access to the inside (Collins, 1991).

A standpoint is developed as a group resists those in power, refusing to accept the way society defines it. Standpoint Theory promotes criticism of the status quo because of its power structure of hierarchy, dominance, and oppression. As Hartsock (1997) noted, Standpoint Theory points out problems in society and offers different ways to create a

more equal and just society. Standpoint Theory itself has a long history, beginning with Hagel's 1807 discussion of the master-slave relationship. He asserted that each of these groups had a partial view of what social life was like, and the slave's position shaped the worker's access to knowledge (West and Turner, 2010, p. 503). Hartsock (1997) adapted those ideas to examine power relationships between men and women. In 1983, Hartsock labeled this theory "Feminist Standpoint Theory," but the theory is often referred to by the simpler name; for this thesis, the theory will be referred to as Standpoint Theory. The theory highlights the relationship between power and knowledge. It begins with an assumption that knowledge is structured by power relations (Hallstein, 2000, p. 3).

The approach to Standpoint Theory posited by this thesis is based on the general beliefs that Janet Saltzman Chafetz (1977) says characterizes all feminist theories. Gender relations are troublesome, and the theory attempts to understand how sex and gender are related to inequities and contradiction. In addition, a feminist approach can be used to challenge the status quo when it devalues women. Hartsock (1997) also suggested that position structures and therefore limits our understanding of social relationships. When two different groups live life in opposing structured ways, the understanding of each is the inversion of the other. Thus, the understanding of the dominant group and the subordinate group are partial. A dominant standpoint is harmful, because it structures how others must live and the choices they can make. It creates the rules, the language, the roles of a society. The subordinate group must always struggle against this, and if it were to make its viewpoint apparent to the dominant group, then a more and just world would be established. Wood (1992, p. 6) pointed out these subordinate-dominant standpoints, because cultural conditions "typically surrounding women's lives produce

experiences and understandings that routinely differ from those produced by the conditions framing men's lives." As a result, we need to understand the distinctive elements of women's experiences, and we can only learn these by listening to women talk about their experiences. Ford & Crabtree (2002) assert that it is a continuing goal for Feminist Standpoint theorists to conduct research that will give voice to those who have been silenced. In essence, Standpoint Theory attempts to understand the influence that a particular position places on people's views of their world and on their communication behaviors. It assumes that those who share a standpoint will share certain communication styles and practices. As a result, communication is central to shaping and transmitting standpoints. As Julia Wood (1992) noted, "Whether women's own voices are granted legitimacy seems especially pertinent to communication scholars' assessments of the value of alternative theoretical positions" (p. 13).

Standpoint Theory focuses on how membership in groups, such as those designated by gender, race, class and sexual identity, shapes what individuals experience (Wood, 2015). Standpoint Theory claims that marginalized groups, such as women working in a male-dominated workplace, can generate unique insights into how a society works (Wood, 2015). Women ADs are the outsiders within athletics because they are in the minority. Since women are outsiders to the dominant group of men (often termed the old boys' club), they have difficulty accessing knowledge and the people needed for advancement, as well as the communication patterns necessary to present their standpoints. Standpoint Theory provides a lens to examine women's experiences, which represent a struggle against the dominant (male) structure. Women are a group who live this tension of oppression and a sense of isolation, despite being the outsider within in

certain organizations. It is the goal of this thesis to discover how women ADs express their standpoints through a number of research questions to be discussed.

Among the structural elements that may limit women's significant growth in AD roles are the following: (1) administrative structure changes since Title IX; (2) established men in existing administrative roles; (3) the old boys' club (Carpenter & Acosta, 2000, 2005, 2012; Hall, 1996). First, as Carpenter and Acosta (2005) explain, with the passage of Title IX, women's sports were moved outside of the physical education department where most coaches held faculty appointments with tenure. The move from the physical education department to the athletic department caused women to give up their tenure, making their jobs less secure. In addition, women were often placed under the supervision or mentorship of males who may not have been supportive (Carpenter & Acosta, 2005). Title IX rules do not specify or control how athletic departments staff their positions; however, during the time of its implementation, there was a decline from 90% of women in administrative and coaching roles to less than 40%. This suggests that Title IX resulted in consequences that were not foreseen. Hall (1996) points out that prior to the1960s, there was a perceived social conflict between being a woman and being an athlete that created a psychologically unhealthy unbalance. Some women feared that an affiliation with sports would compromise their femininity and diminish perceptions of their womanhood. This conflict may have caused some women to avoid playing sports or coaching. Such tensions about the nature of a woman came from the dominant social standpoint, and women who attempted to assert a different view faced condemnation, ridicule, and silencing. However, with the emergence of feminism in the 1960s and the explosion of feminist scholarship in the succeeding three decades,

some of these social assumptions about what women are capable of have not only been challenged but also changed.

A second reason women have had difficulty rising to administrative positions within college athletics stems from the fact that the NCAA schools already had men who had held leadership positions for years and were not willing to give them up to women (Rosenbrock, 1987). The NCAA mandated a new leadership position to help women to advance and to provide mentorship for female sports when it realized that men held the primary roles in athletic departments. The new leadership role for women was called the "Primary Woman Administrator" (PWA), and women in these roles were primarily assigned to oversee women's sports, including budgeting, scheduling, and promotions. In fact, PWAs were the face of women's sports at most institutions (Tiell & Dixon, 2008, p. 340). The PWA was renamed "Senior Woman Administrator" (SWA) in 1989, which is the classification that remains in use today.

While women were offered SWA positions, they struggled to be taken seriously within collegiate athletic departments because the position did not come with administrative power. The SWA title came with good intentions, but it came with no legitimate power. Although the SWA role initially created a place for women leaders, it also created new dilemma (Hoffman, 2010). In fact, Hoffman argues that the SWA role created a gap between men and women. For example, the women who remained in athletic departments after the NCAA's absorption of the AIAW typically held the title of AD when the AIAW was in existence. Thus, these women were accustomed to being leaders. However, the creation of the SWA in NCAA-led athletic departments typically meant that the highest-ranking female would become the SWA and not the AD. Thus,

the SWA was no longer the chief administrator but instead had to report to the AD. In most cases, the AD was a man and formerly a professional equal, effectively making the SWA role a demotion (Rosenbrock, 1987). This is a classic outsider within position.

It can be inferred that because of these structural and language barriers that establish a dominant-subordinate position, females in AD positions likely feel the tension that their interactions with those in power bring. Rosenbrock conducted one of the first comprehensive studies of women administrators within college sports in 1987. Rosenbrock (1987) interviewed sixteen women who had been working in the AIAW and went through the merger. At that point, women recognized that participation and funding were better than they ever had been for collegiate women athletes. However, Rosenbrock (1987) noted that the trends indicated that there were likely to be fewer and fewer leadership opportunities for women to reap these benefits in the future. Women's overall collegiate sports participation was growing, but Rosenbrock (1987) warned that the sporting environment would change, and women would not be as welcomed as they once were as leaders and peers to men. Later studies (Hoffman, 2010; Sander, 2011), discussed in the literature review, expand upon Rosenbrock's initial theme.

Thus, scholars have identified some important reasons why there are so few women in leadership roles within NCAA athletic departments. This study seeks to build upon previous research by identifying and exploring the perceptions of women in AD roles within athletic departments of NCAA schools. By focusing on the experiences of women that have achieved the title of AD, this research aims to shed light on the opportunities and challenges women have faced in their quest for leadership. This study gives women ADs in the three divisions of NCAA an opportunity to answer survey

questions about their experiences, barriers and opportunities for success, influence of

mentoring in their careers, and their pathways to leadership in the male-dominated arena

of collegiate sports administration. As a result, this study should offers legitimacy to

female AD views, a standpoint that has long been struggling for recognition, let along

equality. A review of existing literature helps to frame the study presented in this thesis.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

A review of scholarly research on women leaders in collegiate athletics shows that the majority of the research is about the SWA position in DI athletics. The review also points to a gap in research about the study of women ADs within the three divisions of NCAA athletics. In addition, the literature presents reported differences among the ADs and SWAs on role perception and on the responsibilities associated with each role. Past literature that is important to this current study includes research findings on sports feminism and organizational barriers such as the glass ceiling, old boys' network, and lack of mentoring.

SWA Leadership

Much of the research on women in leadership roles in collegiate athletic departments focuses on the SWA role. This literature review details highlights of that scholarship. During the 1982 merger between the NCAA and the AIAW, the NCAA created the PWA in order to help women retain their leadership roles. This provided positions for women who would oversee the development of women's sports, since many of the men in leadership positions saw women's sports as a waste of time. The SWA role was designed to encourage and promote the involvement of women in decision-making, enhance the representation of women's experiences and perspectives, and support women's interest in intercollegiate athletics (Hoffman, 2010, p.1). As Acosta and Carpenter (2012) report, the NCAA worked to get the SWA in place at all universities, creating a mandatory position for women within athletic departments. Despite the NCAA mandate for all schools, 13% of universities and colleges still do not have any women athletic administrators. Even with the best efforts of the NCAA, the SWA position is not

being completely utilized. The SWA position was intended to give women an opportunity to regain some of the leadership roles that they lost, but this position is often undervalued by the male ADs (Hoffman, 2010).

Prior research has also discovered that the SWA is often the only woman in the boardroom, and her authority is unclear. Hoffman (2010) called the SWA the "Sole Woman Administrator" because often she is the only female sitting at the boardroom table at most DI universities. Women who are the only one at the table are what Mumby (2013) refers to as the token female. Mumby (2013) states that tokens are visible and they come to be viewed as a representative for their minority group rather than as an individual. Often, the token female is not asked for her input into the actions of the athletic department (Copeland, 2005).

To add legitimacy to the position, many divisions have created guidelines to help define this role. One investigation of the study of the position showed that the majority of NCAA DI SWAs believe that the SWA position is underutilized, and most people do not have a clear understanding of the role (Hatfield, Hatfield &Drummond, 2009). Many times the SWA title is given, but no responsibilities or authority accompany the position. Some conferences such as Northeastern-10, the Pacific 10 Conference (PAC-10), and the Southeast Conference (SEC) have created statements that suggest activities for the SWA. These statements, which may be viewed as guidelines to establish the additional clarification for women with the SWA title, include: supervision of athletic personnel, programs, budget management, oversight, fundraising, and development; NCAA conference and institutional rule compliance; support of gender equity; Title IX initiatives; membership in professional organizations; and the conference SWA council

(Northeast-10, 2014). However, these guidelines are only suggestions, so it is unclear if they are typically utilized, or to what extent.

Notably however, Clausen and Lehr (2002) found that DI SWAs have more decision-making authority than SWAs in DII or DIII (Clausen and Lehr, 2002). Similarly, Teill and Dixon (2008) and Hoffman (2010) reported that DI SWAs tend to have administrative titles that put them on senior management team, whereas DII and DIII SWA are more likely to have other roles like head coach or teacher/professor. In their study of 574 SWAs and 542 ADs (gender break down of the latter not given) across all the NCAA divisions, Teill and Dixon (2008) found that there are were more discrepancies between what the ADs think that the SWAs are doing and what the SWA actually does. As this section suggests, the limited research on the leadership roles played by SWAs demonstrates a need to ask more questions, especially in terms how they view their leadership value.

