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Female athletic trainers in professional male sports

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FEMALE ATHLETIC TRAINERS IN PROFESSIONAL MALE SPORTS

by

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Bachelor of Science
University of Illinois at Chicago
2001

Master of Science
University of Nevada, Las Vegas
2006

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the

**Master of Science Degree in Kinesiology
School of Allied Health and Human Performance
Department of Kinesiology
Division of Health Sciences**

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University of Nevada, Las Vegas
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ABSTRACT

Female Athletic Trainers in Professional Male Sports

by

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This study measured the opinions of head and assistant athletic trainers employed by the National Football League, National Basketball Association, National Hockey League, Major League Soccer, and Major League Baseball, which also included the affiliated minor league and independent professional teams in the spring of 2006 regarding potential barriers female athletic trainers face in order to work with professional male sports teams. A survey was distributed to measure the opinions of 373 full-time athletic trainers with a return rate of 30.6%. The majority of those that took the survey agreed that female athletic trainers were competent and skilled but the potential for sexual harassment, access to locker room, and professional sports organizations have kept female athletic trainers from being hired with these professional male sports teams. Therefore, female athletic trainers face potential barriers that lead to the glass ceiling effect. Although, such issues as the safety of the female ATC, the privacy of the professional male athletes, and the integrity of the different male sports organizations were all factors taken into consideration when adding a female presence with the teams.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

There has always been a constant struggle of power between men and women.

Women are continually striving for equality within the workplace. As more women have entered male-oriented occupations, they have been subjected to increased barriers in order to be successful as men. This struggle has been evident in the occupation of athletic training. Historically, female athletic trainers would only work with female sports teams. As the expansion of sports grew, female athletic trainers were gaining opportunities in more diverse settings. The attitudes of how they were being perceived began to change. Only 3% of females have been hired as athletic trainers within the professional setting (Graham & Schlabach, 2001).

In 1997, Michelle Leget became the first female to be hired as an assistant athletic trainer by the Houston Rockets of the National Basketball Association (NBA) (Mihoces, 2002). In 2002, Janet Panek was hired by the Washington Wizards of the NBA as an assistant athletic trainer (Mihoces, 2002). Also in 2002, Arika Iso of the Pittsburgh Steelers became the first female to be hired as an assistant athletic trainer by a National Football League (NFL) franchise (Mihoces, 2002). These female athletic trainers made national news when they were first hired by the NBA and NFL since these professional male sports teams have only employed males within their organizations. Other female

athletic trainers were hired by professional male sports teams, such as the Columbus Crew of Major League Soccer (MLS), who hired Amy Baer. Donna Papangellin (Curran, n.d.; Dawson, 2004) was hired as an athletic trainer for the class AA minor league team of the Texas Rangers in Major League Baseball (MLB). There has also been up to five female athletic trainers in the professional indoor lacrosse teams in Major Indoor Lacrosse League (MILL) (Curran, n.d.). Currently, there are no female athletic trainers in Major League Baseball (MLB) or in the National Hockey League (NHL).

When Title IX legislation was finally implemented across the United States, female sports participation had dramatically increased. Today, female athletes like Annika Sorenstam and Michelle Wie are trying to become the first female golfers among the males on the professional golf association (PGA) tour. Danica Patrick is the only female racecar driver among the hundreds of males. Each female has altered someone's views regarding how females are able to compete with males. They have made tremendous strides in promoting females within their respective sport, but there are still many other females struggling to have equal opportunities as their male counterparts. This has led to the increasing exposure of the glass ceiling effect that was first identified from the business occupation and incorporated into many other occupations.

The glass ceiling has been described as invisible barriers that prevent women and minorities from advancing in their occupations (Cotter et al., 2001). In the business and healthcare professions, this concept has been an ongoing issue for many years. This could explain why few women have been successful as the men. The lack of female representation has led to the dilemma that females may not advance in their careers

because of their gender. It has been a continuing effort for women to be accepted as equals to their male counterparts, especially in athletic training. To date, there has not been any research directed to the glass ceiling effect and female athletic trainers within the professional setting, specifically within male sports team organizations. Teams in the NFL, NBA, and MLS leagues at one time hired female athletic trainers, but since this original hiring window, little if any females have been added to the professional staffs in any of these or other leagues. The glass ceiling has not been openly discussed in the field of athletic training. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to see if there is a glass ceiling effect with any potential barriers that female athletic trainers might face when pursuing a career with a professional male sports team.

Need for the Study

In the pursuit of reviewing information on female athletic trainers in professional male sports teams, there were no studies found on female athletic trainers in any of the five professional male sports teams: NFL, NBA, NHL, MLS, and MLB. As the NBA and the NFL have hired female athletic trainers as assistants, and the MLS had hired a female as a head athletic trainer, there has been no other female athletic trainer that has been hired in any of the other leagues, such as the NHL or MLB. The exclusion of female athletic trainers has led to the possibility that the glass ceiling does exist in athletic training at the professional level.

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this study is to measure the opinions of head and assistant athletic trainers in the five professional male sports teams from the NFL, NBA, NHL, MLS, and MLB to determine if there is a glass ceiling effect with potential barriers that female athletic trainers face in order to work with professional male sports teams.

Limitations

In the design of this study, certain limitations were expected that might compromise the outcome of this study:

1. This study has been limited to the answers from the head and assistant athletic trainers from the NFL, NBA, NHL, MLS, and MLB.
2. The surveys may not be an accurate account of the true opinions of the head and assistant athletic trainers from the NFL, NBA, NHL, MLS, and MLB.
3. This study has been limited by the survey process from the NATA.
4. This study has been limited by the results reported by the NATA web survey.
5. This study was limited by the ability to contact individuals regarding the survey and remind people to complete the survey.
6. This study was limited by the recency of the e-mail list.

Delimitations

In the design of the study, there were delimitations that had been established.

1. The study was delimited to head and assistant athletic trainers in the NFL, NBA, NHL, MLS, and MLB.
2. The study was delimited to the use of a written survey and emailed through the NATA website that distributed this survey to the athletic trainers of the five professional male sports teams in the NFL, NBA, NHL, MLS, and MLB.

Research Question

This study will examine 3 research questions.

1. Why are there not more female athletic trainers in the professional male sports teams from the NFL, NBA, NHL, MLS, and MLB?
2. Do female athletic trainers face any barriers to work with a professional male sports team that indicate a glass ceiling does exist?
3. Will professional male sports teams such as the NFL, NBA, NHL, MLS, and MLB hire or continue to hire female athletic trainers in the future?

Definitions of Terms

For the purpose of this study the following definitions have been used:

Athletic Trainer. An Athletic Trainer is an individual who is directly involved with all stages of care and prevention for athletic illness and injuries (Arnheim & Prentice, 1997).

Certified Athletic Trainer. A Certified Athletic Trainer is an individual who has passed the National Athletic Training Associations Board of Certification exam and earned the ATC credential (Arnheim & Prentice, 1997).

National Athletic Trainer's Association. The National Athletic Trainer's Association is an organization who has properly qualified members and follows a code of ethics for professional advancement, administers NATA Board of Certification exam, publishes *Journal of Athletic Training*, and holds an annual convention (Arnheim & Prentice, 1997).

Glass Ceiling. The glass ceiling is an invisible barrier that prevents women and minorities from advancing in their careers (Cotter et al., 2001; Lockwood, 2004).

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

There have been very few female athletic trainers that have been hired with professional male sports teams. Since the hiring of these female athletic trainers has become a national phenomenon; there has been no news of more female athletic trainers entering the professional level of sports with an all-male team. In 2004, Joi Dawson conducted a study on the effects of female athletic trainers in the National Football League (NFL). The purpose of this study was to see if the NFL would consider adding female athletic trainers to their athletic training staff in the future (Dawson, 2004).

The literature review for this study provided insight to the history of not only women athletic trainers, but also women sportscasters and reporters that have faced many obstacles and barriers to be given the same opportunities as their male counterparts in the sports industry (Dawson, 2004). That is why employment laws have been established to prevent discrimination based on gender (Dawson, 2004). From the Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 that forbids discrimination based on sex, pregnancy, childbirth or related medical conditions, and the Title IX Act of 1972 that forbids discrimination against girls and women in a federal funded education that includes athletics, both of which have been established to give women the same opportunities as men (Dawson, 2004). The literature review also included the opinions of male athletes and male athletic

trainers in the NFL on their viewpoints of having female athletic trainers in as a part of the NFL athletic training staff (Dawson, 2004).

This study provided opinions of 96 full-time athletic trainers employed in the NFL who were sent a survey and a follow-up survey in the spring of 2000 (Dawson, 2004). There was 21 surveys (23%) returned that were used for the study (Dawson, 2004). The results indicated that 60% of the completed surveys agreed that a female athletic trainer would be added on the NFL athletic training staff in the future, but there still would be barriers and logistics changes made to accommodate those females (Dawson, 2004). After this study was done, Ariko Iso became the first female athletic trainer to work for the NFL in 2002 (Mihoces, 2002). Since then, there have been no other professional male sports teams that have hired another female athletic trainer.

If female athletic trainers were not interested in working at the professional level of sports with an all-male team, there would be no reason for this study. In 1997, there were 6, 049 (43%) female ATCs in the NATA with 211(3%) that were women of color (Graham & Schlabach, 2001). In 1999, 1,101 students graduated from an accredited athletic training program, with 585 (53%) were women and 517 (47%) were men (Graham & Schlabach, 2001). As the profession of athletic training continues to grow, the numbers of females will also continue to grow. Therefore, instead of being given the same employment opportunities as the male athletic trainers, they have more obstacles to overcome. These barriers that continually bombard women could lead up to a possible glass ceiling effect.

There has been very little research done on the glass ceiling effect within the profession of athletic training, therefore much of the information has been paralleled with the business and healthcare professions to provide insight into this concept of the glass ceiling. The possibility of this concept could explain why few female athletic trainers are being hired within professional male sports teams. No research has indicated that a study has been done to determine if female athletic trainers face a glass ceiling effect within professional male sports teams.

Information on the status of female athletic trainers in professional sports is limited. Research in areas of women in sports, female athletic trainers in the NFL, experiences of female athletic trainers, and the history of female athletic trainers in the NATA have been investigated. The possibility of the glass ceiling existing in professional sports has not been researched. This literature review will first examine the barriers that prevent the advancement of women, the glass ceiling, gender inequalities, the under-representation of women leadership, and breaking through the glass ceiling.

Barriers that Prevent Advancement

This section examines the barriers women have faced and or continue to face, especially in sports organizations. It also provides insight to the types of barriers that exist and how it affects these women athletic trainers in their pursuit to advance in their profession.

The first study by Peres et al. (2002), described athletic training as a unique occupation, especially for women. Females have faced barriers to advance in this

particular career, from such things as less compensation, lack of opportunities to leadership position, and trying to balance family and work life (Peres et al., 2002). This study was conducted to suggest ways to improve the status of females in the field of athletic training (Peres et al., 2002). Female athletic trainers have had the same concerns as females in corporate businesses as 87% of female executives have considered a major life change, and female athletic trainers were thinking about switching careers (Peres et al., 2002). There has been little research done on the earlier barriers of female athletic trainers but there has been several studies related to this topic to understand the role of females in the sports industry (Peres et al., 2002).

In 1991, the U.S. Department of Labor reported that women and minorities faced barriers that limited enhancing career opportunities and unable to become top managers (Peres et al., 2002). A study by Booth indicated that gender equity and barriers to advance in athletic training paralleled other professions that indicated women were still under-represented as potential leaders on all levels within sports organizations (Peres et al., 2002). Title IX of the Education Amendments was passed in 1972 that is a federal law that does not allow gender discrimination in the educational institutions that receives federal funds (Peres et al., 2002).