Athletic leadership and the feminist perspective

Beginning in the 1970s, Title IX provided women and girls new opportunities in the collegiate arena by offering them access to more programs and funding for athletics. As the women's movement in the 1970s was building traction, academic researchers began to recognize the need for research exploring the area of feminism and athletics. In the early 1990s, several studies emerged that examined women's sports with a feminist lens (DePauw, Bonace & Karswa, 1991; Hall, 1996; Hargreaves, 1994). Sports were seen as a new area of feminist study for sociology, social psychology, psychology, communication, and history. Hall (1996) states that women and sports studies fall under

feminist scholarship and argues that in order to understand the culture of women in

sports, feminists' need to further study athletics. Hall (1996) writes,

> Most of my nonsporting feminist colleagues are amused by my continuing
> fascination with sport. I have seen my task as advocating the inclusion of sport on
> the feminist agenda and ensuring that feminism is very much a part of a sport
> agenda (p. 8).

 While sports feminism was a latecomer to the women's movement in the 1970s,

Hargreaves (1994) emphasizes that it focuses on questions of legal, political, and

ideological compliance rather than on cultural issues such as sports (1994). Hall (1996),

Hargreaves (1994), Heywood and Dworkin (2005) laid the groundwork in academic

research on women in sports. These researchers also assert that sports feminism is a

mechanism to achieving changes in the world of athletics. Heywood and Dworkin (2005)

show what the world is like now for female athlete, how gender roles are different the

ways athletes have helped change perceptions. They also state that athleticism can be

used as an activist tool for third wave feminism (Heywood & Dworkin, 2005, p. 45).

Hall (1996) examines the gap between research on the study and the practice of

sports. She pointed out that there are millions of participants, athletes, coaches,

administrators, officials, educators, and volunteers all working towards the betterment of

women's sports and gender equity for whom this theorizing and research is completely

foreign (Hall, 1996). DePauw et al. (1991) report that advocacy becomes an important

process from changing attitudes and reversing the trend of underrepresentation of women

in sports. To change status quo and the gender norms of the NCAA, women need to be

able to stand up for equality without fear of losing their jobs. There is a fine balance

between getting respect and demanding more opportunities for women's sports and

creating a strong working relationship within the organizations, and sports feminism can

play an important role in this process. There continues to be a need for more research on women in sports.

Women Athletic Directors in the NCAA

There are not as many women in the AD roles as men, and the review of relevant literature suggests that there are several organizational and social factors that contribute to this. According to research conducted about athletic departments, women hold 6.5% of the AD positions in DI compared to 93.5% held by men, women hold 15.2% of the AD positions in DII compared to 84.8% held by men, and women hold 28.4% of the AD positions in DIII compared 71.6% held by men (Lumpkin et al., 2014). Sander (2011) reports that women are balancing the demands of working in a male dominated world while balancing the gender norms set up by society. Sander (2011) reports that many women are content not having all of the pressure of being the number one leader in athletic departments, suggesting suggest that some women may not want to leave their current role when an AD position becomes available. According to Sander (2011) and Yiamouyiannis and Osborne (2015), women are still required to balance career and the home life in ways that men are not. If women are in the top role at work and at home, it becomes harder to manage both roles (Sander, 2011). This is one of the societal norms that female ADs are facing that men do not. As Butler (1990) notes, society has created these cultural norms that are replicated in organizations.

Similarly, athletics has been thought of as a man's world. These attitudes have created an unwelcoming environment for women. For example, when the AIAW and the NCAA merged, women became frustrated because they felt that they no longer had a say in financial matters or decision-making within the department (Hoffman, 2010). In a

review of NCAA actions after the merger, the NCAA slowed down the implementation of Title IX guidelines, which caused the NCAA to continue to ignore women sports (Olson, 1990).

One of the factors that is prevalent in athletics is the presence of the old boys' club or network. As Sander (2011) argues, women are not underrepresented because of a lack of qualified candidates, but because they have a lack of access to the old boys' club that does the hiring. Mumby (2013) defines the "old-boys' club as a phenomenon whereby men hire other men who look a lot like them and come from similar backgrounds- white, middle class, educated at a particular school, and so forth" (p. 210). Therefore, it becomes extremely difficult for women to assimilate into a culture where they do not immediately understand the masculine banter that is cultivated within the club. Within the field of sports, this banter is cultivated through "a sharing of power, influence and expertise with other men through networking which can overcome the traditional barriers in a male-dominated field of sports" (DePauw et al., 1991, p.1).

Similarly, others have defined the old boys' network as "informal 'clublike' interactions occurring in the context from which women are absent" (Rose, 1989 p. 350). General studies about the concept found that males use their networks for promotions and job security. Males find their career advancements are advantaged by their network, which women do not have. Campbell's (1988) study of 186 people who recently changed jobs reports women are less likely to find jobs through their networks. Furthermore, Gamba and Kleiner (2001) report that while the Internet was supposed to open opportunities for women, it has instead created a "new old boys' club" through the use of technology and inclusive groups online.

Researchers from fields as diverse as business, education, and athletics have all examined the existence and impacts of old boys' clubs on the ability for women to advance. For example, Gregory (2009) reports male homosociability is present in an advertising agency, which encompasses the formal and informal meetings as well as humor and banter that happen in the workplace. In another instance, Oakley (2000) in her study of businesses discovered that men feel uncomfortable or even threatened when women colleagues are in the room. In that same vein, Rose (1989) studied women biologists and found that women are still tokens in the sciences representing only 9 to 17% of scientists, similar to other fields. Likewise in athletics, Lovett and Lowry (1994) examined public secondary schools and found that in programs with combined athletic departments, head coaches of women's teams were more likely to be males. Conversely, if programs were divided, the women's teams were most likely to have a female coach. As this research shows, the old boys' club is still impactful on women's advancement in an array of fields.

Addressing barriers created by the old boys' club has also been an area of research in athletics in particular. For example, Salter (1996) concluded that there will never be gender equity, but fathers of daughters will need to create opportunities to help their daughters push through the old boys' club. Similarly, in a study of female AD's, Smith and Davis (2005) conclude that there are several areas that women need to consider when advancing to AD roles:

> (1) Women must achieve the proper academic preparation. (2) Being a female has an impact in women being appointed to athletic administration positions. (3) Acquisition of at least one year of experience. (4) Awareness of the impact of the 'old boy's network.' (5) Involvement in any aspect of professional sports does not have an impact in women being appointed to athletic administrative positions (p. 141).

Smith and Davis (2005) conclude their study by urging for further research of women in higher education. In addition, Barlow (1999), in a study of Louisiana high school women athletic administrators, found no specific barriers, but she acknowledged numerous barriers that seem to be responsible for the low percentage of women AD. These barriers include: "stereotypical gender-role beliefs, lack of power, sexism, and the good old boys' network reported by the women athletic directors and lack of female applicants and lack of power reported by the principals" (Barlow, 1999, p. vii). These studies show that the old boys' club is part of the reason why women are struggling to break through the glass ceiling. As previous research shows, the old boys' club exists in several fields, and its potential to negatively impact both men and women offers the opportunity for further research.

Glass Ceiling Effects

As difficult as it is for women to get into a leadership role within athletic departments, the adversities continue for women who find themselves in leadership positions. For example, Rosenbrock (1987) and Hoffman (2010) found that women in the SWA role expressed how they saw their jobs as "dead-ends," and they were no longer able to move up in athletics. According to Galloway (2012), leadership characteristics are not always explained by past qualifications, but often by stereotypes about gender. The stereotypes become more pervasive and ubiquitous within male dominated field such as athletic departments. While women know upper management positions exist, they are unable to advance for a variety of reasons. The glass ceiling is an example of a phenomenon that the U.S. Department of Labor (1991) has defined as " a concept that betrays America's most cherished principles. It is the unseen, yet unreachable barrier that

keeps minorities and women from rising to the upper rungs of the corporate ladder, regardless of their qualifications or achievements" (p. 4). Furthermore, men are increasingly seeking coaching positions in women's sports (Hoffman, 2010), which makes the coaching jobs more competitive for women. As a result, administrative and coaching roles that were once held by women are increasingly being lost to men (Lavoi, 2013; Sander, 2011).

Women leadership positions and effects of the glass ceiling have been studied extensively in business. In a study from Eagly, Makhijani, and Klonksy (1992), the devaluation of women was greater when leaders occupied male-dominated roles and when men are evaluating women. Goodman, Fields, and Blum (2003) found that women were more likely to hold top management positions in establishments that have lower level management positions filled by women, have higher turnover rate, lower salary rate and have greater emphasis on development and training. Similarly, Lumpkin, Dodd, and McPherson's (2014) study shows females hold approximately one-third of the intercollege athletic administrative positions, suggesting persistence of an attitudinal or organizational bias impeding career advancement, or a glass ceiling. Galloway's (2012) study found that the glass ceiling is prevalent in athletic administration because of gender-biases, gender discrimination and stereotypes (p. 10). The glass ceiling effect remains intact, and the domain of athletics in the United States remains troublesome and static for women seeking to advance.

Cotter, Hermsen, Ovadia, and Vanneman (2009) defined four specific criteria that must be met to conclude a glass ceiling exists. The first criterion is "a glass ceiling inequality represents a gender or racial difference that is not explained by other job-

relevant characteristics of the employee" (p. 110). In collegiate athletics as of 2014, women comprise 6.5% and black males 14% of AD positions of DI schools (Wong, 2014). The second criterion that needs to be met is "a glass ceiling inequality represents a gender or racial difference that is greater at higher levels of an outcome than at lower levels" (Cotter et al., 2001, p.112). In other words, the fact that there are fewer minorities in senior leadership than in subordinate positions is evidence of the glass ceiling.

The third and fourth criteria are closely related. The third is "a glass ceiling inequality represents a gender or racial inequality in the chances of advancement into higher levels, not merely the proportions of each gender or race currently at those higher levels" (Cotter et al., 2001, p.114). Lumpkin et al.'s (2014) study shows that women are more likely to be promoted or hold AD positions if the school does not support a football team or is a lower level like DII or DIII. Thus, when a football team is present, it appears that football becomes such a dominant influence on the athletic departments that males must seem better qualified to handle the job. Where football programs exist, the glass ceiling is more prominent. Furthermore, the fourth criterion is "a glass ceiling inequality represents a gender or racial inequality that increases over a career" (Cotter et al., 2001, p.114). When the last two criteria are considered in the context of athletic departments, a pattern emerges where women are passed over for promotions that often go to males who may have less experience (Sander, 2011). Women are often limited to nurturing roles such as those within athletics supporting positions, like compliance and advising (Lumpkin et al., 2014). These criteria can be shown through the athletic departments across all levels. In the business of athletics, it appears that the glass ceiling is still well intact.

Research shows that white males are more likely to get a promotion within athletic departments instead of women or minorities who have been in the position and working with the department longer (Quinlan, 2014). Hoffman's (2010) study of the role of the SWA explains how women get promoted within the support units like academic support or compliance, and once there, they find it impossible to advance into leadership roles in intercollegiate athletics. Lumpkin et al. (2014) take that one step further and found that males hold the majority of the administrative positions that have control over financial and strategic decisions. Women get promoted to the head positions of the support and compliance departments, but they cannot be promoted further due to lack of experience in financial management and strategic decision-making roles. Therefore, the lack of women in AD roles becomes more prevalent as the glass ceiling limits their growth in the AD position.

Mentoring and Women's Athletic Leadership

One of the ways that has been said to help women break through the glass ceiling is through mentoring. In a study of 263 NCAA administrators, Young (1990) found that mentoring relationships and active participation in networking is vital in moving up. Similarly, other research shows that women believe that mentoring is important to growth within the athletic department (Hoffman, 2010; DePauw et al. 1991). Hoffman (2010) states the SWAs she interviewed indicated that mentoring is something that all women in athletics should be doing. DePauw et al. (1991) report that mentoring and advocacy are the ways in which women are going to be able to move up and in order to combat the old boys' club, they should create the "old girls' club" (p. 33). Female ADs must continue to support each other and actively network in order for the old girls' club to become as

effective as the old boys' club (Young, 1990).

Networking and mentoring are important in several fields. Mentoring has been studied at the university level for faculty and staff relationships (Sullivan & Moore, 2013), mentoring on how to make undergraduate students successful (Putsche, Storrs, Lewis, & Haylett, 2008), and mentoring with graduate students (Denker & Henson, 2008). Yet very little research has been completed on how athletic departments utilize mentoring, even though it has been called for as early as 1987 (Rosenbrock) and reiterated in multiple research studies (e.g., DePauw et al., 1991; Hoffman, 2010).

Of importance to this study is the definition of mentoring styles Buell offers. Buell (2004) suggests that there are four models of mentoring: cloning, nurturing, friendship, and apprenticeship. Each of these mentoring models has strengths and weaknesses. For example, the cloning model operates when a mentor seeks to produce a duplicate copy of him- or herself from a top-down position. However, a weakness of this model is the mentee is not encouraged to become independent or to be creative, but instead is encouraged to comply with the mentor and duplicate his or her values.

The strength of the nurturing model is that a mentor fulfills some of the functions of a parent figure, creating a safe, open environment in which a mentee can both learn and try things for him or herself. The weakness of this model is that it creates a dependency, which can also be a drawback because the mentee does not want to make decisions without the mentor. Similarly, the strength of the friendship model is that the mentor and mentee are viewed as peers rather than being involved in a hierarchical relationship, and collaborative, reciprocal, mutual engagement is the norm. The weakness of the friendship model is if the relationship not reciprocal, then both parties will not feel

benefited by the relationship.

Finally, the strength of the apprenticeship model is the mentor is not trying to produce a "copy" of him or herself, but rather an apprentice. The apprentice learns the trade through the mentors' eyes, more so than under the nurturing model or the cloning model. The weakness of the apprenticeship is that it is a pragmatic, largely "hands-off" model that involves mentoring without moving into the more personal or social aspects (Buell, 2004). These four styles of mentoring will be used to formulate some of the questions for this study.

Women's collegiate athletic leadership roles significantly declined since Title IX due to the continued glass ceiling, a lack of mentoring, old boys' club, and an increased interest by men to coach women's sports (Schneider, Stier, Henry & Wilding, 2010). This decline is of concern because of the continued increase of female participation in sports. Since women do not see other women in leadership roles, they may not believe that is a route they can take. Young women need more female role models within athletic departments in order to make the transition from athlete to administrative leader (Bower & Hums, 2014). A decrease in the number of women administrators also lessens the number of role models for women seeking administrative roles or women who might not have considered administrative roles until they witness other women in those roles. According to Bower and Hums (2014), mentees should consider mentors who provide knowledge, offer feedback, and provide relevant information and problem solving skills.

The purpose of this thesis is to ask female athletic directors at all three NCAA divisions to share information and perceptions about their career progression and the influences (favorable and unfavorable) on their experience and career progression. This

research is important because as female participants in sports continue to increase, there is a greater need for the voices of females to be represented in collegiate athletics in important leadership positions such as the athletic director.

Research Questions

The literature review reveals several gaps in research concerning women in leadership roles in collegiate athletic departments – particularly at the AD level. Through this study, the author intends to identify similarities and differences within the three divisions of NCAA female ADs based on the presumed lack of information provided in the literature review three specific areas will be addressed. First, the study will examine impact of the glass ceiling and the old boys' club on women in athletics. Second, the study will identify the role mentoring might play in the advancement of female ADs. Finally, this study will draw upon the literature that suggests the need for research to examine the organizational barriers, the perceptions of female ADs to gain a wider perspective on differences among the various divisions in terms of their pathways to progression and to see what their view on mentoring This thesis aims to address some of these gaps in research by conducting a survey to address the following questions:

RQ1: What are some of the organizational barriers that keep women from becoming ADs?

RQ1a: Do the responses to statements about barriers differ based on the athletic division (I, II, III) to which the women belong?

RQ2: What are some of the pathways that women take to become an AD?

RQ2a: Do the responses to statements about pathways differ based on the athletic division (I, II, III) to which the women belong?

RQ3: What are the roles of mentoring in advancing through collegiate athletic

administration?

RQ3a: Do the responses to statements about mentoring differ based on the athletic

division (I, II, III) to which the women belong?

Chapter 3: Methods

This study administered a quantitative survey to the women who hold the AD title in the programs within the three divisions of NCAA. This survey gave women a chance to voice their experiences by exploring their pathways, barriers, and views on mentoring.

IRB

In order to answer the research questions guiding this thesis, survey methods were identified as the most appropriate means to reach the target audience and get answers to the research questions. The Virginia Tech IRB process requires researchers to submit the recruitment document, details about the research protocol, and information about how participants will consent to participation. The research protocol document specifies the participant characteristics, the questions asked and information about protected classes of individuals among other aspects of the study. Virginia Tech's IRB approved the research project on February 10, 2015, and the IRB approval letter is available in Appendix A. Female ADs ($N = 216$) were recruited via email. The email included a link to the survey materials. The first page of the survey contained the required consent information. If participants were willing to participate, they were asked to click the link to accept the consent form (Appendix B). Participants ($N = 93$) were provided two weeks to complete the survey. Participants were provided with two reminder emails sent throughout the two-week period.

Sample

Since this thesis is guided by questions about the roles, influences, opportunities, and challenges for women in AD roles, this population is an ideal group of women to study. The researcher obtained the list of female ADs from the university athletic staff

directories. The NCAA website does not contain a complete or current list of all women in these roles. To ensure the sample represents the current population of all female ADs, a project assistant completed an independent search of the athletic department websites for all three NCAA divisions. This assistant found the same 216 currently serving female ADs as the lead researcher.

Women lead 216 of 1,127 schools or 19.2% of athletic programs across the U.S. A total of 216 female ADs from DI, DII, and DIII universities were invited to participate in this study. A total of 93 respondents (43%) completed the survey. The division level, as described previously in the background, is an important variable used to assess whether opportunities or barriers for women are influenced by the division status. For example, some might argue that the emphasis on football in DI sports may make it more difficult for a woman to be AD because lack of experience in football. For DI schools, n = 11 (30%) of ADs completed the survey, for DII n = 26 (46%), and DIII n = 56 (44%).

Survey Instrument

The online survey, developed using the secure version of Qualtrics, consisted of 45 questions spanning length of tenure, barriers and perceived barriers for promotion, mentoring, influence of other women, and career path considerations. The researcher used existing literature to develop survey items. Survey questions were Likert scales, dichotomous responses, and a few open-ended questions, which allowed participants to elaborate on aspects of mentorship. The survey is available in Appendix C.

Variables.

Perceived attitudes toward women.

There were four Likert questions that asked ADs to indicate their attitudes (positive/negative) toward the treatment of women in athletics and their views of female ADs by indicating level of agreement to the following statements, using a five-point scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*: (1) I think that in general, women working in collegiate athletic departments are viewed positively; (2) I think that in general, women working in collegiate athletic departments are viewed negatively; (3) I think that other people view women as capable leaders in collegiate athletic departments; and (4) I think that other people view the contributions that women ADs make to their collegiate athletic departments as valuable.

Barriers.

The 13 questions about barriers for women also employed Likert scale questions and asked participants indicated level of agreement to the following statements, using a five-point scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*: (1) I think that women have a difficult time advancing to upper-level administration positions within collegiate athletic departments; (2) I have experienced gender discrimination at different points during my tenure in collegiate athletic administration; (3) I have witnessed other women be discriminated against based on gender during their career in collegiate athletic administration; (4) I think that women have a better chance of getting a promotion in collegiate athletic administration if they are willing to work at a school that does not have a strong athletic program; (5) At the institutions where I have worked as a collegiate athletic administrator, I have been the only woman on the senior management team in the

athletic department; (6) I think that the SWA position is a useful position for women who want to advance in collegiate athletic administration; (7) I think that women are happier being in supporting roles; (8) I think that a lack of formal mentoring for women in athletics is keeping women from advancing to upper level management positions within collegiate athletic departments; (9) I think that most collegiate athletic departments function as an old boys' club, which prohibits women from advancing their careers; (10) I think that there are not enough opportunities available for women to advance in collegiate athletic departments; (11) I think women are not very interested in advancing to the highest positions within collegiate athletic departments; (12) I think that there is a perception among some people that women are not capable of leading collegiate athletic departments; (13) I think women have made great strides in advancing to senior positions in collegiate athletic departments.

Mentoring.

The 13 questions about mentoring for women were measured through five dichotomy type questions and nine Likert scale questions, and asked participants to indicate their agreement or disagreement to a series of statements. The five dichotomy questions asked the participants if they had a mentor or if they had served as a mentor, and these included the following questions: (1) I currently have a person in my life that I consider to be a formal mentor; (2) In the past, I have had a person in my life that I consider to be a formal mentor; (3) Are you currently serving as a professional mentor to a mentee in collegiate athletics; (4) I currently have a person in my life that I consider to be an informal mentor; (5) I have in the past had a person in my life that I consider to be an informal mentor.

The nine Likert scale questions asked participants indicated level of agreement to the following statements, using a five-point scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*: (1) I think that effective mentoring is when the mentor controls the mentee and encourages the mentee to comply with the mentor's directives, duplicate the mentor's values and follow in the mentor's footsteps (Cloning Style); (2) I think that effective mentoring is when the mentor serves as a parental figure and creates a safe, nurturing open environment for the mentee to learn and try new things (Parental Style); (3) I think that effective mentoring is when the mentor and mentee do not share a hierarchical relationship and instead have a collaborative and co-constructive friendship (Friendship Style); (4) I think that effective mentoring is when the mentor works with the mentee in an apprentice-type relationship where the mentor serves as the "teacher" and the mentee is the "student" who learns the profession from the mentor(Apprentice Style); (5) I think that mentoring is essential for women who want to pursue a career in a collegiate athletic department; (6) I think that networking with other professionals in athletics is important for advancing in collegiate athletics; (7) I think having a strong personal support system is important for women pursing a career in a collegiate athletic department; (8) I think having a strong support system within the collegiate athletic department is important for women pursuing a career in athletics; and 9) I think that it is important for women working in collegiate athletic departments to be supportive of other women in athletics.

Pathways.