The Women in Athletic Training Committee (WATC) conducted a survey that reported women and men had equal knowledge, skills, and education to be successful in the profession up to leadership positions but there were fewer opportunities for women than men (Peres et al., 2002). A NATA survey indicated that women who are certified athletic trainers (ATCs) received \$10, 000 less than men (Peres et al., 2002). The most

common concerns women had as ATCs were their family and personal life, lack of opportunities, “good old boys’ network,” and salary (Peres et al., 2002). The most common concerns for male ATCs were affirmative action and quotas, long hours, and “good old boys’ network” that prevents younger candidates to leadership positions (Peres et al., 2002). The National Athletic Training Association was founded in 1950 by 101 athletic trainers with no females that were recorded at the time (Peres et al., 2002). The first women to enter into the male-dominated profession of athletic training had been oppressed, silent, and isolated as they were denied access to facilities, meetings, programs, and certain sports (Peres et al., 2002).

Women make up 45% of the NATA certified membership in 2000 (Peres et al., 2002). There were 78% of women in the NATA that would like to pursue leadership roles but have not been available or pressured into not pursuing those roles (Peres et al., 2002). There were 63% of those women and 70% of men have reported that women have been excluded from male networks and that 96.8% of those women and 97% of men have indicated that male candidates are preferred for professional athletic team positions (Peres et al., 2002). Also, 86% of women ATCs have indicated that there are conflicts between family and professional responsibilities more so than the male ATCs (Peres et al., 2002). The major concern for female ATCs has been working while trying to maintain their family life and has stated it has been difficult with the demands that come with the profession of athletic training (Peres et al., 2002). According to Peres et al. (2002), it is still possible to work as an ATC and still have a family with a supportive partner, understanding supervisors, decrease travel responsibilities, and a support system.

There have been two related theories that have been indicated in this study and they are gender feminism theory and equity theory (Peres et al., 2002). Gender feminism theory states that men and women should be equal and women are given special privileges (Peres et al., 2002). Equity theory has been based on the employee's inputs and outputs ratio compared to other workers (Peres et al., 2002). If the employee perceived inequity, this would be the output, as oppose to the input and output ratio that is not equal, the employee would strive for balance to restore equity (Peres et al., 2002).

Networking and mentoring are important for women to gain opportunities for leadership positions in the sports industry (Peres et al., 2002). The sports industry that has been dominated by males held traditional barriers that need to be overcome (Peres et al., 2002). WATC has been developed to improve the conditions in the workplace and strengthen bonds between generations of female ATCs (Peres et al., 2002). Such systematic planning has included increasing flexibility in work schedules, variety in benefit programs and human resource policies, child-care assistance and parental-leave programs, assisting working spouses with job placement, and creating awareness of gender-related legal issues (Peres et al., 2002). In order to instill equity, workshops on discriminatory practices and attitudes should be addressed along with leadership training to continue to expand the profession and keep competent ATCs no matter the gender (Peres et al., 2002).

A study done by Anderson (1992) indicated that athletic trainers provide health care services to intercollegiate athletes predominantly. Even though athletic training has been seen as a male domain, females have entered this profession since and before the passing

of Title IX (Anderson, 1992). In 1990, thirteen women in athletic training were interviewed with a semi-structured format (Anderson, 1992). This study was conducted to report the early experiences and perspectives of these women as they entered this male-dominated profession and to gain insight into the future of female ATCs (Anderson, 1992). In 1966, Dorothy Cohen was the first woman to join the NATA (Anderson, 1992). There was 43% out of 12,000 members in the NATA that were women, but there was less than 1% that held leadership positions (Anderson, 1992). During their education, they all had access to academic programs and exposure to high risk sports but not at the same level as the male ATCs (Anderson, 1992). When they were certified, they were head women's athletic trainers and had no support to be involved at the national level (Anderson, 1992). These women loved working with the athletes and the student athletic trainers but could not continue to work long hours with a limited salary (Anderson, 1992).

The early women were seen as athletic trainers for women and not women athletic trainers. They would not be considered to fill a men's vacant spot in an athletic program (Anderson, 1992). Nowadays, employers have come to realize that hiring the most qualified for the job is important, and not gender (Anderson, 1992). There were adjustments made to increase salaries, alter job specifications, and in education to prepare for the clinical experience presented to both male and female (Anderson, 1992). The NATA has set guidelines for exposure to football to meet clinical standards for certification, along with 25% of clinical hours in male and female high risk sports (Anderson, 1992). There were many Division II and III, with a few Division I schools

who have female head ATCs for football (Anderson, 1992). Even though it is part of the job description, there are still football athletic training rooms that deny female access to expose them to the football experience for educational purposes, despite Title IX guidelines and NATA policies (Anderson, 1992).

The pioneer women were asked why women were not seen in leadership positions and the common answer was that the organization was too political and women were not encouraged to pursue those positions (Anderson, 1992). There have been subtle forms of discrimination for women that have limited their growth and development in the profession (Anderson, 1992). In order for equality to be met within the athletic training profession, there must be education on sexism, racism, homophobia in sports so that there is change and that the profession can continue to improve upon their public image (Anderson, 1992). Women must be pro-active and want to assume leadership positions and support other women as well (Anderson, 1992).

Glass Ceiling

The barriers that women face have been defined through the glass ceiling. This concept has been used extensively in business and healthcare studies, but has not been applied to women in athletic training studies. There are many similarities that parallel the business and healthcare professions with the athletic training profession.

Cotter et al., (2001) reported that in the summer of 1999, Carleton Fiorina became the new chief executive officer (CEO) of Hewlett-Packard, being the first female CEO of a Fortune 500 company. She claimed that the glass ceiling for women no longer existed

(Cotter et al., 2001). In that same year, an independent research group called Catalyst reported that there was a glass ceiling effect for corporate women, especially those of color (Cotter et al., 2001). These two events suggested different conclusions on the working women in the United States (Cotter et al., 2001). This contradiction has indicated the lack of a clear definition of what the glass ceiling represents. Therefore, this study determined that there are four conditions that need to be met in order to define a gender inequality as a glass ceiling effect. An empirical test was created based on the four conditions and was applied against the data from the Panel Study of Income Dynamics (PSID), which revealed the four conditions had gender inequalities, but not racial inequality in the United States (Cotter et al., 2001).

The glass ceiling has been defined as a gender or racial inequality that is specific and is distinguished from any other type of inequality (Cotter et al., 2001). The Federal Glass Ceiling Commission has stated the glass ceiling refers to “artificial barriers to advancement of women and minorities,” (Cotter et al., 2001). The glass ceiling has been stated as “unseen, yet, unbreachable barrier that keeps minorities and women from rising to upper rungs of corporate ladder, regardless of qualifications or achievements,” (Cotter et al., 2001). This definition reflects job inequality explained in the person’s past of labor market discrimination and inequality (Cotter et al., 2001).

The first criterion of the glass ceiling was: “the glass ceiling inequality represents a gender or racial difference that is not explained by other job relevant characteristics of the employees,” (Cotter et al., 2001). The second criteria stated: “glass ceiling inequality represents a gender or racial difference that is greater at higher levels of an outcome than

at lower levels of an outcome,” (Cotter et al., 2001). The third criteria stated: “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). The fourth criteria stated: “glass ceiling inequality represents a gender or racial inequality that increases over the course of a career,” (Cotter et al., 2001).

These four criteria have represented specific ways to test and clarify the glass ceiling concept (Cotter et al., 2001). The first criterion has implied discrimination that can be tested by calculating race and gender effects as constants against other factors (Cotter et al., 2001). The second criterion implied that gender and race effects are the strongest when there are chances to advance to higher levels of outcomes (Cotter et al., 2001). The glass ceiling has implied that women and minorities are at a disadvantage because they fall behind white men in their career progression at higher earning levels (Cotter et al., 2001). The results showed that each earnings percentile indicated that women have lower chances of exceeding the earnings threshold than white men do, the first piece to support the glass ceiling (Cotter et al., 2001).

The discussion of this particular study described that the essence of the glass ceiling has an increased disadvantage when moving into higher outcome levels at a later stage in one’s work life (Cotter et al., 2001). As one has progressed up the hierarchy, and inequality increases rapidly, then the glass ceiling has been substantiated (Cotter et al., 2001). It seems that the glass ceiling has been a phenomenon of gender inequalities (Cotter et al., 2001). From this study, there was evidence to support a glass ceiling in

earnings, although, it was not tested for authority and promotions, which is the main factor to the cause of the glass ceiling (Cotter et al., 2001). The analyses focused on gender and race with the emphasis on women and African-Americans that encounter the glass ceiling (Cotter et al., 2001).

The goals of this study were mostly descriptive to define the glass ceiling criteria and to determine whether gender and race glass ceilings do exist (Cotter et al., 2001). There was no explanation of why the glass ceiling exists or why they are produced (Cotter et al., 2001). This article only provided guidelines for research on the mechanisms of the glass ceiling (Cotter et al., 2001). The conclusion of this study suggested that a set of criteria has been used to assess the existence of glass ceilings upon multiple work outcomes (Cotter et al., 2001). It is important to clarify that the glass ceiling can exist as a gender inequality than typically thought of and needs to be clearly distinguished as a separate concept (Cotter et al., 2001).

Lockwood (2004) reported in 1986, Hymowitz & Schellhardt had developed the term “glass ceiling” in the Wall Street Journal report on corporate women (Lockwood, 2004). The glass ceiling has been frequently referred to as barriers faced by women who want to attain senior positions in corporations, government, and education (Lockwood, 2004). The purpose of this article focused on the discussion of the glass ceiling of women in business to move onto senior positions (Lockwood, 2004). Human resource (HR) professionals have to be knowledgeable about the glass ceiling because it may directly or indirectly impact the reputation of the organization they represent (Lockwood, 2004). HR professionals have been asked by the CEO or president to give advice on strategies to

reduce the existence of the glass ceiling based on their knowledge and understanding of the laws of employment, programs, and practices within their organization (Lockwood, 2004). Many companies have been required to develop affirmative action plans, to have corporate management reviews, that are also known as glass-ceiling audits as compliance requirement (Lockwood, 2004). The glass ceiling is on gender-based barriers with one definitive effect on gender-biased compensation (Lockwood, 2004). To increase the advancement within the career, women are at a disadvantage due to the fact that organizations may not be able to support work and life balances for women (Lockwood, 2004). The opportunities for promotion due to the developmental progress as mentoring and networking have been given to men (Lockwood, 2004).

In a 1995 survey, 304 human resource managers from service firms of Fortune 500, 1000, and 50 companies had two key findings: the first was the discomfort of white male managers with those unlike themselves and the second was the lack of accountability in organizations to develop diversity (Lockwood, 2004). In 1996, Catalyst had a pioneering study that examined the perceptions and experiences of the glass ceiling in Fortune 1000's most senior-level women and CEOs and compared it to a 2003 study (Lockwood, 2004). The results revealed that the glass ceiling has remained in tact on the women's views on advancement opportunities (Lockwood, 2004). The CEOs and women both agreed that the top barrier to the advancement of senior positions for women has been the lack of general management and experience (Lockwood, 2004). About two-thirds of the CEOs have agreed that it is the organization's responsibility to meet the needs of women in management (Lockwood, 2004). There were 47% of women who have said that being

excluded from informal networks was a barrier to advance in their career as oppose to 18% of CEOs (Lockwood, 2004). Also, 16% of women mentioned lack of mentoring was another barrier to advance in their career for women as oppose to 21% of CEOs (Lockwood, 2004).

The literature on the glass ceiling has discussed the differences in management and leadership style between men and women (Lockwood, 2004). In addition, there is still a difference in salaries between men and women that could be due to work experience, education, or lack of opportunities (Lockwood, 2004). In 2002, the report documents the top barriers that women face in leadership role is the following: the stereotypes and preconceptions of women's roles and abilities, the lack of mentors, and visible successful female role models (Lockwood, 2004). Many respondents in senior positions have stated that there has been improvement in opportunities for women to advancement of career in the past five years (Lockwood, 2004). Although, 25% of women and 9% of men agreed there has been no change (Lockwood, 2004).

Advancement has been a challenge from the numerous barriers that women face due to the lack of support from organizations. Therefore, women are not gaining the required experience needed to compete with the men (Lockwood, 2004). The overall conclusion of this article stated that HR professionals should take a proactive role in order to prove that the glass ceiling is evident within its organization and to find solutions to break through them by understanding the organizations' culture, values, and norms as its first priority (Lockwood, 2004).

According to Madsen & Blide, (1992) career theorists have agreed that the development of women and their career are different from men's, dependent on the sex-role socialization. This has indicated that the glass ceiling has prevented women from achieving potential in abilities to increase their level of management (Madsen & Blide, 1992). This article examined factors that prevent women from breaking through the glass ceiling of health care administration, related to both personal and professional aspects of intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors (Madsen & Blide, 1992). In 1987, the department of labor "Workforce 2000" reported an increase in women employed and further research had shown that there were few women in upper management level (Madsen & Blide, 1992). In a 1990 study by Anderson Graduate School of Management at the University of California in Los Angeles, they found that women hold less than 5% of higher management (Madsen & Blide, 1992). The health care industry does employ a fair amount of women but very few of them advance to management positions (Madsen & Blide, 1992).

A conceptual model has been developed for women in health care management. The glass ceiling has been blocking most of the women from top positions in the United States corporations (Madsen & Blide, 2004). This barrier examined the lifetime career situation when a woman selects a profession, enters it, moves up to the top management position, has been developed into a two-level conceptual model of professional advancement that is in detail (Madsen & Blide, 1992). The macro-level model has broken down the intrinsic and extrinsic domains into specific categories (Madsen & Blide, 1992). This model has determined factors to understand the obstacles for women's

attainment of such positions (Madsen & Blide, 1992). The four areas for the analysis of power are: social systems, organizations, interpersonal relationships, and individual (Madsen & Blide, 1992). These four areas have been divided into two broad categories: intrinsic factors and extrinsic factors to a person (Madsen & Blide, 1992).

The intrinsic considerations include the views of how one perceives one's self in relation to one's profession (Madsen & Blide, 1992). Internal factors have been divided into personal and professional areas. The personal area consisted of self-perception, assertiveness, willingness to take risks, and leadership skills (Madsen & Blide, 1992). The professional area has been made up of choosing a career, career goals, job security, and power of the job (Madsen & Blide, 1992). A recent study by the American College of Healthcare Executives have suggested that women's lack of success at high executive positions has been due to lower career goals than male counterparts (Madsen & Blide, 1992). In order for advancement to occur at the workplace, conceptualization of how women are seen need to change so that they can be seen as equals to their male counterparts (Madsen & Blide, 1992). The vision of one's profession and its role can be influenced to change attitudes and values of power as women are intrinsically motivated (Madsen & Blide, 1992).

Extrinsic factors are forces that affect advancement to work organizations and to interpersonal relationships on the job, affected by personal characteristics and self-concepts of individual (Madsen & Blide, 1992). This has been divided into two categories: organizational and interpersonal relationships (Madsen & Blide, 1992). The organizational factor has been in conjunction with job performance evaluation and

leadership potential (Madsen & Blide, 1992). The interpersonal relationships see how others view women and gender stereotypes and improve the image of the organization with examples of networking and mentoring (Madsen & Blide, 1992). In the organizational aspect, women have been hired at lower levels than men (Madsen & Blide, 1992). The United States department of Labor's Women's Bureau conducted research to point out the glass ceiling effect problem (Madsen & Blide, 1992). The findings have shown female executives who are similar to the male peers in job satisfaction, commitment to organizations and job stress, have lower perceptions of own future promotion than males (Madsen & Blide, 1992).

There are two strategies that can promote advancement of women managers in healthcare administration: mentoring and networking, and to develop negotiating skills (Madsen & Blide, 1992). Rangins & Sundstrom (Madsen & Blide, 1992) have suggested three major conclusions. The first conclusion was power can detract or develop as an individual progresses with career track (Madsen & Blide, 1992). The second conclusion is women have more obstacles than men in their careers (Madsen & Blide, 1992). The third conclusion is that career progression has allowed men to succeed with the interaction of gender differences and the intrinsic and extrinsic factors (Madsen & Blide, 1992). Successful women leaders have recognized and taken opportunities when given to assume more responsibility and power (Madsen & Blide, 1992).

Gender Inequalities

Gender has always been an underlying theme for the glass ceiling effect and the reason why women have not been able to advance to leadership positions. Gender differences and gender inequalities still exist within the workplace. The reasons why and how they affect women in the workplace is still subject to research.

According to Booth (2000), the number of women increased in the workplace, but they are still under-represented in leadership positions, especially in sports organizations. Women have still not been given the same opportunities as men to advance in the workplace (Booth, 2000). This particular study was to investigate if gender and practice settings were related to the perceptions that certified athletic trainers held of gender equity, specifically barriers that prevent females to advance to leadership positions (Booth, 2000). There were two research questions: the first one was to determine differences that exist in the perceptions of certified athletic trainers dependent on gender and interpersonal and organizational factors, and the second one was to determine differences in the perceptions of certified athletic trainers dependent on practice settings and interpersonal and organizational factors (Booth, 2000).

A theoretical framework researched by Gilligan of gender differences had underlined this study (Booth, 2000). This framework indicated that men and women speak in two different voices in areas of morality, identity, and relationships (Booth, 2000). The voice ethic of justice dealt with the individual, this was more associated with the males (Booth, 2000). The voice ethic of care dealt with relationships and connection, this was more associated with females (Booth, 2000). The review of literature from this study

contained information on the theory base from Gilligan, the barriers that women face in the workplace, and how both Gilligan's theory base and these barriers affect women in the athletic training profession (Booth, 2000). The summary of this review has shown that women have faced obstacles no matter what profession they are in, ranging from business to medicine (Booth, 2000). Advancement for women to leadership positions was still difficult to come by due to the barriers that these women face (Booth, 2000).

This study consisted of NATA members in 1998 as "regular certified" classification in the secondary school, college/university, or clinic/hospital settings (Booth, 2000). A stratified random sample of 100 men and 100 women were chosen (Booth, 2000). The participants from a stratified sample consisted of 300 men and 300 women (Booth, 2000). There were two questionnaires distributed, the first one was a demographic questionnaire that pertained to athletic training profile and the second one was a "perception of gender equity" questionnaire of the perceptions of gender equity of athletic directors in the National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics, with permission to change the form using certified athletic trainers than athletic directors (Booth, 2000).

The conclusion of this study stated that women do face barriers that prevent them from advancing to leadership positions due to the gender inequity that is prevalent in other professions as well (Booth, 2000). Some suggestions that have been made are to identify any barriers and rectify them, educate employees on stereotypes, sexism, and the glass ceiling to prevent barriers from existing, and increase efforts to hire women and minorities (Booth, 2000).

A dissertation by Shingles (2001) has documented the experiences and contributions of women athletic trainers in the last twenty-five years. This study has been centered on the works of Anderson and Grant-Ford who have studied white women ATCs who pioneered in the ideas, structures, and barriers of the profession of athletic training (Shingles, 2001). The purpose of this study was to document the experiences of diverse athletic trainers in their educational and career experiences, opportunities from Title IX in women's sport, discrimination and oppression, empowerment, and ethnicity, sexuality, and gender perceptions (Shingles, 2001). There were four hypotheses for this study with the first hypothesis that stated no difference in race or ethnicity of women ATCs and their perceptions of sexuality and lesbian issues in their athletic training experiences (Shingles, 2001). The second hypothesis stated no difference in race or ethnicity in women ATCs and their perception of interaction of colleagues in their athletic training experience (Shingles, 2001). The third hypothesis stated no difference in race or ethnicity in women ATCs and their perceptions of educational athletic training experience (Shingles, 2001). The fourth hypothesis stated no difference in race or ethnicity in women ATCs and their perceptions of structural power in their athletic training experience (Shingles, 2001).

The literature review on this study presented the status of women ATCs, examination of the status of women leaders in sports, status of women in allied health professions, different ways to theorize gender, and a theoretical framework (Shingles, 2001). Women ATCs have been represented in different settings and locations with all their experiences being different and diverse (Shingles, 2001). Even though there have been great strides for women ATCs to advance in this profession, there are still barriers that women have

faced (Shingles, 2001). From gender issues to sex discrimination to individual issues, advancement to leadership positions has been difficult (Shingles, 2001). In 1996, women made up 44% of the NATA membership where only 26% were on the Board, Committee, and Liaison positions within the NATA.¹¹ Julie Max became the first female president of the NATA in 2000 (Shingles, 2001). There was a decline in women sports leadership positions dropping from 90% to 44-48% in women's collegiate sports (Shingles, 2001). Women have also been under-represented in allied health professions along with the sports and athletic training professions (Shingles, 2001). Gender inequity has been an issue related to the barriers that women face in order to be considered an equal to the male counterpart (Shingles, 2001). There have been many theories to represent gender and try to understand its relationship to the individual in the workplace but have yet to be validated (Shingles, 2001).

There were 419 diverse women ATCs who were sent a survey questionnaire and conducted an interview survey to find out their perceptions on their athletic training experiences (Shingles, 2001). There were 235 returned surveys and analyzed (Shingles, 2001). Some common themes were: women ATCs have good relationships with classmates and instructors, good professional relationship with coaches except in the disregard of decision-making, bonded with same ethnic or race group of athletes, and sexual harassment was seen as incidents of physical abuse or threatening environment (Shingles, 2001).

Gender has been a frequent indicator of the glass ceiling effect. According to Ridgeway (2001), gender has been described as the "institutionalized system of social

practices.” The Expectation States Theory to described how gender status beliefs that created a network of constraining expectations and interpersonal reactions that has been a major cause of the glass ceiling (Ridgeway, 2001). This theory has shown how status beliefs on gender have accounted for the obstacles that women face to exercise leadership at the same level as the men (Ridgeway, 2001). It has predicted that behaviors and evaluations of women leaders and managers in the workplace have been similar to the social-role theory (Ridgeway, 2001). The Social-Role Theory has accounted on the status and cooperative interdependence on the content of stereotypes (Ridgeway, 2001). Expectation States Theory argued that it is the status element of gender stereotypes that act as distinct and powerful barriers to women who want to achieve positions of authority, leadership, and power (Ridgeway, 2001). This approach has allowed careful analysis on the extent of which barriers women face that was status based or unique to gender (Ridgeway, 2001).

Status beliefs have been defined as widely held cultural beliefs that link greater social significance and general competence that is distinct (Ridgeway, 2001). The assumption has led individuals to the belief that others will treat them accordingly, especially in public places, such as the workplace (Ridgeway, 2001). At the core of this theory has been the formation of behavioral hierarchies from the influence and esteem of individuals shaped by status beliefs (Ridgeway, 2001). The components of leadership have emerged together because they are both controlled by what the theory has termed “self-other performance expectations,” (Ridgeway, 2001). This theory has argued that those who are timid or outspoken, have predetermined assumptions of what they think they can offer to

the task at hand is important than what they think others can offer, termed as “self-other performance expectations,” (Ridgeway, 2001). Decreased expectations for oneself compared to another can 1) less likely initiate own task suggestions, 2) more likely to ask for ideas of others, 3) more likely to evaluate other’s ideas positively, and 4) more likely to be influenced by others by agreeing with them (Ridgeway, 2001).

Gender status beliefs on competence and skills have unconsciously shaped the expectations of both men and women on how they handle a task in the same situation (Ridgeway, 2001). Women must display a higher level of competence to be recognized and considered highly qualified than a man in the same status (Ridgeway, 2001). Gender status beliefs influence other’s reaction to the confidence a woman portrays in two additional ways that become barriers (Ridgeway, 2001). The first barrier is when a woman attains a manager position, her performance expectation has become stronger as oppose to other women, but she is still seen as less competent than a man (Ridgeway, 2001). The second barrier has been when a woman who has authority, has violated the hierarchical standard of gender status beliefs and has believed to be a problem (Ridgeway, 2001).