Fourteen questions asked participants to share information about their professional progress to the AD role. Additionally, questions asked about their length of

service, career path and prior job roles, perceptions of opportunities at different levels

within the NCAA, and information about prior student-athlete experience. These

questions, when combined, help describe the characteristics of the current women ADs

and identify common paths women have taken in their careers. Characteristics of women

ADs were identified through demographic questions about their age, race, and highest

level of education completed. Additionally, participants were asked if they had beena

high school or collegiate athlete or coach. If they served as an athlete or coach,

participants were asked to indicate the sports in which they participated. To complete the

profile of women ADs, participants were asked to share information about the division in

which they currently work, prior collegiate athletic experience and level, years of

administrative experience and titles of prior administrative positions, and whether they

previously served as a SWA.

Divisions.

Division level (I, II, or III) was used as an independent variable to answer the

research questions. Since the NCAA has three distinct classifications and each division

has different requirements for its program, this will give a distinction between what the

female ADs experience in their position and division.

Analysis

Data were analyzed using SPSS v.22. Mean and standard deviations were

reported for each variable. Comparisons between divisions were made to determine if

there were any differences between the three divisions on the dependent measures.

Comparisons between lengths of service were also made to determine if length of service

resulted in differences in perception of mentorship among the women ADs. The results

for these questions were analyzed using the percentages of responses for each level of agreement (strongly disagree to strongly agree). In some cases, *disagree* (strongly disagree and disagree) and *agree* (strongly agree and agree) options were truncated to create an agree-disagree dichotomy for analysis purposes.

Chapter 4: Results

Sample Demographics

   The survey sample is comprised of 93 female ADs out of the 216 who received the survey, which is a 43% ($N = 93$) return rate. Of the respondents, 12% ($n = 11$) are from DI, 28% ($n = 26$) are from DII, and 60% ($n = 56$) are from DIII. The 11 DI respondents represent 30% of the (36) women ADs in the division; the 26 from DII constitute 46% of the (60) women ADs; and the 56 from DIII represent 44% of the (129) of women in these roles. Average age of the participants is 51 years old. They have worked in athletics for an average of 26 years and have served in the AD position for an average of 11 years. Eighty percent of the female AD participants are Caucasian ($n = 75$), 11% ($n = 10$) are African American, 2% ($n = 2$) are Asian American, and 6% ($n = 6$) chose not to answer.

   Table 1 shows the breakdown of athletic and coaching experiences among participants are as follows: 93% ($n = 87$) of women ADs were high school athletes. As noted in Table 1, the top five sports played in high school among the women ADs were basketball (85%, $n = 74$), softball (55%, $n = 48$), volleyball (39%, $n = 34$), track and field (36%, $n = 31$), and soccer (18%, $n = 16$).

   Eighty three percent ($n = 77$) went from being a high school athlete to being a college athlete. As shown in Table 1, the top five college sports changed from the high school sports. Those top sports played during college were basketball (61%, $n = 51$), swimming and diving (35%, $n = 27$), volleyball (29%, $n = 22$), field hockey (17%, $n = 13$), and lacrosse (10%, $n = 8$). Eight-four percent ($n = 78$) of the women ADs have experience transitioning from the role of collegiate athlete to collegiate coach.

Table 1: Pathway of the Female ADs

Item	Overall (N= 93)				DI (n = 11)				DII (n = 26)				DIII (n = 56)			
	HS	CA	Coach	SWA	HS	CA	Coach	SWA	HS	CA	Coach	SWA	HS	CA	Coach	SWA
Participated	94%	83%	84%	82%	82%	64%	46%	91%	89%	77%	77%	89%	98%	89%	95%	77%
Basketball	79%	55%	59%	NA	82%	46%	36%	NA	77%	50%	58%	NA	80%	59%	64%	NA
Bowling	0%	0%	0%	NA	0%	0%	0%	NA	0%	0%	0%	NA	0%	0%	0%	NA
Cross Country	5%	1%	1%	NA	9%	0%	0%	NA	4%	4%	4%	NA	5%	0%	0%	NA
Fencing	0%	0%	0%	NA	0%	0%	0%	NA	0%	0%	0%	NA	0%	0%	0%	NA
Field Hockey	16%	14%	9%	NA	0%	9%	0%	NA	12%	12%	0%	NA	21%	16%	14%	NA
Golf	4%	1%	7%	NA	0%	0%	0%	NA	8%	0%	8%	NA	4%	2%	7%	NA
Gymnastics	0%	0%	0%	NA	0%	0%	0%	NA	0%	0%	0%	NA	0%	0%	0%	NA
Ice Hockey	1%	0%	0%	NA	0%	0%	0%	NA	4%	0%	0%	NA	0%	0%	0%	NA
Lacrosse	2%	10%	6%	NA	0%	0%	0%	NA	0%	4%	0%	NA	4%	14%	11%	NA
Rifle	0%	0%	0%	NA	0%	0%	0%	NA	0%	0%	0%	NA	0%	0%	0%	NA
Rowing	2%	3%	1%	NA	0%	0%	0%	NA	8%	8%	4%	NA	0%	2%	0%	NA
Skiing	2%	0%	0%	NA	0%	0%	0%	NA	4%	0%	0%	NA	2%	0%	0%	NA
Soccer	17%	5|%	7%	NA	9%	0%	9%	NA	27%	0%	4%	NA	14%	9%	7%	NA
Swim & Diving	3%	29%	38%	NA	0%	0%	27%	NA	0%	35%	35%	NA	5%	32%	41%	NA
Softball	52%	1%	2%	NA	46%	0%	0%	NA	39%	0%	0%	NA	59%	2%	4%	NA
Tennis	13%	9%	17%	NA	9%	18%	9%	NA	12%	4%	19%	NA	14%	9%	18%	NA
Track & Field	33%	6%	10%	NA	37%	0%	9%	NA	27%	8%	12%	NA	36%	7%	11%	NA
Volleyball	37%	24%	36%	NA	46%	27%	27%	NA	35%	23%	31%	NA	36%	23%	39%	NA
Water Polo	0%	0%	0%	NA	0%	0%	0%	NA	0%	0%	0%	NA	0%	0%	0%	NA
Other	2%	0%	5%	NA	0%	0%	0%	NA	4%	0%	4%	NA	2%	0%	7%	NA

Organizational Barriers

In order to assess RQ1, which asked participants to share their level of agreement with a series of statements about barriers toward promotion to AD, responses to Likert scale questions were evaluated. Thirteen questions asked participants about their positive and negative perceptions about attitudes toward women, the value of women leaders, experiences with discrimination, and opportunities for advancement (see Table 2). As Table 2 shows, responses of all participants to the 13 questions about barriers show some interesting results.

Table 2: Overall Summary about Barriers by NCAA Division:

Questions	Mean	SD	DA	N	A	SA
			Overall Total (N = 93)*			
Women working in collegiate athletic departments are viewed positively.	3.86	0% (0)	5% (*n* = 5)	12% (11)	74% (69)	9% (8)
Women working in collegiate athletic departments are viewed negatively.	2.12	12% (11)	70% (65)	13% (12)	5% (5)	0% (0)
Other people view women as capable leaders in collegiate athletic departments	3.78	0% (0)	9% (8)	14%(13)	68% (63)	10% (9)
Other people view the contributions that women ADs make to their collegiate athletic departments as valuable.	3.87	0% (0)	4% (4)	15% (14)	70% (69)	11% (10)
Women have a difficult time advancing to upper-level administration position within collegiate athletic departments.	3.70	1% (1)	13% (12)	10% (9)	68% (63)	9% (8)
I have experienced gender discrimination at different points during my tenure in collegiate athletic administration.	3.51	4% (4)	22% (20)	12% (11)	44% (41)	18% (17)
I have witnessed other women be discriminated against based on gender during their career in collegiate athletic administration.	3.72	2% (2)	13% (12)	17% (16)	46% (43)	22% (20)
I think that women have a better chance of getting a promotion in collegiate athletic administration if, they are willing to work at a school that does not have a strong athletic program.	2.98	4% (4)	33% (31)	27% (25)	31% (29)	4% (4)
I think that women are happier being in supporting roles.	2.47	14% (13)	38% (35)	36% (33)	13% (12)	0% (0)
I think that a lack of formal mentoring for women in athletics is keeping women from advancing to upper level management positions within collegiate athletic departments.	2.98	3% (3)	34% (32)	28% (26)	30% (28)	4% (4)
I think that most collegiate athletic departments function as an old boys' club, which prohibits women from advancing their careers.	3.62	1% (1)	11% (10)	24% (22)	54% (50)	11% (10)
I think that there are not enough opportunities available for women to advance in collegiate athletic departments.	3.12	3% (3)	32% (30)	17% (16)	44% (41)	3% (3)
I think women are not very interested in advancing to the highest positions within collegiate athletic department.	2.30	19% (18)	46% (43)	19% (18)	15% (14)	0% (0)
I think that there is a perception among some people that women are not capable of leading collegiate athletic departments.	3.73	1% (1)	13% (12)	10% (11)	62% (58)	13% (12)
I think women have made great strides in advancing to senior positions in collegiate athletic departments.	3.71	2% (2)	8% (7)	18% (17)	60% (56)	11% (10)

* Percentage is followed by n within column, % (*n* = #)

One finding was that women working in college athletics were viewed favorably, as

results of the statement, "Women working in collegiate athletic departments are viewed

positively" received 83% ($n = 77$) agreement among the women, with 9% ($n = 8$) of those agreeing strongly about the positive views of women. Additionally, when asked to express their agreement about whether "Women working in collegiate athletic departments are viewed negatively," only 5% ($n = 5$) of women agreed and none of the women strongly agreed. Thus, these two questions confirm the perception of women that they are viewed positively in their roles.

However, for five of the 13 questions, more than half of the women either agreed or strongly agreed that the more than half of the women either agreed or strongly agreed to the existence of barriers that the statement articulated. For example, when asked if "women have a difficult time advancing to upper-level management positions in collegiate athletic departments" 68% ($n = 63$) agreed and an additional 9% ($n = 8$) strongly agreed that women face advancement difficulty. Thus, 77% ($n = 71$) of women agreed that women in athletic departments face difficulty advancing in athletics. The women also indicated that discrimination was a barrier. Almost two thirds, 62% ($n = 41$, 44% agree; $n = 17$, 18% strongly agree) indicated that they had experienced gender discrimination, while 68% ($n = 63$) expressed some level of agreement ($n = 43$:46% agree; $n = 20$, 22% strongly agree) that they had witnessed discrimination against women in athletics. These percentages may not capture all women who have experienced or witnessed some form of discrimination, since an additional 12% ($n = 11$) indicated a neutral, or unsure, response to the "experiencing discrimination" statement and 17% ($n =16$) expressed uncertainty with regard to the "witness discrimination" statement. Thus, only 27% ($n = 24$) of women indicated no experience with discrimination (either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement) and only 15% ($n = 14$) of women indicated that they have never witnessed discrimination against women in college athletics.

While the source of discrimination was not assessed, women did indicate that the old boys' network remains in place. When asked their level of agreement with the statement, "I think most collegiate athletic departments function like old boys' clubs, which prohibits women from advancing their career," 54% ($n = 50$) agreed and another 11% ($n = 10$) strongly agreed with this statement. Thus, 65% ($n = 60$) of women, or about two-thirds, expressed a view that suggests the old boys' network is an obstacle to women in collegiate athletics. Furthermore, participants were strong in their agreement that perceptions of women as leaders are not favorable. Only 14% ($n = 13$) of women strongly disagreed (1%, $n = 1$) or disagreed (13%, $n = 12$) with the statement inquiring about perceptions of women as leaders. Thus, three quarters, 75% ($n = 70$), agreed on some level that women are not viewed as capable leaders of athletic departments.