Ridgeway (2001) reported two experiments conducted, with the first one on repeated encounters with people of different pay, influence, and group distinction, as the subjects formed beliefs seen in an influential-advantaged group as respected and competent than the disadvantaged group. The second experiment substantiated that the creation of status beliefs has not been from the results of pay differences but has been dependent on the hierarchies that influenced the pay differences (Ridgeway, 2001). These two experiments

have shown that status beliefs are spread by treating others according to that belief (Ridgeway, 2001).

The conclusion was the core of gender status beliefs is gender stereotypes, which is only one component of the gender system in social practice (Ridgeway, 2001). The main cause of the glass ceiling stems from the development of gender status beliefs that have created invisible barriers to devalue women as they push forward to attain leadership positions (Ridgeway, 2001). Gender status beliefs have been tied to the male and female hierarchy as the battleground for the maintenance or change of the gender system (Ridgeway, 2001). The Expectation States Theory has been useful in understanding the nature of that battleground and has complemented other approaches as the Social Role Theory and stereotype approaches. This theory has distinctive characteristics to distinguish the biases women in leadership positions face that are status biased (Ridgeway, 2001).

Chernesky & DSW (2003) has had several reports in the past two years provide further evidence of gender inequalities in salaries of women and men managers and barriers to women who want to advance to top management positions (Chernesky & DSW, 2003). A recent Congressional Report studied ten industries that have employed 71% in the United States stated that women managers were worse off in 2000 than in 1995, as oppose to men (Chernesky & DSW, 2003). Women managers have earned less than men with the exception of three industries: medicine, education, and public administration (Chernesky & DSW, 2003). These studies have confirmed that women are qualified but still receive lower salaries (Chernesky & DSW, 2003). Theories to

explain this consistent pattern have been offered but the majority of the research has identified individual traits and factors associated with managerial careers of men and women (Chernesky & DSW, 2003).

There has been growing interest to examine how personal characteristics, beliefs, expectations of organizational decision makers may consciously or unconsciously influence the perceptions of those with promotion and salary decisions (Chernesky & DSW, 2003). Gender has been one area under investigation to suggest it has been influential and is the reason for why decision-makers have favored candidates of own gender or ethnicity (Chernesky & DSW, 2003). There have been two recent studies that investigated the influence of gender on how decision-makers have on the outcome of the decisions (Chernesky & DSW, 2003). A study by Powell and Butterfield examined promotion decisions made for 51 top management positions over a 12-year period in the Cabinet level department of the United States federal government (Chernesky & DSW, 2003). This study looked at the effects on the decision makers' gender and race on promotional decisions of both a review panel and selecting officers who referred applicants for the position (Chernesky & DSW, 2003). The results indicated that promotion decisions have favored female applicants (Chernesky & DSW, 2003).

Another focus on the gender of the decision maker was to see if women are being seen differently by male counterparts even when behaviors and performances were similar (Chernesky & DSW, 2003). A study done by Porter examined how male and female decision-makers perceived women's commitment to job and organizations (Chernesky & DSW, 2003). This study examined behaviors that managers pay attention

to in order to determine a worker's level of commitment (Chernesky & DSW, 2003). The specific concentration was in the men and women managers and how they had the same or different levels of commitment to same behaviors that were displayed by men and women (Chernesky & DSW, 2003). Another study was conducted of 78 mid-level managers from four different Fortune 500 companies. This study was also expected to find gender-based differences with gender affecting the perceptions of the manager on the workers' behaviors that demonstrated high or low level of commitment to the organization (Chernesky & DSW, 2003). The results from this study indicated that there were some differences at the high level of commitment, which had been long biased in favor of single male managers and male managers who can work if they were (Chernesky & DSW, 2003).

Two conclusions that were drawn from these studies were: organizational decision maker's gender was not a determinant factor of promotional decisions and the decisions of male and female managers may be influenced by the social and organizational contexts of gender differences (Chernesky & DSW, 2003). The evidence has led to the importance of diversity in the workforce and the amount distributed in the work group of women or men (Chernesky & DSW, 2003). Porter's study has illustrated the value the organization has in the number of women in management positions for new norms to develop (Chernesky & DSW, 2003). But Powell and Butterfield did not find that societal and organizational context of how decisions were made was a sufficient explanation from their results of their study (Chernesky & DSW, 2003). This study was committed to

equal opportunity and highly sensitive to the issues of race and gender where women were favored (Chernesky & DSW, 2003).

Probert (2005) conducted two types of research to test and challenge the accepted theories on the cause of gender inequity in academic employment at the national level in Australia's largest and prestigious universities. In the United Kingdom and Australia, gender inequity has been exposed without properly understanding the unequal outcomes for pay and status between men and women (Probert, 2005). The first study was a national survey of the academic and general staff in 18 universities for the National Tertiary Education Union (NTEU) (Probert, 2005). The second study that was a survey of all academic staff at the University of New South Wales (UNSW) with a follow-up on group discussions with female academics in their forties (Probert, 2005). Both studies confirmed that men and women were unequally distributed throughout the academic hierarchy that employed fewer women than men above a senior lecturer (Probert, 2005). The focus of this article was on the under-representation of female that was consistent with Australian, United Kingdom, and the United States universities, have been resilient to change (Probert, 2005).

The explanation of the under-representation of females at the senior level has been based on two frameworks (Probert, 2005). The first framework argued that unequal outcomes are from the unequal treatment of men and women at work with factors that could further their career (Probert, 2005). The second framework focused on the decisions men and women make and the different salaries they have that reflected gender choices than unequal treatment (Probert, 2005). Knights & Richards, (Probert, 2005) in

their article accepted the first framework with different biographies of women that state this is a discriminating factor, which reinforced the advantages men have than women (Probert, 2005).

The initial research of gender pay equity in Australian higher education was designed to test the first framework of women being under-represented because of gender biases (Probert, 2005). These biases were 1) women were less successful in being promoted because of their commitment to teaching, 2) Knights & Richards (Probert, 2005) saw that promotion panels favored males over females, 3) that teaching could be regarded as a feminine activity, and 4) that women were asked to discuss their experiences and about being supported – questions that men do not ask (Probert, 2005). There were two points made: women feel they are less successful than men when applying for promotion and the men's experience may be the same as the women's (Probert, 2005).

The national study of pay equity survey was sent to random sample of 3831 academic staff at 18 universities and had 1683 returned (Probert, 2005). UNSW study had the survey sent to all academic staff and 1007 had returned (Probert, 2005). Important predictors of incomes were based on academic level, years worked in higher education, and formal qualifications (Probert, 2005). Men have begun their academic careers at higher levels than women do, therefore, men had more years of employment on average compared to the women (Probert, 2005). There were 38.2% of men with PhDs and 12.2% of women with PhDs (Probert, 2005). The years worked has been a strong indicator of the level and pay for Australian universities (Probert, 2005). The years worked combined with educational advantage resulted with men at higher levels because

they were in the system longer (Probert, 2005). In terms of promotion, the UNSW study indicated that women would likely be more successful than men (Probert, 2005). The two studies have suggested that the under-representation of women cannot attribute to the glass ceiling (Probert, 2005). The analysts of gender inequity have been looking in the wrong places to find any discrepancies (Probert, 2005).

Dadivhizar & Cramer (2000) have discussed that gender differences in leadership have increased in the last decade as more women are entering the business world. Women were seen as indecisive, unstable, manipulative, and incapable of leadership (Dadivhizar & Cramer, 2000). Women have expounded on management styles and diversified what leadership is all about. The participative management style is how a leader gets everyone involved to create a positive atmosphere for all employees at work (Dadivhizar & Cramer, 2000). There was extensive work studying on leadership styles and how they can be measured (Dadivhizar & Cramer, 2000). There are definite differences between male and female leadership communication styles (Dadivhizar & Cramer, 2000). In 1989, a study done by Judy Rosener (Dadivhizar & Cramer, 2000) paired up men and women in leadership positions where women used techniques to motivate people for self-interest and to be a part of the team. Leadership characteristics were male, female, and neutral (Dadivhizar & Cramer, 2000). Male traits were aggressive, autocratic, competitive, confident, forceful, and stern (Dadivhizar & Cramer, 2000). Neutral traits were conscientious, conventional, solemn, and efficient (Dadivhizar & Cramer, 2000). Female leader traits were less coercive, and power in management (Dadivhizar & Cramer, 2000). Females ask for help to become more assertive and

overcome passive behavior while men want to be less assertive (Dadivhizar & Cramer, 2000). Men tend to be more focused, avoid facing problems, and females need a clear and steady voice (Dadivhizar & Cramer, 2000). Women talking tend to be more interrupted than men (Dadivhizar & Cramer, 2000). Females are more prone to emotional reactions. Men and women communicate differently and understanding the differences is essential for optimal communication and care that needs to be met (Dadivhizar & Cramer, 2000).

Under-Representation of Female Leadership

The glass ceiling effect has pointed out barriers and gender inequality that women have faced to prevent them from advancement to leadership position. It has been a common theme that women are under-represented in obtaining advancement to positions of authority. The views and experiences of women leaders will be discussed to give insight for the future women leaders.

Yedida & Bickel (2001) has shown that in the 25 years after women began entering medical school, there have been very few women who have been on the pathway to being successful leaders. The number of women increased in entering academic medicine yet has been under-represented in positions of women leadership (Yedida & Bickel, 2001). The focus was on the unique perspectives of the department chairs that men and women leaders have, sharing their personal experiences in the challenges that others have faced, and to be influential for the process of promoting and recruiting future leaders for the academic faculty (Yedida & Bickel, 2001). These views have been valuable to examine

so that the development of future policies can be planned accordingly (Yedida & Bickel, 2001).

This study was designed to seek out types and sources of barriers that women face in advancement of leadership positions and how to eliminate them through the accounts of the department chairs' views (Yedida & Bickel, 2001). The questionnaire was developed to catch insights that the researchers did not anticipate (Yedida & Bickel, 2001).

The results that affected the professional advancement of women were based on three factors: historical developments, socialization patterns in society, and specific expressions of these patterns in medicine (Yedida & Bickel, 2001). Mentoring has also been a major factor to initiate change in establishing adequate roles for women (Yedida & Bickel, 2001). The intervention strategies have to begin with either individual or institutional approaches for changes to occur (Yedida & Bickel, 2001). There must be counseling, advising, and role models provided to address gender roles (Yedida & Bickel, 2001). Within an institution, changes should be made with faculty schedules and part-time appointments, modifications of tenure and promotional policies (Yedida & Bickel, 2001). Educate faculty to conduct and provide women with mentors (Yedida & Bickel, 2001). Recommendations to eliminate barriers for advancement of women in leadership positions have to be short and long-term changes with individual or institutions to create an impact that will last for a long time (Yedida & Bickel, 2001). Inequalities will continue to exist and women will still be under-represented in leadership positions of academic medicine (Yedida & Bickel, 2001).

In the spring of 1992, twelve women physicians in leadership positions were asked a set of questions (Insenhart, 1994). Recommendations to attain leadership positions have been to create a panel for discussion of important issues that require feedback, career planning with supervision, match mentor to the guidelines of the one being mentored, training and development for leaders focused on women's issues, a quarterly meeting for support of women that offer training and managing skills, networking, and resources for up-to-date information (Insenhart, 1994). These recommendations have led to the women in the development of policies, established network system, created a task force, meetings for female physicians and a committee has been formed, support group meetings on a quarterly basis, a mentoring project initiated, and a resource center created (Insenhart, 1994).

Rosener (1990) conducted a study on women who have broken through the glass ceiling in nontraditional organizations have proven that leaders are not from one particular mold. Using the command-and-control style has been associated with male leadership but not the only way to success (Rosener, 1990). The first female executive had to follow the male style of leadership as she was breaking new ground, but the second wave of women in top management have depended on experiences as a woman to develop skills and attitudes contrary to a male style of leadership (Rosener, 1990). A survey was done by International Women's Forum that showed a number of unexpected similarities and differences between men and women leaders (Rosener, 1990). The similarities were that they earn about the same salary and have family-related conflicts

with work (Rosener, 1990). The differences are that women are transformational leaders and men are transactional leaders (Rosener, 1990).

The style of leadership a woman possesses has been interactive where there is encouragement to participate and share ideas to promote self-worth and be excited about their work (Rosener, 1990). The interviews of interactive women leadership have shown several patterns that encouraged participation management style of leadership (Rosener, 1990). These patterns revealed people were at their best when there was environments that created positive energy and made them feel good about themselves (Rosener, 1990). Encouraged participation, share power and information, enhance the self-worth of others, and energize others are the patterns that these women have discussed from the interviews (Rosener, 1990).

The behaviors and beliefs of these interviewees shaped their leadership styles, based on two things: socialization and career paths they have chosen (Rosener, 1990). The average age of the men and women that responded to the survey was 51, which indicated that gender was a factor in differing work experiences (Rosener, 1990). Women have developed different skills and styles from men over time, which has been viewed that power and information shared is an asset, not a liability (Rosener, 1990). The goal is to contribute to a higher purpose in order to have the opportunity to learn and grow from it (Rosener, 1990). In order for an institution to expand and grow, it is essential to create more opportunities for women, especially with fast-changing environments (Rosener, 1990). Interactive leadership has been effective in the interviewees that have deemed successful (Rosener, 1990). Organizations that are well-established should broaden their

definition of effective leadership that could stretch out the path for potential leaders and make the glass ceiling disappear (Rosener, 1990).

Breaking Through the Glass Ceiling

As the glass ceiling frequently occurs, there are ways to either break through it or prevent it. The barriers, gender inequalities, and under-representation of female leadership have all correlated to examine the existence of the glass ceiling and its effects of women in the workplace.

Weil & Mattis (2003) reported that the Wall Street Journal defined the glass ceiling as “invisible but impenetrable barrier between women and the executive suite – regardless of their accomplishments,” (Weil & Mattis, 2003). A Glass Ceiling Act was developed and enacted in 1991 (Weil & Mattis, 2003). There have been two theories that suggest female healthcare managers are more inclined to favor affirmative action (Weil & Mattis, 2003). The first theory is the Relative Deprivation Theory when lower achievements bring about insecurities compared to others, therefore, seeing themselves as being comparable when their own accomplishments are compared with others (Weil & Mattis, 2003). The second theory is the Social Identity Theory that deals with the self-conceptions that come from within a social group (Weil & Mattis, 2003). These two theories together can either support or oppose affirmative action has brought awareness of injustice and increased involvement and changes in social systems (Weil & Mattis, 2003).

Affirmative action dictated that gender has been a consistent predictor of attitudes established against women that are not supportive of affirmative action of women (Weil & Mattis, 2003). The first prediction was that more female healthcare managers would implement more affirmative action policies than males (Weil & Mattis, 2003). The first hypothesis indicated that increased number of female healthcare managers would support the rising number of females in senior healthcare management positions (Weil & Mattis, 2003). The second hypothesis was that women recruited from clinical roles with less graduate training, and does not associate much with other healthcare executives, are more likely to support affirmative action (Weil & Mattis, 2003). The third hypothesis stated that women with lower level positions with lower salaries, who are dissatisfied with work or life balance, or have been passed over for a promotion due to gender, will likely support affirmative action (Weil & Mattis, 2003). The fourth hypothesis stated that relative deprivation or on their behalf, women and men will favor affirmative action will refer to exclusion or discrimination within own organizations against women (Weil & Mattis, 2003).

A sample for the study was taken from the membership database of major professional association of healthcare managers (Weil & Mattis, 2003). The data was a questionnaire that was developed with a pre-test on 20 members of the association (Weil & Mattis, 2003). The measures described the justification for or against affirmative action, and describing the barriers to the advancement of women in organizations developed and utilized by previous researchers (Weil & Mattis, 2003). In the spring of

2000, this survey was sent to 1601 members with half sent to women and half sent to men.

The findings reported there has been special effort made to advance women in their careers, with half of the men in agreement (Weil & Mattis, 2003). There were 90% of healthcare executive women and 53% of men agreed that there was increased proportion of women to have senior healthcare positions (Weil & Mattis, 2003). The first hypothesis was confirmed. The second hypothesis was supported by women with clinical experience (Weil & Mattis, 2003). The third hypothesis was not confirmed since the hypothesized situations did not occur often (Weil & Mattis, 2003). The fourth hypothesis had three existing hurdles: stereotypes from males, women were not included in the informal communication network, and lack of accountability of senior leaders on women's advancement (Weil & Mattis, 2003).

Men who supported affirmative action claimed there were two barriers: discrimination by male supervisors and lack of opportunities visible in the organization (Weil & Mattis, 2003). Social Identity Theory was somewhat supported and relative deprivation theory was partly supported by the analyses of existing discrimination practices referred to those in favor of affirmative action (Weil & Mattis, 2003). There was increased female support of affirmative action, and half of the men who did not support it (Weil & Mattis, 2003). The conclusion was based on the differences in how managers think career opportunities are offered (Weil & Mattis, 2003). The significant barrier is the length of time spent within the organization, but CEOs think time will solve

this problem (Weil & Mattis, 2003). Lack of significant management and experience has been another major barrier (Weil & Mattis, 2003).

Lazarus (1997) has defined the glass ceiling as artificial barriers based on attitudinal or organizational bias that prevent qualified individuals from advancing upward in their organization into management level positions. What factors contribute to women and minorities victimized by the glass ceiling and how can physicians break the glass ceiling? A professional management profile: white male in 50s, trained and board certified in primary care, specialty is usually internal medicine, family practice, or pediatrics. Breaking the glass ceiling has not been a high priority for healthcare organizations (Lazarus, 1997). With the increased number of physicians aspiring to upper management, it is important to identify glass ceiling factors that prevent advancement of physician executives (Lazarus, 1997). Silver & Marcos (Lazarus, 1997) studied professional development of psychiatrist executives. To become a physician executive, it is a process that involves interaction of five factors: mentor relationship, formal training in administration, personality traits, clinical training, and administrative experience (Lazarus, 1997). Gender and race can impact this career development (Lazarus, 1997).

The first factor of mentoring is similar to teaching or counseling and is important in the development of a physician executive (Lazarus, 1997). The second factor of formal training and education has been an on-the-job experience for the first generation physician executives with no formal business training to understand the complexities of management (Lazarus, 1997). Smallwood & Wilson (Lazarus, 1997) recommended formal training early in administrative careers of physician executives. To practice and

manage both compete for time of the physician, as senior physician executives spend 10% with patient care and 80% of time in management (Lazarus, 1997). Shortell (Lazarus, 1997) identified seven cultural differences between physicians and managers. They were knowledge, agendas, patient care, ability to handle tasks, decision-making skills, resources, and professional identity (Lazarus, 1997).

The third factor being personality has shown that physicians are introverted, with intuitive feelings, and managers have leadership and vision – important attributes to executives (Lazarus, 1997).

The glass ceiling found female physicians in academic medical centers were promoted at a slower rate and received a lower salary (Lazarus, 1997). This could be unintentional or blatant in gender and race discrimination (Lazarus, 1997). The focus on the factors that influence professional development of physician executives identified developmental deficiencies were harder to identify yet easier to rectify (Lazarus, 1997). Critical changes must be made by top management and health care organizations to help physicians break the glass ceiling (Lazarus, 1997).

Reinhold (2005) has reported that fewer than 10 Fortune 500 companies have female CEOs. There are only 13% of women who hold the top positions and 9% are board of director positions (Reinhold, 2005). Today, women make up 12% of top earners and leaders in America's executive suites (Reinhold, 2005). Women executives outpace male counterparts on 42 out of 52 essential management skills with female executives score higher than male colleagues on high quality work, setting goals, and mentoring (Reinhold, 2005). A 2004 study by Catalyst found companies with increased

representation of women in top management positions, financially outperform companies with fewer women at the top (Reinhold, 2005). This article examined the issues of what held women back from achieving full leadership potential (Reinhold, 2005).

The first reason was that most companies were white and male (Reinhold, 2005). In order to get ahead, a female had to learn the male language, communicate it, and be influential without expecting any male to return the favor (Reinhold, 2005). Companies need to be more aware of the diversity within leadership ranks (Reinhold, 2005). The second reason was that gender bias still exists (Reinhold, 2005). Workplace gender bias was a key finding of three Catalyst surveys of women executives in the United States, United Kingdom, and Canada (Reinhold, 2005). The third reason was that many companies do not develop culture accountability for developing female managers and executives, a major barrier for women to get ahead in corporate America (Reinhold, 2005). The fourth reason was that companies do not view people skills as executive skills (Reinhold, 2005). The fifth reason was that many companies fail to help women juggle the demands of work, life, and family (Reinhold, 2005). Carnegie-Mellon's School of Public Policy and Management found that women do not get what they want or deserve because they won't ask for it and men negotiate for what they want that leads to women decreasing in jobs and promotions (Reinhold, 2005). The sixth reason was that women have no mentors from the lack of having networks (Reinhold, 2005). The biggest barriers have been the exclusion from network and lack of mentoring for women to advance (Reinhold, 2005).

The critical steps involved to develop female leadership are: top management buy-in, ownership of effort, and smart business strategy that would promote advancement (Reinhold, 2005). A strategy to remove cultural barriers could be used by hiring an outside consultant group to shed light on work pattern (Reinhold, 2005). Another idea would be to use of state of the art training and development approaches and methodologies (Reinhold, 2005). Women within the company could provide feedback and ways to promote growth and development for female leadership (Reinhold, 2005). The fate of female leadership has depended on male leadership and CEOs, and how much they are aware of the glass ceiling (Reinhold, 2005).

Summary

The glass ceiling has provided an explanation to the barriers that women face to advance within their respective professions, but not as to why women still seek equal opportunities in the workplace (Cotter et al., 2001; Lockwood, 2004). This has been evident in the business and healthcare professions, and can be incorporated in other professions as well, such as athletic training. Even though there have been efforts made to prevent or break through the glass ceiling, there are still many women who are qualified for leadership positions but do not obtain it due to gender.

Gender issues have been at the root of the glass ceiling but there is confusion between the issues of gender differences and gender inequalities (Booth, 2000; Ridgeway, 2001). Gender inequalities have produced gender stereotypes that stem from the differences in gender (Booth, 2000; Ridgeway, 2001). The differences between men and women in

their behaviors, opinions, and attitudes are unique but should not be associated in the workplace. The confusion is assuming that the qualities that make up a man and a woman are different in every aspect of life. This is not true because of the many documented cases where successful leaders are both men and women that are on the same level of status in the workplace (Booth, 2000; Shingles, 2001; Ridgeway, 2001; Probert, 2005; Dadivhizar & Cramer, 2000). The qualities that make up a woman do not necessarily mean they are not qualified or equipped to obtain positions of leadership and authority.

In such male dominant workplaces, such as professional sports organizations, it is difficult for women to obtain opportunities to work. It is also difficult to be the first female to work in a male-dominated profession, especially in professional sports. This was evident with the female sportscasters and what they had to go through to obtain the same rights as the male sportscasters to interview professional athletes within the locker rooms (Druzin, n.d.). In 1977, Melissa Ludtke, a Sports Illustrated reporter, was not allowed to interview players of the 1977 Major League Baseball World Series and Sports Illustrated publisher Time Inc., filed a lawsuit and in 1978, a United States federal judge ruled that female sports reporters should have the same access to these professional athletes as the male sports reporters do (Druzin, n.d.). There is a need for women to overcome barriers that deny them the same opportunities as men do (Druzin, n.d.). The explanation of the glass ceiling effect has demonstrated why women cannot hold leadership positions or be denied to work in male-dominated workplaces. The methods provided have shown that the glass ceiling can be prevented or broken by organizations

desiring to do so. It has been proven that women are just as qualified as the men to do the same job. Therefore, women should not be denied opportunities to compete for the same job as the men.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

There were approximately 373 head and assistant (male and female) ATCs from the NFL, NBA, NHL, MLB, and MLS, ranging from 2-4 within each team. Each subject was sent a survey through the NATA website and asked to complete and return it through a web link provided by the NATA website voluntarily and with consent.