While these five questions received the largest amount of agreement among the women, other questions about barriers also identified perceptions about additional obstacles that women ADs may face. For example, when asked, "I think that women have a better chance of getting a promotion in collegiate athletic administration if they are willing to work at a school that does not have a strong athletic program," 35% ($n = 33$) agreed with this statement on some level and 37% ($n = 36$) disagreed on some level. The remainder of women, 27%, ($n = 25$), indicated a neutral or no opinion response to this question. So, the institutional characteristics (e.g., strong athletic program or weak athletic program) appear to play a role in responses of these women.

In order to answer research question 1a, responses were analyzed based on the division for which the women are currently affiliated. Since Table 2 shows the full breakdown of responses using the 5-point Likert scale, Table 3 collapses the "agree" and "strongly agree" responses to show an overall level of agreement to each statement.

Table 3: Views about Barriers by NCAA Division:

Questions	DI (n =11)	DII (n =26)	DIII (n = 56)
Women working in collegiate athletic departments are viewed positively.	100% (11)	73% (19)	84% (47)
Women working in collegiate athletic departments are viewed negatively.	0% (0)	12% (3)	4% (2)
Other people view women as capable leaders in collegiate athletic departments	73% (8)	69% (18)	80% (45)
Other people view the contributions that women ADs make to their collegiate athletic departments as valuable.	90% (10)	85% (22)	77% (43)
Women have a difficult time advancing to upper-level administration position within collegiate athletic departments.	90% (10)	77% (20)	73% (41)
I have experienced gender discrimination at different points during my tenure in collegiate athletic administration.	55% (6)	69% (18)	60% (34)
I have witnessed other women be discriminated against based on gender during their career in collegiate athletic administration.	82% (9)	73% (19)	63% (35)
I think that women have a better chance of getting a promotion in collegiate athletic administration if, they are willing to work at a school that does not have a strong athletic program.	18% (2)	54% (14)	39% (17)
I think that women are happier being in supporting roles.	9% (1)	23% (6)	9% (5)
I think that a lack of formal mentoring for women in athletics is keeping women from advancing to upper level management positions within collegiate athletic departments.	46% (5)	27% (7)	36% (20)
I think that most collegiate athletic departments function as an old boys' club, which prohibits women from advancing their careers.	73% (8)	65% (17)	60% (34)
I think that there are not enough opportunities available for women to advance in collegiate athletic departments.	46% (5)	42% (11)	48% (27)
I think women are not very interested in advancing to the highest positions within collegiate athletic department.	18% (2)	19% (5)	13% (7)
I think that there is a perception among some people that women are not capable of leading collegiate athletic departments.	82% (9)	77% (18)	71% (40)
I think women have made great strides in advancing to senior positions in collegiate athletic departments.	73% (8)	73% (19)	68% (38)

* Percentage is followed by n within column, % (*n* = #)

The breakdown of responses for DI is shown in Table 2. The women in DI athletic

departments reported 100% (*n* = 11) that the attitudes towards women in athletics are positive

and they are viewed as capable leaders once they are in their roles, and 73% (*n* = 8) reported they

are viewed as having valuable contributions. For DII, like DI, a large percentage of women, 73%

($n = 19$), reported that attitudes towards women in athletics are positive. In DIII, 84% ($n = 47$) of women expressed agreement that women are viewed positively. Furthermore, 73% ($n = 8$) of DI ADs indicated that women are viewed as capable leaders, whereas, those percentages for DII (85%, $n = 22$) and DIII (80%, n = 46) were slightly higher. Overall, respondents indicated that women are view positively.

The more than 15% difference across divisions suggests that division may play a role in shaping the attitudes of women. There are observed barriers that keep women from moving up in collegiate athletics. It is noteworthy that the difference in percentages across division are largest for the question regarding the old boys' club is 82% ($n = 9$) of the respondents in DI stated that the old boys' club is still present within athletic departments. For DII and DIII the numbers are slightly low at 65% (n = 18) and 60% (n = 34), respectively. Women in DI schools also were more likely to report that they have witnessed gender discrimination (82%, $n = 9$), where the responses were less 73% (n = 19) for DII and 63% (n = 35) for DIII. The respondents reported that they had experienced gender discrimination 54% ($n = 6$) for DI, and it is a little higher for women in DII 69% (n = 18) and for DIII it was 60% (n = 34). When asked about motivation to advance, the percentages of ADs indicating they believe that women are interested in advancing were nearly identical: 73% ($n = 8$) of DI, 73% (n = 19) of DII, and 77% (n = 43) of DIII.

Career Pathways

RQ2 inquired about the career pathways of women ADs and included questions about their prior sports participation, the types of sports they played, their participation in professional associations for athletics, and participation in professional athletic administration associations comprised of only women. The large majority of women, 94% ($n = 87$), were a high school

athlete, 83% ($n = 77$) were a college athlete, and 84% ($n = 78$) served as a coach at some point in their careers. While the overall results suggest high levels of background as an athlete and coach among women ADs, there are some interesting differences when the results are explored by division. As Table 1 shows, the percentage of women who participated in sports while a high school student show at least 82% participation across divisions (82%, $n = 9$ DI, 89%, $n = 20$ DII, and 98%, $n = 55$ DIII); however, the numbers of college athletes show more discrepancy. Only 64% ($n = 7$) of DI ADs were college athletes, whereas 77% ($n = 20$) of DII and 89% ($n = 50$) of DIII were college athletes. Perhaps the biggest observed percentage differences came in response to the question about prior coaching experience. While the overwhelming majority of DIII respondents reported a coaching background, 95% ($n = 53$), only 77% ($n = 20$) of DII and 46% ($n = 5$) of DI respondents were coaches at some point in their careers.

Table 4 shows that DI ($n = 11$) and DII ($n = 26$) or 100% of the women responded that they are involved in professional organizations, such as the National Association of Collegiate Directors of Athletics (NACDA) and National Interscholastic Athletic Administrators Association (NIAAA), whereas DIII is 96% ($n = 56$). Eighty-one percent ($n = 8$) of DI ADs reported belonging to the all- female organization National Association of Collegiate Women Athletics Administrators (NACWAA), while DII they are 92% ($n = 24$) and DIII reported 78% ($n = 44$) are involved.

Table 4: Female ADs Activity in Professional Organizations:

Question	Overall ($n = 93$)	DI ($n = 11$)	DII ($n = 26$)	DIII ($n = 56$)
Are you currently or have you in the past been a member of an organization for professionals working in athletics?	98%(91)	100%(11)	100%(26)	96%(54)
Are you currently or have you in the past been a member of an all-female professional organization?	83%(77)	81%(9)	92%(24)	78%(44)

* Percentage is followed by n within column, % (n = #)

Mentoring

Research question 3 asked participants about the role of mentoring in their professional careers. Dichotomous response questions, yes/no, were used to identify whether women had professional mentors, served as mentors to others, and whether they had informal mentors. Additionally, dichotomous response options were presented for questions about male and female mentors the may have had. Following the dichotomous response options, participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement with nine Likert scale questions assessing four types of mentoring styles, informal mentoring, and the importance of support systems in their personal lives and in their careers.

When asked about the presence of a current mentor (see Table 5), 50% ($n = 46$) of all respondents indicated the existence of a mentor in their careers currently. Of those with a mentor, 39% ($n = 18$ of 46) have a male mentor and 61% ($n = 28$) have a female mentor. Although half of the participants are without a mentor currently, the majority of women (61%, $n = 57$) indicate that they have had a formal mentor at some point in their careers. As with the prior response, the majority of formal mentors have been female (65%, $n = 37$). Almost two-thirds (64%, $n = 59$) of the women ADs are serving as mentors to other professionals. While the large majority is serving as mentors to other women (93%, $n = 55$), some are serving as mentors to men (13%, $n = 8$). Interestingly, four women ADs indicated that they have at least two mentees, because they responded that they were mentors to both a male and a female.

Table 5: Mentoring Status by NCAA Division:

Question	Overall (n =93)	DI (n = 11)	DII (n = 26)	DIII (n = 56)
I currently have a person in my life that I consider to be a formal mentor.	50%(46)	82%(9)	53%(14)	41% (23)
	N=46	*n = 9*	*n = 14*	*n = 23*
My current professional mentor is a man.	39% (18)	56%(5)	57%(8)	22% (5)
My current professional mentor is a woman.	61%(28)	44% (4)	43% (6)	78% (18)
In the past I have had a person in my life that I consider to be a formal mentor.	61%(57)	91%(10)	65% (17)	54% (30)
	n = 57	*n = 10*	*n = 17*	*n = 30*
My current professional mentor is a man.	30%(17)	56% (5)	41% (7)	23% (7)
My current professional mentor is a woman.	65%(37)	67% (6)	65% (11)	73% (22)
Are you currently serving as a professional mentor to a mentee in collegiate athletics?	64%(59)	46% (6)	61% (16)	66% (37)
	n = 59	*n = 6*	*n = 16*	*n = 37*
My current professional mentor is a man.	13%(8)	17% (1)	19% (3)	11% (4)
My current professional mentor is a woman.	93% (55)	100% (6)	88% (14)	95%(33)
I currently have a person in my life that I consider to be an informal mentor.	79%(73)	100%(11)	73%(19)	77%(43)
I have in the past had a person in my life that I consider to be an informal mentor.	21%(60)	64%(7)	58%(15)	64%(36)

* Percentage is followed by n within column, %(*n* = #)

When mentoring style was evaluated, it is clear that women prefer either friendship or apprentice style mentoring models. Table 6 shows the breakdown for percentages of agreement or disagreement to four statements asking about mentoring styles. More than half of the women, 56% (*n* = 52), indicated either agreement (40%, *n* = 37) or strong agreement (16%, *n* = 15) that the friendship styles was their preferred mentoring approach. Additionally, more than half (55%, *n* =51) agreed that the apprentice style was preferred, with 47% (*n* = 44) agreeing with this approach and 8% (*n* = 7) strongly agreed that this approach was effective. A large number of respondents, *n* = 25 and *n* = 30, neither agreed nor disagreed that friendship or apprentice styles,

respectively, were effective. Since some ADs have not served as mentors or have not been

mentored, it is possible that the large number of undecided responses indicate unfamiliarity with

the mentoring style. The women overwhelming disagreed that "cloning" style was effective,

with 67% ($n = 62$) indicating strong disagreement and another 25% ($n = 23$) expressing

disagreement about the effectiveness of cloning. Only three women agreed or strongly agreed

that cloning style of mentoring was effective.

Table 6: Views on Mentoring by NCAA Divisions:

Questions	MEAN	SDA	D	N	A	SA
I think that effective mentoring is when the mentor controls the mentee and encourages the mentee to comply with the mentor's directives, duplicate the mentor's values and follow in the mentor's footsteps.	1.46	67%(62)	25% (23)	5% (5)	2% (2)	1% (1)
I think that effective mentoring is when the mentor serves as a parental figure and creates a safe, nurturing open environment for the mentee to learn and try new things.	2.82	13% (12)	29% (27)	25% (23)	30% (28)	3% (3)
I think that effective mentoring is when the mentor and mentee do not share a hierarchical relationship and instead have a collaborative and co-constructive friendship.	3.53	2% (2)	15% (14)	27% (25)	40% (37)	16% (15)
I think that effective mentoring is when the mentor works with the mentee in an apprentice-type relationship where the mentor serves as the "teacher" and the mentee is the "student" who learns the profession from the mentor.	3.49	0% (0)	13% (12)	32% (30)	47% (44)	8% (7)
I think that mentoring is essential for women who want to pursue a career in a collegiate athletic department.	4.02	0% (0)	7% (6)	14% (13)	52% (48)	27% (25)
I think that networking with other professionals in athletics is important for advancing in collegiate athletics.	4.56	0% (0)	1% (1)	2% (2)	37% (34)	60% (56)
I think having a strong personal support system is important for women pursing a career in a collegiate athletic department.	4,54	0% (0)	0% (0)	2% (2)	42%	56%
I think having a strong support system within the collegiate athletic department is important for women pursuing a career in athletics.	4.31	0% (0)	2% (2)	8% (7)	47%	43%
I think that it is important for women working in collegiate athletic departments to be supportive of other women in athletics.	4.56	0% (0)	1% (1)	2% (2)	37% (34)	60% (56)

* Percentage is followed by n within column, %(n = #)

The data also suggest very clear patterns among the women with regard to perceptions of the value of mentoring. When asked to respond to the statement, "I think mentoring is essential for women who want to pursue a career in college athletic departments," 79% (52%, n = 48

agreed; 27%, n =25 strongly agreed) agreed that mentoring is essential. Another 14% (n =13)

neither agreed nor disagreed that mentoring was essential, meaning that only 7% (n = 6)

disagreed about the importance of mentoring. The importance of support systems was also very

clear based on the results. Overwhelming agreement or strong agreement existed that personal

(98%, n =91) support systems are important, and 90% (n = 84) agreed or strongly agreed that

professional support systems are important to women.

When mentoring is explored across divisions (see table 7), the results suggest that

mentoring is important in each division. The top mentor style for DI ADs reported that 64% (n =

7) preferred the apprentice-type, followed by friendship at 54% (n = 6), and parental in the

middle with 36% (n = 4). For DII, respondents also preferred apprentice-type 52% (n = 13),

followed by friendship at 44% (n = 12). For DIII, respondents preferred friendship 60% (n = 34),

followed by apprentice-type at 49% (n = 28). Eighty- two percent (n = 9) of DI ADs that

answered the questions about mentoring, networking, and support systems believe that

mentoring, networking, and supports systems are important for women to advance in athletic

departments. For DII and DIII they also believe that mentoring, networking and support systems

are important for women to advance within the athletic department.

Table 7: Views on Mentoring by NCAA Divisions:

Questions	DI (n = 11)	DII (n = 26)	DIII (n = 56)
I think that effective mentoring is when the mentor controls the mentee and encourages the mentee to comply with the mentor's directives, duplicate the mentor's values and follow in the mentor's footsteps.	12% (2)	4% (1)	2% (1)
I think that effective mentoring is when the mentor serves as a parental figure and creates a safe, nurturing open environment for the mentee to learn and try new things.	18%% (2)	44% (11)	36% (20)
I think that effective mentoring is when the mentor and mentee do not share a hierarchical relationship and instead have a collaborative and co-constructive friendship.	67% (6)	44% (11)	60% (34)
I think that effective mentoring is when the mentor works with the mentee in an apprentice-type relationship where the mentor serves as the "teacher" and the mentee is the "student" who learns the profession from the mentor.	78% (7)	52% (13)	49% (27)
I think that mentoring is essential for women who want to pursue a career in a collegiate athletic department.	89% (8)	80% (19)	75% (42)
I think that networking with other professionals in athletics is important for advancing in collegiate athletics.	100% (11)	92% (23)	96% (54)
I think having a strong personal support system is important for women pursing a career in a collegiate athletic department.	100% (11)	96% (24)	94% (53)
I think having a strong support system within the collegiate athletic department is important for women pursuing a career in athletics.	89% (8)	88% (21)	90% (50)
I think that it is important for women working in collegiate athletic departments to be supportive of other women in athletics.	100% (11)	96% (24)	96% (54)

*Percentage is followed by n within column, %(n = #)

Chapter 5: Discussion

Organizational Barriers

When it comes to organizational barriers, the glass ceiling and the old boys' club are still there, according to this study's respondents' perceptions. In fact, some might say that women are having more struggles than 40 years ago because of the NCAA's absorption of the AIAW, simply by considering the decline of the numbers of women in AD positions. Grappendorf and Lough (2006) reported that since the passage of Title IX and the takeover of the AIAW by the NCAA, it has been a tough for females to advance within athletic departments because of the declining numbers. Past research (Hoffman, 2010; LaVoi 2014, 2015; Acosta and Carpenter 1988, 2000, 2002, 2004, 2008, 2012; Lumpkin et al. 2014) has shown the decrease in the number of women working in administrative roles within athletic departments. This study reported that the current number of women in AD positions across the divisions represents slightly less than 20% of the total number. A logical conclusion to draw would be that as numbers of females decrease or remains significantly smaller than the number of males in power positions, the barriers such as the glass ceiling and old boys' club grow or remain static, rather than decreasing. Women lack the communication ability to have their perceptions heard because they do not control the language structure of the dominant group, do not have access to the power centers, and are not recognized as having a different perspective than the men in charge. A simple example of the dominant group's language control was the creation of a position labeled the "Senior Woman Administrator" or as noted by Hoffman (2010) re-titled the SWA the "Sole Woman Administrator" in recognition that she is the only female sitting at the boardroom table at most DI universities. This type of sexist

language (as with "male nurse" or "woman professor") creates a gender perspective that may subtly influence our thoughts or expectations about roles and appropriate occupations for the sexes. When people use sexist language, repetition normalizes it to a perspective where men are the norm and women the "other." In this case, the SWA title may cause people to exclude women from other positions without "woman" in the title. People gain knowledge based on their position in society, and those in power possess knowledge that is different from those who are not in power. Fewer women means that there are fewer voices from that standpoint, and discrimination might go unrecognized by those people in charge, which is men in AD positions. Standpoint Theory asserts that a group's position within the social structure provides a perspective and the ability to make sense of the world. A dominant standpoint is harmful, because it structures how others must live and the choices they can make by establishing rules, language, and roles acceptable in that culture. The subordinate group must always struggle against this power position. The theory also notes that communication is responsible for shaping our standpoints, because we learn our place through interaction with others. For women athletic directors, these standpoints involve having to deal with discrimination caused by the glass ceiling, old boys' network, and uneven mentoring opportunities, among other factors.

In an attempt to discover the standpoints of women, this study gathered the perceptions of women ADs, who reported that they are seeing discrimination throughout the three divisions, with DI having the highest number of women (89%; $n = 9$) reporting witnessing gender discrimination. While the type and source of discrimination was not part of this study, it is likely that gender was one of the factors, especially since in DI,

women represent only 6.5% of the (36) total number of ADs. Gender is a routine factor of organizational life, according to Mumby (2013), and it defines how we see others and ourselves. Organizations are a culture that promotes a gendered perspective on rules and roles, potentially leading to limits on participants. This study discovered that in each division, the respondents felt that others view women as not capable of leading athletic departments. As Standpoint Theory suggests, membership in groups such as those designated by gender, race, class, and sexual identity shapes what the individual experiences (Wood, 2015).

In other organizational scenarios, such as business, higher education, and advertising, women have had to push through the glass ceiling. The glass ceiling effect might also be shown by women's sense of what advancement the system will allow them to achieve. This was demonstrated in the present study when DI ADs stated their beliefs that women should keep aiming for DI positions, but women in DII and DIII reported that women would make more headway in smaller programs or programs that do not have strong athletic programs. Gender is a routine factor of organizational life, promoting a gendered perspective that potentially leads to restrictions on members. These limits end up guiding not only how we see others, but how we define ourselves. While some women will want to remain in DII and DIII, their gender should not limit them if they want to y work in DI. The perceptual divide between the divisions could create mental barriers that continue to hold women back from advancing into DI schools. This is supported by this study's finding of the percentage difference of women in different divisions, which was also found by Lumpkin et al. (2014), who noted that there are more women working in schools that do not have strong athletic programs. Currently, of the total 1,127 ADs

across the three divisions, there are 216 women (19.2%) who hold AD positions across the three divisions (DI, DII, & DIII). Men hold 911, or 81%, of the AD positions. The number of women who work in each of the NCAA divisions is as follows: thirty-six (36) or 10% women in DI; sixty (60) or 19% women in DII; and one hundred and twenty-nine (129) or 28% women in DIII. This difference, especially in DI schools, is assumed by this researcher to be caused by the dominance of football teams in DI schools, as noted by Lumpkin et al. (2014). While after Title IX more women began playing sports and funding for women's sports has increased, women are not football players except in rare instances, and even then, only as tokens. What may be at play here, then, is the way that the divisions "do gender," meaning that the way that gender has become encoded and then enacted in multiple ways. In divisions where athletics is not as defining or doesn't bring in as much money, more women may be able to serve in leadership positions because they are not bound by institutional barriers They are permitted to achieve more, and the glass ceiling effect is less. However, that is not to assert that there is no glass ceiling; this study finds that across divisions, there is a difference in women's perceptions about which organizations will encourage advancement. As a reminder, multiple studies (DePauw et al., 1991; Hoffman, 2010; Acosta & Carpenter, 2012), have reported that the number of women holding leadership positions, in particular as AD, has declined. Thus, the standpoint of women in DI and the standpoint of those in DII and DIII may be different in terms of their perceptions of how to advance; yet they all report that the glass ceiling is in effect.

It could be that the female ADs in DI schools are reporting a standpoint that defines their outsider within position differently from those in other divisions. Collins

(1986, 1991) defined the "outsider within" as a person who has gained some access to the inside, despite being marginalized by other factors. This person is more able to gain knowledge beyond what is typically available to someone in her position. Because DI schools are perceived as the most powerful division due to size, finance, and athletic activity, those women who lead the athletic departments in such schools likely have a different standpoint view from female counterparts in other divisions. According to Standpoint Theory, in order to reach their position, these women have resisted society's limiting view of them. Future research could focus on this group, seeking insight into how they have managed to overcome the discrimination that they reported seeing, which was discussed in this study.

Expectations of gender roles are exhibited by leadership positions, participation expectations, barriers placed by unspoken assumptions, and a host of other organizational cultural activities. From the standpoint of women ADs in the different NCAA divisions, such organizational barriers continue to limit their ability to advance.