Formation of Questions

There was very little information on how the few female ATCs were hired in professional male sports. This led to the speculation that maybe there were some specific characteristics or qualities that female ATCs need to possess in order to be hired in professional male sports. A questionnaire was created to ask the female ATCs in professional male sports about their experiences as being the only female ATC among male staff and players. This questionnaire was formulated through the consultation of three female ATCs at UNLV. The questionnaire was made up of fourteen questions on how these female ATCs were hired, what were their qualifications, the differences between collegiate and professional level of sports, how well they have been received, and what advice would they give to other female ATCs who would like to follow in their

footsteps. This led to the construction of a survey to ask male ATCs what they thought of having female ATCs within professional male sports teams.

Construct of Survey

Michelle Leget and Ariko Iso were the two female ATCs contacted through personal communication. The questionnaire was sent to both female ATCs and they responded to all the questions. There were attempts to locate and contact other female ATCs who worked with professional male sports teams in past years, but this was unsuccessful. There are still continual attempts to contact them. There has been a limited amount of information gathered so far, and limited amount of female ATCs in professional male sports that could be contacted. This led to formulating a survey to address the head male ATCs and assistant ATCs of five major male sports teams: NFL, NBA, NHL, MLB, and MLS. The survey was created to find out if there were any barriers that female ATCs needed faced in order to work with a professional male sports team. It was also created to find out why there are not many female ATCs hired. The idea for the survey came through the deliberation of five athletic trainers at UNLV. The deliberation of ideas turned into specific questions that were created by the principle investigator. The questions were based on the possible barriers or reasons why few female ATCs were being hired with professional male sports teams currently. The eleven questions were designed to determine specific possibilities to see if there were barriers in regards to female ATCs when seeking a position with a professional male sports team. This survey also included four demographic questions that asked about the sex of the ATC, the ethnic

origin, the age, and which professional sports team they worked with. It also had an additional comment section at the end of the survey for any remarks the recipients wanted to add (see Table 1). A survey web tool called “surveymonkey.com” was used in transferring the survey so that they would be retrieved anonymously.

Survey Distribution

The survey was submitted to the District secretary of the NATA along with IRB approval from UNLV. It was then submitted to the NATA survey service from the District secretary where the survey was distributed to the five major professional male sports leagues. A cover letter was emailed to all of the five major professional sports leagues with a link that directed them to the survey on “surveymonkey.com.” The first page was the informed consent form that they filled out. This survey contained four demographic questions and eleven questions on what barriers there might be for female ATCs to work with a professional male sports team. The rating scale for each question was based on the Likert scale. This ranged from strongly disagree, disagree, no opinion, agree, and strongly agree. The participants could skip questions if they did not want to answer them or come back to them later. The surveys were submitted back to the web link that was created by the principle investigator on a web link survey tool called “surveymonkey.com.” Only the primary investigator has access to this web link. The results were calculated into percentages for each answer.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

There were 373 certified athletic trainers that were sent the survey. They were all members of the NATA who worked as full-time ATCs in the professional setting with the NFL, NBA, NHL, MLS, and MLB in the spring of 2006. One hundred and fourteen male participants responded to the survey with a return rate of 30.6%. Cannon Survey Center at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas (UNLV) indicated that this is a very good response rate. All participants implied consent when they filled out the survey as was stated on the informed consent form. The demographic data is found in Table 1.

Table 1. Demographic Data

Sex	Age	Ethnicity	Pro Sport
Male: 100%	20-30 yrs: 41.8%	White, Non-Hispanic: 75.2%	MLB: 37.3%
	31-40 yrs: 31.8%	Black, Non-Hispanic: 9.2%	NHL: 25.5%
	41-50 yrs: 18.2%	Hispanic: 7.3%	NFL: 23.5%
	51 yrs: 8.2%	Asian/Pacific Islander: 5.5%	NBA: 11.8%
		Other: 1.8%	MLS: 2%
		American Indian/Alaskan: 0.9%	

The number of participants who responded to the survey by professional sport along with the demographic data within each professional sport can be found in Table 2.

Table 2. Demographic Data by Professional Sports

Pro Sport	Number of Participants	Age	Ethnicity
NFL	24	20-30 yrs: 29.2% 41-50 yrs: 29.2% 31-40 yrs: 25% 51 yrs: 16.7%	White, Non-Hispanic: 79.2% Black, Non-Hispanic: 16.7% American Indian/Alaskan: 4.2%
NBA	12	20-30 yrs: 41.7% 31-40 yrs: 33.3% 41-50 yrs: 16.7%	White, Non-Hispanic: 50% Black, Non-Hispanic: 33.3% Asian/Pacific Islander: 8.3% Other: 8.3%
NHL	26	20-30 yrs: 38.5% 31-40 yrs: 53.8% 41-50 yrs: 7.7%	White, Non-Hispanic: 84.6% Hispanic: 11.5% Other: 3.8%
MLB	38	20-30 yrs: 52.6% 41-50 yrs: 23.7% 31-40 yrs: 15.8% 51 yrs: 7.9%	White, Non-Hispanic: 70.3% Hispanic: 13.5% Asian/Pacific Islander: 10.8% Black, Non-Hispanic: 5.4%
MLS	2	20-30 yrs: 100%	White, Non-Hispanic: 100%

Descriptive Statistics

The following descriptive statistics were calculated using Microsoft Excel for Windows 2000 XP software. Question one asked if there was a “high potential for sexual harassment when a female is the training room” and the results from the survey are found in Table 3 below.

Table 3. Results for Question One

Question 1:	TOTAL PARTICIPANTS	NFL	NBA	NHL	MLB	MLS
Strongly Agree	22.9%	17.4%	16.7%	16%	32.4%	0%
Agree	45.7%	30.4%	33.3%	60%	45.9%	100%
Non Opinion	6.7%	4.3%	16.7%	8%	5.4%	0%
Disagree	17.1%	30.4%	16.7%	12%	13.5%	0%
Strongly Disagree	7.6%	17.4%	16.7%	4%	2.7%	0%

Results from question one found that the NFL had 30.4% who agreed and 17.4% who strongly agreed, altogether, 47.8% agreed. The same percentages are also shown in disagreement. From the NBA, 33.3% agreed and 16.7% strongly agreed, altogether, 50% agreed. From the NHL, 60% agreed and 16% strongly agreed, altogether, 66% agreed. From MLB, 45.9% agreed and 32.4% strongly agreed, altogether, 78.3% agreed. From the MLS, 100% agreed. Overall, 45.7% agreed and 22.9% strongly agreed totaling 68.6% agreed that sexual harassment could still occur when a female ATC is present in the locker room.

Question two asked “if there are opportunities for female ATCs to obtain jobs or internship positions with professional male sports teams” and the results from the survey are found in Table 4.

Table 4. Results for Question Two

Question 2:	TOTAL PARTICIPANTS	NFL	NBA	NHL	MLB	MLS
Strongly Agree	10.5%	8.7%	16.7%	4%	13.5%	0%
Agree	79%	78.3%	75%	84%	83.8%	100%
No Opinion	1%	4.3%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Disagree	9.5%	8.7%	8.3%	12%	2.7%	0%
Strongly Disagree	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%

Results from question two found that the NFL had 78.3% agreed and 8.7% strongly agreed, altogether, 87% agreed. From the NBA, 75% agreed and 16.7% strongly agreed, altogether, 91.7% agreed. From the NHL, 84% agreed and 4% strongly agreed, altogether, 88% agreed. From the MLS, 100% agreed. Overall, 79% agreed and 10.5%

strongly agreed, totaling 89.5% agreed that there are opportunities for female ATCs to work in professional male sports.

Question three asked “if few female applicants are interested in working with professional male sports teams” and the results from the survey are found in Table 5.

Table 5. Results for Question Three

Question 3:	TOTAL PARTICIPANTS	NFL	NBA	NHL	MLB	MLS
Strongly Agree	1.9%	0%	0%	0%	5.4%	0%
Agree	8.7%	9.1%	8.3%	8%	8.1%	100%
No Opinion	21.2%	18.2%	50%	20%	19.8%	0%
Disagree	47.1%	40.9%	25%	44%	54.1%	0%
Strongly Disagree	21.2%	31.8%	16.7%	28%	13.5%	0%

Results from question three found the NFL, 40.9% disagreed and 31.8% strongly disagreed, altogether, 72.7% disagreed. From the NBA, 50% had no opinion. From the NHL, 44% disagreed and 28% strongly disagreed, altogether, 72% disagreed. From the MLB, 54.1% disagreed and 13.5% strongly disagreed, altogether, 67.6% disagreed. Overall, 47.1% disagreed and 21.2% strongly disagreed, totaling 69.3% disagreed that there were few female ATCs interested in working with professional male sports.

Question four asked “if female ATCs lack the amount of experience needed to work with professional male sports teams” and the results from the survey are found in Table 6.

Table 6. Results for Question Four

Question 4:	TOTAL PARTICIPANTS	NFL	NBA	NHL	MLB	MLS
Strongly Agree	1%	0%	0%	4%	0%	0%
Agree	4.8%	0%	8.3%	8%	2.8%	0%
No Opinion	11.5%	8.7%	8.3%	4%	13.9%	0%
Disagree	51.9%	60.9%	25%	56%	58.3%	100%
Strongly Disagree	30.8%	30.4%	58.3%	28%	25%	0%

Results from question four found that the NFL, 60.9% disagreed and 30.4% strongly disagreed, altogether, 91.3% disagreed. From the NBA, 25% disagreed and 58.3% strongly disagreed, altogether, 83.3% disagreed. From the NHL, 56% disagreed and 28% strongly disagreed, altogether, 84% disagreed. From MLB, 58.3% disagreed and 25% strongly disagreed, altogether, 83.3% disagreed. From the MLS, 100% disagreed. Overall, 51.9% disagreed and 30.8% strongly disagreed, totaling 82.7% disagreed that female ATCs lacked experience needed to work with professional male sports teams.

Question five asked “if professional male sports organizations and professional male athletes accept female ATCs in the locker room” and the results from the survey can be found in Table 7.

Table 7. Results for Question Five

Question 5:	TOTAL PARTICIPANTS	NFL	NBA	NHL	MLB	MLS
Strongly Agree	1.9%	4.3%	0%	4%	0%	0%
Agree	33.3%	17.4%	33.3%	44%	32.4%	0%
No Opinion	21.9%	30.4%	25%	16%	18.9%	0%
Disagree	41%	43.5%	41.7%	36%	45.9%	100%
Strongly Disagree	1.9%	4.3%	0%	0%	2.7%	0%

Results from question five found that the NFL had 43.5% who disagreed and 4.3% strongly disagreed, altogether, 47.8% disagreed. From the NBA, 41.7% disagreed. From the NHL, 36% disagreed. From MLB, 45.9% disagreed and 2.7% strongly disagreed, altogether, 48.6% disagreed. From the MLS, 100% disagreed. Overall, 41% disagreed and 1.9% strongly disagreed, totaling 42.9% disagreed that female ATCs are accepted in the locker room.

Question six asked “if male ATCs are willing to mentor or hire a female ATC in professional male sports” and the results from the survey are found in Table 8.

Table 8. Results for Question Six

Question 6:	TOTAL PARTICIPANTS	NFL	NBA	NHL	MLB	MLS
Strongly Agree	3.8%	0%	8.3%	8%	2.7%	0%
Agree	51%	34.8%	58.3%	60%	48.6%	0%
No Opinion	19.2%	30.4%	8.3%	12%	21.6%	0%
Disagree	24%	34.8%	16.7%	20%	24.3%	0%
Strongly Disagree	1.9%	0%	8.3%	0%	2.7%	0%

Results from question six found that the NFL had 34.8% who agreed and 34.8% who disagreed. There was 30.4% who had no opinion. From the NBA, 58.3% agreed and 8.3% strongly agreed, altogether, 66.6% agreed. From the NHL, 60% agreed and 8% strongly agreed, altogether, 68% agreed. From the MLB, 48.6% agreed and 2.7% strongly agreed, altogether, 51.4% agreed. Overall, 51% agreed and 3.8% strongly agreed, totaling 54.8% agreed male ATCs are willing to mentor or hire a female ATC in professional male sports.