Pathways

The pathways to achieving the athletic director position differ the most between DI and DIII. The majority (95%; $n = 53$) of the women in DIII had been coaches before moving into administration roles. This is an observed difference from those who are working in DI (46%; $n = 5$) or DII (77%; $n = 20$). This may be due to the size difference in athletic departments where there are more opportunities for women to work in alternative administrative roles, such as in DI. In smaller divisions, there are fewer administrative roles that might lead towards advancement. What is unclear is if there are other organizationally-developed assumptions that create a subordinate-dominant

standpoint that presumes how a woman can rise to leadership. If the assumption is that in order to be an AD, one must first have been a coach (because a coach is a leader), then coaches are likely to become ADs. If the assumption is that people must prove themselves capable of leadership by succeeding at multiple administrative activities, then being a coach is less important. Advancement is limited to assumptions about their prior positions, rather than a host of personal qualities. Wood (1992, p. 6) pointed out these subordinate-dominant standpoints, saying that cultural conditions "typically surrounding women's lives produce experiences and understandings that routinely differ from those produced by the conditions framing men's lives." While this study sought out the experiences of women in the different divisions, what is lacking is a comparison of the men holding the same job to see if women's pathway experiences are different from men's. But because women are outsiders to the dominant group of men who determine the pathway to advancement, they likely have difficulty accessing knowledge and the people needed for advancement, as well as the communication patterns necessary to present their standpoints.

Mentoring

As noted earlier, previous research suggests that one of the ways that helps women break through the glass ceiling is through mentoring. Standpoint Theory suggests that people gain knowledge based on their position in society, and those in power possess knowledge that is different from those not in power. Communication is responsible for shaping our standpoints, because we learn our place through interaction with others. Mentoring is one way to share that knowledge. It assumes that those who share a

standpoint will share certain communication styles and practices. It increases the opportunities for networking with others, and that could lead to a sharing of standpoints.

Of the women who had mentors throughout their career, the majority was in DI, where it was reported that over 50% of the women had male mentors. This is an observed difference from women who responded that work in DIII, where only 5% reported having male mentors over their careers. This would suggest that women who have male mentors may have had doors opened to them that women who do not have male mentors do not have access to. Previously reported research suggested that the old boys' club includes specific language and banter, as well as perceived similarity of attitudes and behaviors. It may be that creating that bond with a male mentor may give women access to the old boys' club that they cannot otherwise access. A male mentor for a female who wants to advance in her career may also discover that the gender-based construction of athletics as a masculine workplace should be altered. This type of sharing can lead to an exploration of the ways that gender becomes encoded and communicated in multiple and complex ways in daily organizational life. Women who have male mentors may have a clearer insight in to the male standpoint and how men process information.

The mentoring roles are reversed as when respondents were asked if they are actively serving as mentors. DIII ADs report that the majority of them are serving as mentors for other women. On the other hand, the majority of ADs in DI are not serving as mentors; however, those few that are mentoring report that they are currently serving in this role to other women. One indicator as to why this may be is that there are more women in DIII who are in leadership positions; thus, they are present to work with other

women. Additionally, the NACWAA provides a mentoring program, and since DIII

women in this study are more active in NACWAA, they are more likely to be involved in

mentoring. Finally, the overall time commitment of the position varies depending on the

size of the department. Therefore, DIII ADs may have more time to invest in mentoring.

All of these factors should lead to a decrease in the numbers of outsiders within among

the women ADs, because they are being brought into the fold rather than being excluded

from participation.

This study also asked about mentor styles as developed by Buell (2004). The

women across all three divisions on average of 56% ($n = 52$) of them acknowledged that

they mostly preferred that the mentor with whom they worked collaboratively. This is

what Buell classifies as the friendship model, where the mentor and mentee are seen as

peers rather than being involved in a hierarchical relationship, and collaborative,

reciprocal, mutual engagement is the norm. This would be consistent with the stereotypes

of women in their preference and focus on relationships, as Buell noted. It is crucial for

the women who are in these positions to take an active role in the promotion and

recruitment of other women who aspire to the athletic directors' position. Networking

with other women in athletic administration will help increase the number of female

colleagues (Whisenant, Pedersen, & Obenour, 2002).

The other style of mentor that the women preferred is the apprenticeship style. It

was ranked the most preferred by women in DI at 78% ($n = 7$), DII at 52% ($n = 13$), and

DIII 49% ($n = 27$). Buell (2004) defined this style as one where the apprentice learns the

trade through the mentors' eyes, more so than under the nurturing model or the cloning

model. The apprenticeship style maybe the one that works best for a male-female

mentoring relationship, because its style offers men and women the opportunity to grow as individuals and the ability to have doors open for them, which in turn give them access to the old boys' club through experience. This style is largely "hands-off" model that involves mentoring without moving into the more personal or social aspects (Buell, 2004). Therefore, the concern of personal relationships does not overshadow the relationship.

The other two styles of mentoring, cloning and nurturing, were not as highly favored by the women in this study. It may be because the cloning model likely will not work with male-female mentors because men and women do not incorporate the same values, and this relationship would not grow. The cloning model operates when a mentor seeks to produce a duplicate copy of him or herself from a top-down position. It is the hierarchy through which the old boys' club is being perpetuated. It is not surprising that this style was not identified as desirable by the women in this study, because maintaining that network would not grant them access to power centers, and they might find it difficult to duplicate a male perspective.

While 33% ($n = 31$) of the respondents felt that the nurturing model might work for some of the women within athletics. The problem with nurturing mentoring as that it creates an unequal relationship where the mentor appears to have an upper hand in the relationship. The potential problem with male-female mentor relationship is this may put the male into a father figure role, from which he may not be as willing to bring the females into the old boys' club. It may be that some men are not comfortable in fostering a nurturing role for fear of accusations of sexual impropriety. The potential problem with the nurturing style for women-women relationships is that the mentee may perceive this

as a position where she must look for approval from the mentor. In addition, assuming that women are by nature nurturing is a stereotypical role for women who may prefer to avoid that perception in the workforce.

Limitations

One of the limitations of this study is that this survey serves more as a pilot study to begin the broad questioning about female AD perceptions and experiences rather than a definitive view of the status of women ADs. Many more questions emerged after analyzing the results, and it would be beneficial to follow up with focus groups and in-depth interviews. This would provide get a better understanding of how respondents define the old boys' club, gender discrimination, and how role mentoring truly played in their career path. It would also be helpful to include men in this study to see discover their perspectives on the questions, which might determine if the culture is changing.

Another limitation of this survey was that it did not look at relationship or family dynamics and only focused on specific organizational dynamics. There could be other relationship and family issues such as parenting and relationships that are keeping women from moving up within athletics that were not addressed in this study.

Another limitation is the number of respondents that participated. While acceptable statistically (44%; $n = 93$), there were not enough respondents in each division, especially in terms of DI having only 11 participants. This made the numbers appear skewed, even though this number represented 31% ($n = 11$) of available female ADs in DI.

The next limitation was the use of only close-ended questions (Likert scale and yes/no), which made analysis especially difficult in terms of respondents' definition of

gender discrimination, old boys' club, and the glass ceiling. The survey also did not ask about makeup of departments, the nature of mentoring, or how athletic departments handled training new staff. Asking follow-up questions about what the ADs meant when they stated that the old boys' club was prevalent within athletics could have helped identify similarities and differences between the divisions. These responses could have provided the opportunities to identify ways to combat the old boys' club and gender discrimination.

The final limitation that affected the study was lack of research in regards of sports administration. There were very few examples of practical models, so research from other contexts (e.g. business, high schools) was used to provide context. While many think that athletics is a multi-billion dollar business, it is different than other for-profit businesses. This is because the "employees" are student athletes, and the schools and NCAA receives the majority of the funds that come into the athletic departments. While the glass ceiling and old boys' club are as evident in athletics as they are in business, the two are very different. Since the two are different, it was difficult to create questions that worked for athletics using the business models.

Future research

One suggestion for future research on perceptions of the roles of women in collegiate athletic leadership would be to widen the participants' pool by investigating male athletic directors' perspectives about women and organizational barriers. This would allow for exploring whether or not they perceive there are organizational barriers to women advancing. Other groups whose perceptions could be explored would include coaches and players, other managerial ranks, and college presidents, all of whom interact

with the athletic director in different ways. Another research avenue would be to examine what women in athletic administration who are not in the AD role view as organizational barriers. Do they feel they have access to mentors? Do they aspire to advance to the AD position at some time in their career? It would also be interesting to study how women who are not in the AD role view accessibility to the AD role and if they believe that working at a program without a strong athletic department would be the only way that they will advance to the AD position. Another study could look at what policies are in place to recruit women into the AD position. These are all important pieces to look at when examining how to get women past being the outsiders within and become an active member of the administration team.

Another potential research direction would be to expand the method used to gather participants' perceptions. While surveys are useful because responses can be gathered from a large group of people to begin to gather talking points, more personal contact and connections beyond an emailed survey might increase response rates. Seeing that collaboration and relationships are important to women working in athletics, it may be more productive to send individual, personal emails so potential respondents are not just getting a random email from someone they do not know. One way to increase this contact is by attending NACWAA conference and taking the time to meet the individuals face to face. Another method would be to use current contacts to distribute the information, since people are more likely to take the time to complete as survey if it came from someone they know, which is the snowball sampling method. Going beyond surveys, the author would also recommend using focus groups and interviews to dig deeper into the responses and create clearer definitions of what it means that the old

boys' club is still prevalent, or what is meant when a respondent notes that she witnessed or experienced gender discrimination.

This study extended the research on female collegiate athletic directors by conducting a survey across divisions to discover organizational barriers, pathways and mentoring roles among the three divisions. The feminist perspective was reflected, because respondents reported that they had been limited by the lack of mentoring, their status as the outsider within, the effects of the glass ceiling, and the old boys' club. These aspects all reflect Standpoint Theory, because women in athletics are still marginalized and need to get their voices heard. This study was one step in alleviating that silencing. This marginalization could confirm Grappendorf and Lough's (2006) dire prediction that if the current trend in a decline of female ADs continues, it appears inevitable that eventually there will be no female NCAA Division I athletic directors of separate programs left. While they attributed the decline to gender bias in hiring and a lack of time due to balance work and life, this present study did not examine those factors. However, this study did report on female ADs' perceptions about barriers and pathways, which are linked to those concerns.

Standpoint Theory would also suggest that women working within athletics have a unique position that could help athletics grow. In an ideal world of collegiate athletics, women would be at 50/50 split across all divisions with men in terms of leadership, all the way to the athletic director position. There are several reasons why having more women in AD roles is beneficial to girls and women who participate in sports. According to Pedersen and Whisenant's (2005) study, young females need to see women in decision-making roles to help them define sports and sport participation as important in

their futures. Acosta and Carpenter (2002) revealed in their study of intercollege athletics that the women's programs that had women athletic directors had a higher proportion of women coaches. Networking and mentoring are important for women to increase their visibility, which should serve as an encouragement for other women to follow in their footsteps. Another reason to have women in AD roles is that women contribute to athletics in unique perspectives, styles and skills to through their ability to build relationship through engagement (Lumpkin, Stolls, & Beiler 1999). Once women have access to leadership positions, they should have access to employing in-group language, rule-making, strategic planning, and financial decision-making, which will then make them more qualified for other positions. This would create an equal relationship between knowledge and power, which is what Standpoint Theory highlights.

Women should be in leadership positions for their qualifications, not because a label or title with the word "woman" in it puts them at the table. Ideally, moving away from the title SWA and including women on the senior management team because of qualifications would be the goal. The SWA position would no longer be viewed the "Sole Woman Administrator" in the boardroom, and females in AD positions could positively impact hiring, mentoring, and a whole host of activities that currently may maintain the organizational barriers noted in this study. Ford and Crabtree (2002) assert that it is a continuing goal for Feminist Standpoint theorists to conduct research that will give voice to those who have been silenced. Women in this study reported that they are viewed as valuable contributors once they can get into the boardroom. However, the respondents also reported that others do not see women as capable leaders in athletics. Therefore, the key to changing attitudes and perceptions of women working athletics is getting more

women into the boardroom, or in this case, the athletic director's chair. This affirms

Standpoint Theory by criticizing the status quo and creating an open dialogue that women

are a part of. As noted by Mike Blackburn, associate executive director at the National

Interscholastic Athletic Administrators Association in Indianapolis,

> The days of rewarding a coach or former coach by moving them into the AD role
> are over. The athletic director's position is not what it was in the '40s, '50s, '60s
> and '70s. It's not, 'Here are the keys, unlock the gym door, roll the balls out, hire
> some coaches and game officials.' It's a whole different ballgame now with ADs
> and you need the best professionals to put in those positions, whether it's male or
> female (White, 2012).

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Appendix A

IRB Approval Letter
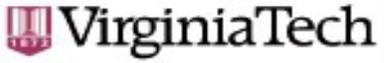
VirginiaTech

Invent the Future

VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY
An equal opportunity, affirmative action institution

NCAA FEMALE ATHLETIC DIRECTORS' REPORTED BARRIERS

FEDERALLY FUNDED RESEARCH REQUIREMENTS:

Per federal regulations, 45 CFR 46.103(f), the IRB is required to compare all federally funded grant proposals/work statements to the IRB protocol(s) which cover the human research activities included in the proposal / work statement before funds are released. Note that this requirement does not apply to Exempt and Interim IRB protocols, or grants for which VT is not the primary awardee.

The table on the following page indicates whether grant proposals are related to this IRB protocol, and which of the listed proposals, if any, have been compared to this IRB protocol, if required.

Date	OSP	Sponsor	Grant Comparison

* Date this proposal number was compared, assessed as not requiring comparison, or comparison information was revised.

If this IRB protocol is to cover any other grant proposals, please contact the IRB office (irbadmin@vt.edu) immediately.

Appendix B

Informed Consent Form

VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY
Informed Consent for Participants
in Research Projects Involving Human Subjects

Title of Project: Where are the Women? An Analysis of Female Athletic Directors within the Three Divisions of NCAA Athletics

Dawn Corwin
Master's Graduate Student

The purpose of this research is to learn about how women athletic directors view their experiences, pathways and if they are currently mentoring. This project advances academic research on the women in leadership positions with in collegiate athletics.

Should you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to complete an online survey, in which you will be asked to answer a series of questions about what your experiences have been in collegiate athletics and what role mentoring plays in your position. The survey should take about 15-20 minutes to complete. You may complete this survey at your own convenience using your personal computer, laptop, or tablet device.

There is minimal risk associated with this research project. You will be asked to answer questions about your experiences as a woman Athletic Director. Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You may skip any questions you do not want to answer or end participation in the study at any time. You must be at least 18 years old to participate in this study.

No promise or guarantee of benefits has been made to encourage you to participate.

Your responses will be kept in an Excel document on a password-protected computer to protect your confidentiality. Only Dawn Corwin, the investigator and Dr. Brandi Watkins, a thesis committee member, will have access to your responses. Only summarized data will be presented at meetings or in publications. Please note that the researchers will delete any participant-identifying information from their records once the study is completed. Since this survey is available online, your participation will be kept private, and you are able to complete it from a computer of your choosing and at a time and place of your choosing.

The Virginia Tech (VT) Institutional Review Board (IRB) may view the study's data for auditing purposes. The IRB is responsible for the oversight of the protection of human

subjects involved in research.

It is important for you to know that you are free to withdraw from this study at any time without penalty. You are free not to answer any questions that you choose or respond to what is being asked of you without penalty.

Please note that there may be circumstances under which the investigator may determine that a subject should not continue as a subject.

Should you have any questions about this study, you may contact one of the research investigators whose contact information is included at the beginning of this document.

Should you have any questions or concerns about the study's conduct or your rights as a research subject, or need to report a research-related injury or event, you may contact the VT IRB Chair, Dr. David M. Moore at moored@vt.edu or (540) 231-4991.

Your participation is completely voluntary. You are free not to participate or stop participating any time before you submit your answers.

If you understand the statements above, are at least 18 years old, and freely consent to participate in this study, click on the "I Agree" button below to continue. Completion of the survey will also imply consent to participate.

Appendix C

Survey Questions

Q1 – consent form

In this first set of questions, I would like to get to know a little more about any past experiences you may have had as an athlete or a coach.

1. I was a high school athlete. (Yes or No)
    a. Please indicate which sport(s) you played in high school.
2. I was a college athlete. (Yes or No)
    a. Please indicate which sport(s) you played in college.
3. I have coached sports teams in the past. (Yes or No)
    a. Please indicate which sport(s) you have coached.
    b. At what level did you coach?

Now, I would like to know more about your current position as Athletic Director.

1. How long have you served as Athletic Director?
2. Please indicate if you are currently serving as the Athletic Director for a DI, DII, or DIII school.
3. How long have your worked in collegiate athletics?
4. Briefly describe the administrative position you held before becoming Athletic Director.
5. Are you currently or have you in the past been a member of an organization for professionals working in athletics? (Yes or No)
    a. Please provide the names of those organizations here.
6. Are you currently or have you in the past been a member of an all female professional organization? (Yes or No)
    a. Please provide the names of those organizations here.

For the following questions, please indicate on a scale of 1 to 5 if you agree with these statements about how women working in collegiate athletics are viewed by others. 1 means you strongly disagree and 5 means you strongly agree.

1. I think that in general, women working in collegiate athletic departments are viewed positively.
2. I think that in general, women working in collegiate athletic departments are viewed negatively.
3. I think that other people view women as capable leaders in collegiate athletic departments.
4. I think that other people view the contributions that women Athletic Directors make to their collegiate athletic departments as valuable.

For the following questions, please indicate on a scale of 1 to 5 if you agree with these statements regarding career advancement of women in collegiate athletics. 1 means you strongly disagree and 5 means you strongly agree.

1. I think that women have a difficult time advancing to upper-level administration position within collegiate athletic departments.
2. I have experienced gender discrimination at different points during my tenure in collegiate athletic administration.
3. I have witnessed other women be discriminated against based on gender during their career in collegiate athletic administration.
4. I think that women have a better chance of getting a promotion in collegiate athletic administration if they are willing to work at a school that does not have a strong athletic program.
5. At the institutions where I have worked as a collegiate athletic administrator, I have been the only woman on the senior management team in the athletic department.
6. I have served in the SWA position before becoming Athletic Director. (Yes or No).
7. I think that the SWA position is a useful position for women who want to advance in collegiate athletic administration.
8. How many women are serving in upper-level management positions within your collegiate athletic department? (Drop down box 0,1,2,3,4+)

Below are several questions that ask you about some reasons why you think that women are not rising to Athletic Director roles in collegiate athletic departments as quickly as men. Please indicate on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being I strongly disagree and 5 being I strongly agree.

1. I think that women are happier being in supporting roles.
2. I think that a lack of formal mentoring for women in athletics is keeping women from advancing to upper level management positions within collegiate athletic departments.
3. I think that most collegiate athletic departments function as an "Old Boys Club" which prohibits women from advancing their careers.
4. I think that there are not enough opportunities available for women to advance in collegiate athletic departments.
5. I think women are not very interested in advancing to the highest positions within collegiate athletic department.
6. I think that there is a perception among some people that women are not capable of leading collegiate athletic departments.
7. I think women have made great strides in advancing to senior positions in collegiate athletic departments.

The next set of questions asks about any formal mentoring you may have received in the past, present, and what you are doing for others in your professional career.

1. I currently have a person in my life that I consider to be a formal mentor. (Yes or No)
    a. My current professional mentor is a man/woman.
    b. Please describe your relationship with your mentor.
    c. How did you first connect with your mentor?
    d. Do you meet with your mentor on a regular basis? Please describe.
    e. How has your mentor influenced you in your current position as Athletic Director?
2. In the past I have had a person in my life that I consider to be a formal mentor. (Yes or No)
    a. My past professional mentor is a man/woman.
    b. Please describe your relationship with that mentor.
    c. How did you first connect with that mentor?
    d. Do you meet with that mentor on a regular basis? Please describe.
    e. How did that person help you in the early stages of your career in athletics?
3. Are you currently serving as a professional mentor to a mentee in collegiate athletics? (Yes or No)
    a. The mentee that I am currently working with is a man/woman.
    b. Please describe your relationship with your mentee.
    c. How did you first connect with your mentee?
    d. Do you meet with your mentee on a regular basis? Please describe.
    e. In what ways do you think you are helping your mentee meet their professional goals?

Do you now, or have you in the past, had someone you would consider an informal mentor meaning you looked up to them and sought out their advice in certain situations throughout your career?

1. I currently have a person in my life that I consider to be an informal mentor. (Yes or No)
    a. Please describe your relationship with that person.
    b. How did you first connect with that person?
    c. Do you meet with that person on a regular basis? Please describe.
    d. How has that person influenced you in your current position as Athletic Director?
2. I have in the past had a person in my life that I consider to be an informal mentor. (Yes or No)
    a. Please describe your relationship with that person.
    b. How did you first connect with that person?
    c. Do you meet with that person on a regular basis? Please describe.
    d. How has that person influenced you in your current position as Athletic Director?

For this next set of questions, please indicate on a scale of 1 to 5 if you agree or disagree with the following statements related to relationships with others in the collegiate athletic department. 1 means you strongly disagree and 5 means you strongly agree.

1. I think that effective mentoring is when the mentor controls the mentee and encourages the mentee to comply with the mentor's directives, duplicate the mentor's values and follow in the mentor's footsteps.
2. I think that effective mentoring is when the mentor serves as a parental figure and creates a safe, nurturing open environment for the mentee to learn and try new things.
3. I think that effective mentoring is when the mentor and mentee do not share a hierarchical relationship and instead have a collaborative and co-constructive friendship.
4. I think that effective mentoring is when the mentor works with the mentee in an apprentice-type relationship where the mentor serves as the "teacher" and the mentee is the "student" who learns the profession from the mentor.
5. I think that mentoring is essential for women who want to pursue a career in a collegiate athletic department.
6. I think that networking with other professionals in athletics is important for advancing in collegiate athletics.
7. I think having a strong personal support system is important for women pursing a career in a collegiate athletic department.
8. I think having a strong support system within the collegiate athletic department is important for women pursuing a career in athletics.
9. I think that it is important for women working in collegiate athletic departments to be supportive of other women in athletics.

This last section asks you for basic demographic information. Please be assured that all of your answers will be kept in confidentiality.

1. What is your age?
2. What is your race? (Caucasian, African American, Asian Pacific, Bi or Multi Racial, Hispanic, Native American, I prefer not to answer)
3. What is the highest level of education you have completed?

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[1] The researcher went through the NCAA list of schools under the division tab on ncaa.org. From this list the research went to each schools athletic pages staff directory on January 30th, and pulled all female ADs.

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[2] The old boys' club is referred to as old-boys' club; old boys' network; old boys club; new old boys' club, for this paper the author will refer to it as the old boys' club unless used from a source.