Question seven asked “if a female ATC needs to network more than a male ATC to work with a professional male sports team” and the results from the survey are found in Table 9.

Table 9. Results for Question Seven

Question 7:	TOTAL PARTICIPANTS	NFL	NBA	NHL	MLB	MLS
Strongly Agree	12.5%	13%	8.3%	4%	16.2%	0%
Agree	34.6%	21.7%	25%	44%	35.1%	0%
No Opinion	22.1%	34.8%	33.3%	12%	21.6%	0%
Disagree	26.9%	21.7%	33.3%	36%	24.3%	0%
Strongly Disagree	3.8%	8.7%	0%	4%	2.7%	0%

Results from question seven found that the NFL had 21.7% who agreed and 13% who strongly agreed, altogether, 34.7% agreed. The same percentages were also in disagreement with 34.8% who had no opinion. From the NBA, 33.3% disagreed and 33.3% who had no opinion. From the NHL, 44% agreed and 4% strongly agreed, altogether, 48% agreed. From the MLB, 35.1% agreed and 16.2% strongly agreed, altogether, 51.3% agreed. Overall, 34.6% agreed and 12.5% strongly agreed, totaling 47.1% have agreed that female ATCs need to network more than male ATCs.

Question eight asked “if professional male sports organizations have specific qualifications that need to be met in order to hire a female ATC” and the results from the survey are found in Table 10.

Table 10. Results for Question Eight

Question 8:	TOTAL PARTICIPANTS	NFL	NBA	NHL	MLB	MLS
Strongly Agree	8.7%	21.7%	8.3%	0%	8.1%	0%
Agree	26%	21.7%	8.3%	32%	29.7%	0%
No Opinion	35.6%	26.1%	50%	40%	32.4%	0%
Disagree	21.2%	17.4%	8.3%	24%	27%	0%
Strongly Disagree	8.7%	13%	25%	4%	2.7%	0%

Results from question eight found that the NFL had 26.1% who had no opinion. From the NBA, 50% had no opinion. From the NHL, 40% had no opinion. From the MLB, 32.4% had no opinion. Overall, 35.6% had no opinion on male sports organizations having specific qualifications in order for a female ATC to be hired.

Question nine asked “if professional male sports organizations have no preference in hiring either a male or female ATC” and the results from the survey are found in Table 11.

Table 11. Results for Question Nine

Question 9:	TOTAL PARTICIPANTS	NFL	NBA	NHL	MLB	MLS
Strongly Agree	1%	0%	0%	0%	2.8%	0%
Agree	12.6%	13%	16.7%	8%	16.7%	0%
No Opinion	19.4%	17.4%	16.7%	24%	22.2%	0%
Disagree	48.5%	56.5%	50%	40%	41.7%	0%
Strongly Disagree	18.4%	13%	16.7%	28%	16.7%	0%

Results from question nine found the NFL had 56.5% who disagreed and 13% strongly disagreed, altogether, 69.5% disagreed. From the NBA, 50% disagreed and 16.7% strongly disagreed, altogether, 66.7% disagreed. From the NHL, 40% disagreed and 28% strongly disagreed, altogether, 68% disagreed. From the MLB, 41.7% disagreed and 16.7% strongly disagreed, altogether, 58.4% disagreed. Overall, 48.5% disagreed and 18.4% strongly disagreed, totaling 66.9% disagreed that professional male sports organizations have no preference in hiring either a male or female ATC.

Question ten asked “if more female ATCs will be hired within professional male sports team organizations” and the results from the survey are found in Table 12.

Table 12. Results for Question Ten

Question 10:	TOTAL PARTICIPANTS	NFL	NBA	NHL	MLB	MLS
Strongly Agree	3.8%	0%	8.3%	4%	5.4%	0%
Agree	44.2%	60.9%	33.3%	52%	35.1%	0%
No Opinion	25%	13%	33.3%	16%	32.4%	0%
Disagree	25%	26.1%	25%	20%	27%	0%
Strongly Disagree	1.9%	0%	0%	8%	0%	0%

Results from question ten found that the NFL had 60.9% who agreed. From the NBA, 33.3% agreed and 8.3% strongly disagreed, altogether, 41.6% agreed. From the NHL, 52% agreed and 4% strongly agreed, altogether, 56% agreed. From MLB, 35.1% agreed and 5.4% strongly agreed, altogether, 40.5% agreed. Overall, 44.2% agreed and 3.8% strongly agreed, totaling 48% agreed that female ATCs would be hired in professional male sports.

Question eleven asked “if Equal Opportunity and Affirmative Action has a negative effect in professional male sport team organizations” and the results from the survey are found in Table 13.

Table 13. Results for Question Eleven

Question 11:	TOTAL PARTICIPANTS	NFL	NBA	NHL	MLB	MLS
Strongly Agree	6.7%	4.3%	8.3%	8%	5.4%	0%
Agree	8.7%	13%	0%	4%	8.1%	0%
No Opinion	54.8%	43.5%	66.7%	68%	56.8%	0%
Disagree	26%	26.1%	25%	20%	27%	0%
Strongly Disagree	3.8%	13%	0%	0%	2.7%	0%

Results from question eleven found that the NFL had 43.5% who had no opinion. From the NBA, 66.7% had no opinion. From the NHL, 68% had no opinion. From MLB, 56.8% had no opinion. Overall, 54.8% had no opinion on Equal Opportunity and Affirmative Action having a negative effect in professional male sports.

There were a total of 40 additional comments that were made. All responses to the survey from the five professional sports are found in Table 14.

Table 14. Additional Comments from Survey

	TOTAL PARTICIPANTS	NFL	NBA	NHL	MLB	MLS
Additional Comments:	40	3	11	7	4	0

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to find out why the NFL, NBA, NHL, MLB, and MLS do not hire more female ATCs, if the glass ceiling effect does exist, and if these organizations will hire more female ATCs in the future. This chapter will discuss the results of the surveys, problems with the survey distribution, conclusions, and recommendations for future study.

According to the 2006 NFL website, there are 33 teams in the NFL with a total of approximately 85 full-time athletic trainers. There are six teams with three full-time assistant athletic trainers, twelve teams with two full-time assistant athletic trainers, three teams with one full-time assistant athletic trainer, and nine teams that do not have full-time athletic trainers listed on the NFL website. There is one full-time female athletic trainer in the NFL.

According to the 2006 NBA website, there are a total of 30 teams in the NBA with approximately 42 full-time athletic trainers. There are twelve teams with two full-time athletic trainers and eighteen teams with one full-time athletic trainer listed on the NBA website. There is one full-time female athletic trainer in the NBA.

According to the 2006 NHL website, there are 30 teams in the NHL with a total of approximately 50 full-time athletic trainers. There are nineteen teams with two full-time

athletic trainers, nine teams with one full-time athletic trainer, and one teams with three full-time athletic trainers listed. There is one full-time female athletic trainer in the NHL.

According to the 2006 MLB website, there are 30 teams in MLB with a total of approximately 67 full-time athletic trainers. There are two teams that have four full-time athletic trainers, three teams with three full-time athletic trainers, twenty-three with two full-time athletic trainers, and two teams with one full-time athletic trainer listed on the MLB website. There are no full-time female athletic trainers listed in the MLB website.

According to the 2006 MLS website, there are 12 teams in the MLS with a total of approximately 15 full-time athletic trainers. There are three teams with two full-time athletic trainers, and nine teams with one full-time athletic trainer listed on the MLS website. There are no full-time female athletic trainers listed in the MLS website.

The total number of full-time athletic trainers within these five professional sports was approximately 259 with a total of three full-time female athletic trainers on staff. Out of the 373 ATCs the surveys were distributed to, 259 ATCs were from these five professional sports teams, and 114 ATCs were affiliated with minor, independent, or other professional leagues.

First Research Question

The first research question asked, “Why are there not more female athletic trainers in the professional male sports teams from the NFL, NBA, NHL, MLS, and MLB?” The results from the returned surveys of questions one, five, and nine have attempted to answer the first research question. The results from question one found that a total of

68.6% agreed or strongly agreed that sexual harassment can occur if a female is present in the athletic training room. The results from question five found that a total of 42.9% disagreed or strongly disagreed on professional male sports teams and professional male athletes accepted female ATCs in the locker room. The five professional male sports teams (NFL, NBA, NHL, MLB, and MLS) did have a higher percentage that disagreed on female ATCs in the locker room except for the NHL, which has a total of 48% that agree female ATCs are accepted in the locker room. The athletic training room is usually located within the locker rooms and can be potentially dangerous grounds for sexual harassment to occur. Of course that can happen in any workplace, whether it is in the locker room or an office (Shingles, 2001; Ridgeway, 2001). Sexual harassment is a serious issue, not just in professional male sports but also in any occupation for the protection of the female as well as the integrity of the organization.

Most of the males in professional male sports organizations have come from a “good old boys’ network” and do not think that females are fit for such an environment (Peres et al., 2003). The results from question nine had a total of 66.9% agreed that professional male sports organizations do have a preference in hiring either a male or female ATC. Therefore, the results of the surveys have shown that many professional male sports teams are not hiring more female ATCs due to the potential risks of sexual harassment, logistics of the athletic training room location, and the preference of hiring based on gender.

Second Research Question

The second research question asked, “Do female athletic trainers face any barriers to work with a professional male sports team that indicate a glass ceiling does exist?” The results from the returned surveys of question three, four, and eight has attempted to answer the second research question. The results from question three found that a total of 68.3% disagreed or strongly disagreed that there were few female ATCs interested in working with professional male sports. The results from question four found that a total of 82.7% disagreed or strongly disagreed that female ATCs lacked the amount of experience to work with professional male sports. The results from question eight found a total of 34.7% agreed or strongly agreed that female ATCs need specific qualifications to work with professional male sports. The NFL had a total of 43.4% and MLB had a total of 37.8% who agreed on this question eight. Therefore, the results have shown female ATCs who are interested in working with professional male sports teams do not lack experience, need to have certain qualifications based on gender to be hired. This has lead to barriers for female ATCs that indicate a glass ceiling effect.

Third Research Question

The third research question asked, “Will professional male sports teams such as the NFL, NBA, NHL, MLS, and MLB hire or continue to hire female athletic trainers in the future?” The results from the returned surveys of question two, three, and ten has attempted to answer the third research question. The results from question two found that a total of 89.5% agreed or strongly agreed that female ATCs have opportunities to

work with professional male sports. The results from question three found a total of 68.3% disagreed or strongly disagreed that there were few female ATCs interested in working with professional male sports. The results from question ten found a total of 48% agreed or strongly agreed that more female ATCs will be hired by the five professional male sports teams (NFL, NBA, NHL, MLB, and MLS). Therefore, more female ATCs will be hired due to the opportunities and interest for female ATCs to work with professional male sports.

One way to prevent a glass ceiling effect is mentorship (Lockwood, 2004; Yedida & Bickel, 2001; Lazarus, 1997) and networking (Lockwood, 2004; Yedida & Bickel, 2001). According to the results from question six, a total of 54.8% agreed or strongly agreed that male ATCs are willing to mentor female ATCs. It has yet to be determined how much mentorship there is between male and female ATCs, but mentoring is an important factor in order for female ATCs to work within professional male sports (Lazarus, 1997). The results from question seven found a total of 47.1% agreed or strongly agreed that female ATCs have to network more than male ATCs to work for professional male sports. Many comments that came from the survey strongly suggested that networking is very important in order to establish a relationship with other fellow athletic trainers, especially in professional male sports. Therefore, from the returned surveys, it has been acknowledged that mentoring and networking are important factors for female ATCs to be considered for employment in professional male sports.

Limitations with Survey Distribution

The survey was distributed to a small population from the entire male ATC members from the NATA database. Therefore, the results of the surveys have come from a very small population with the return rate of 30.6% (114) and does not account for the entire male ATC population.

The survey distribution to the 373 NATA full-time ATC members in professional male sports teams ran into some complications. Unfortunately, the way that the NATA had distributed the surveys did not break down the different types of professional teams from the Majors to the Minors to the Independent Leagues. Therefore, the results of this study had a mixture from various professional leagues. From the 373 NATA members, the only distinction was the five different sports that they were associated with and divided into male and female ATCs within in one sport (see Table 15). The NATA database was unable to break down the number of members working within one professional team. For example, professional baseball has a total of 142 ATCs in the NATA database but there was no indication of how many were in the Major leagues, Minor leagues, or Independent leagues.

Table 15. NATA Distribution of Professional Sports

Job Setting	Female	Male	Total
Pro Baseball	2	140	142
Pro Basketball	10	44	54
Pro Football	7	92	99
Pro Hockey	2	64	66
Pro Soccer	2	10	12
Total	23	350	373

There was no distinction made between what professional leagues they were affiliated with. Therefore the results from the surveys did not come from the NFL, NBA, NHL, MLB, and MLS only, but other leagues were also incorporated. There were other affiliated leagues associated with these five major leagues. Some of the leagues mentioned were: American Basketball Association (ABA), Arena Football League (AFL), Major Indoor Soccer League (MISL), and Southern Professional Hockey League (SPHL).

Conclusions

This study has concluded that even though female ATCs do not lack experience or interest in working with professional male sports, they need to have specific qualifications and network more than male ATCs to be hired by them. In addition, the professional male sports organizations have a preference in hiring based on gender. Therefore, a glass ceiling does exist according to its definition – “a gender or racial inequality that is specific and is distinguished from any other type of inequality,” (Cotter et al., 2001). The Federal Glass Ceiling Commission has stated the glass ceiling refers to “artificial barriers to advancement of women and minorities,” (Cotter et al., 2001).

Based on the opinions from the male ATCs who participated in this study, the main reasons why there are few female ATCs working with professional male sports had to do with sexual harassment and the location of the athletic training room inside the locker room. The safety of the female ATC, the privacy of the professional male athletes, and

the integrity of the five professional male sports organizations are all factors that are taken into consideration in adding a female presence with the teams. Yet, there is the presence of a glass ceiling effect from the results of this study. The glass ceiling of female ATCs in professional male sports still needs further examination.

Recommendations for Future Study

Recommendations for future study in regards to this topic could begin with the opinions and comments exclusively from the NFL, NBA, NHL, MLB, and MLS full-time ATC staff and their thoughts on the glass ceiling. Another suggestion would be to do a study on the professional male sports organizations and their thoughts on the hiring process of a potential candidate – if gender is a major factor for an athletic trainer's position. Another idea would be to ask the opinions from the professional female sports teams and see what their thoughts were on the glass ceiling. In terms of logistics and the location of the athletic training room, one could ask the opinions of professional male athletes and their thoughts of female ATCs being in locker room. Another recommendation is to parallel female and male ATCs in professional male and female sports on their opinions and experiences on the glass ceiling effect. This could also be done for male and female professional athletes and on their thoughts of having an ATC of the opposite sex working with their team.

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APPENDIX A
COVER LETTER

Dear Fellow Certified Athletic Trainer:

I am a master's degree candidate at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas, requesting your help to complete part of my degree requirements. Please follow the link at the end of this letter to an online survey titled: **Female Athletic Trainers in Professional Male Sports.**

The questionnaire consists of 4 demographic questions and 11 Likert Scale (from strongly agree to strongly disagree) questions, which will take about eight to ten minutes to complete.

Four hundred randomly selected certified NATA members in professional sports from the **National Football League, National Basketball Association, National Hockey League, Major League Baseball, and Major League Soccer** with a listed email address are being asked to submit this questionnaire, but you have the right to choose not to participate. The **University of Nevada, Las Vegas** Institutional Review Board has approved this study for the Protection of Human Subjects.

This is a completely anonymous question and upon submission, neither your name nor email address will be attached to your answers. Your information will be kept strictly confidential.

As a fellow certified athletic trainer, your knowledge and opinions regarding this topic make your input invaluable. Please take a few minutes to fill out the anonymous questionnaire you will find by clicking on this link and submit by: **Wednesday, April 5, 2006 to the email address below:**

(<http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.asp?u=120181819233>)

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Erica Chung, ATC
Graduate Athletic Trainer
University of Nevada, Las Vegas
4505 Maryland Parkway, Box 450007
Las Vegas, NV 89154
echung99@yahoo.com

Participants for this survey were selected at random from the NATA membership database according to the selection criteria provided by the student doing the survey. This student survey is not approved or endorsed by NATA. It is being sent to you because of NATA's commitment to athletic training education and research.

APPENDIX B



INFORMED CONSENT FORM

INFORMED CONSENT

Department of Kinesiology

TITLE OF STUDY: Female athletic trainers in professional male sports

INVESTIGATOR(S): Brent Mangus & Erica Chung

CONTACT PHONE NUMBER: (702) 265-2430

Purpose of the Study

You are invited to participate in a research study. The purpose of this study is to determine if female athletic trainers face any barriers in order to work with professional male sports teams.

Participants

You are being asked to participate in the study because you are a head or an assistant athletic trainer for one of the following professional male sports teams: NFL, NBA, NHL, MLB, and MLS.

Procedures

If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be asked to do the following: Fill out a survey that will ask what barriers female athletic trainers face in order to find a position with a professional male sports team. There are eleven questions that are asked. This is based on the Likert scale ranging from strongly agree, agree, no opinion, disagree, and strongly disagree. A question can be skipped and still complete the survey. This survey, along with the cover letter, informed consent, and description of the study will be sent out to the NATA website. The NATA website will use a survey web tool to send out the survey and all other information pertaining to the study, through email to the head and assistant athletic trainers of five professional male sports teams: the NFL, NBA, NHL,

MLB, and MLS. The completed survey will be sent back through a web link provided by the NATA website. Only the principle investigator has access to this web link. This should take approximately 8-10 minutes to complete. If you volunteer to participate in this study, you imply consent by completing and returning the survey.

Benefits of Participation

There may be direct benefits to you as a participant in this study. However, we hope to learn about specific barriers female athletic trainers face in order to work with professional male sports teams. It will also help to increase awareness to the professional sports community that female athletic trainers are well qualified to become a part of their staff. It will also help female athletic trainers know how to network and how to find opportunities to work with professional male sports teams. Your data is important to this investigation and hopefully you will receive satisfaction from participating in this research project.



INFORMED CONSENT

Department of Kinesiology

TITLE OF STUDY: Female athletic trainers in professional male sports

INVESTIGATOR(S): Brent Mangus & Erica Chung

CONTACT PHONE NUMBER: (702) 265-2430

Risks of Participation

There are risks involved in all research studies. This study may include only minimal risks. You may not agree with some of the questions or you may be angered by them or do not wish to be associated with this study.

Cost /Compensation

There *will not* be financial cost to you to participate in this study. The study will take 8-10 *minutes for one day* of your time. You *will not* be compensated for your time. *The University of Nevada, Las Vegas may not provide compensation or free medical care for an unanticipated injury sustained as a result of participating in this research study.*

Contact Information

If you have any questions or concerns about the study, you may contact Brent Mangus or Erica Chung at (702) 265-2430. For questions regarding the rights of research subjects, any complaints or comments regarding the manner in which the study is being conducted you may contact **the UNLV Office for the Protection of Research Subjects at 702-895-2794.**

Voluntary Participation

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate in this study or in any part of this study. You may withdraw at any time without prejudice to your relations with the university. You are encouraged to ask questions about this study at the beginning or any time during the research study.

Confidentiality

All information gathered in this study will be kept completely confidential. No reference will be made in written or oral materials that could link you to this study. All records will be stored in a locked facility at UNLV for at least 3 years after completion of the study. After the storage time the information gathered will be destroyed.

Participant Consent:

I have read the above information and agree to participate in this study. I am at least 18 years of age. A copy of this form has been given to me.

APPENDIX C
NATA SURVEY FORMAT



NATA policy regarding lists for members conducting surveys

Members sending up to 1,000 surveys can be done via email: A broadcast to a maximum of 1,000 email addresses can be provided for members conducting research projects. NATA has the ability to provide a random sample of the population, if it exceeds 1,000. NATA will transmit the cover letter (containing a link to the member's questionnaire) via email to recipients. The transmission will be labeled as coming from the researcher.

Member surveys of more than 1,000 will be conducted via U.S. mail: Since email lists are not available in quantities above 1,000, member research that requires a population greater than 1,000 is handled in the following manner. NATA can provide name and address of the population desired so the member can send the hard copy surveys via U.S. mail. The member must sign an agreement indicating the data will be used only one time and only for the stated purpose. NATA will forward the data electronically to the member, who can then print the labels for the mailing.

Second wave to be conducted via U.S. mail: Members who wish to contact recipients a second time will be provided with an electronic file that contains names and addresses for follow up by U.S. mail. This request must be made at the same time as the first, and also requires signing a one-time use agreement.

NOTE: THIS POLICY IS SUBJECT TO CHANGE WITHOUT NOTICE.
Only NATA members may access this service.



NATIONAL ATHLETIC TRAINERS' ASSOCIATION, INC.
RESEARCH/GRADUATE STUDY



Contact List Request Form

Request Date: February 1st, 2006 Date Needed: March 1st, 2006

Member Making Request: Erica Chung

NATA Member Number: 991840 (Required)

Mailing Address: 2675 S.Nellis Blvd., Apt. #2051

City: Las Vegas State: NV Zip: 89121 Phone: (702) 265-2430

E-Mail Address: echung99@yahoo.com Fax: (702) 895-4474

Title of Study: Female Athletic Trainers in Professional Male Sports

Purpose Statement: Are there potential barriers for female athletic trainers in order to work with professional male sports teams?

Institution where Research is Being Conducted: University of Nevada, Las Vegas (UNLV)

Advisor's Signature (if applicable): Brent C. Mangus Date: 1/31/2006

Funding Source of Study: None apply

- ** Please include a copy of your survey instrument, informed consent form, and documentation of approval from your Institutional Review Board (IRB).**
- ** If you are requesting an email broadcast from the National Office for notification of a web site for your survey, you MUST provide the letter of announcement that you plan on using in the broadcast as well as your current email address.**

*Send this form to your District Secretary for processing.
Please allow three to four weeks for delivery.*



**NATIONAL ATHLETIC TRAINERS' ASSOCIATION, INC.
RESEARCH/GRADUATE STUDY**



Contact List Request Form

Type of Contact: Labels: _____ Pressure Sensitive ("1 x 2 5/8" – Avery 5160) Peel and Stick
_____ Comma, Quote Delimited Disk-Format
_____ Comma, Quote Delimited E-mail Attachment-Format
Email Survey: ☒ Email broadcast service by National Office (max. 1000 recipients)
☒ Name and address file by email attachment to accompany email broadcast service (for second reminder)

All Districts or Specific District(s): All Districts
State(s), International, Other (specify): In the United States

Member Type:	_____	All Categories	Setting:	_____	Clinical
	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Regular		_____	Clinical/Industrial
	_____	Certified		_____	College Student
	_____	Student		_____	Corporate
	_____	Certified		_____	Government
	_____	Retired		_____	Health/Fitness
	_____	Certified		_____	High School
	_____	Associate		_____	HS/Clinic
	_____	Student-		_____	Hospital
	_____	Undergrad		_____	Industrial
	_____	Student-		_____	Junior College
	_____	Graduate		_____	Law
	_____	Intl		_____	Enforcement
	_____	NonCertified		_____	Middle/Jr High
	_____	Intl Certified		_____	Performing Arts
				<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Pro Baseball

<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Pro Basketball
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Pro Football
<input type="checkbox"/>	Pro Golf
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Pro Hockey
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Pro Soccer
<input type="checkbox"/>	Pro Tennis
<input type="checkbox"/>	Pro Sports
<input type="checkbox"/>	Rodeo
<input type="checkbox"/>	Sales/Marketing
<input type="checkbox"/>	Sports Club
<input type="checkbox"/>	Univ & College
<input type="checkbox"/>	Youth Sports
<input type="checkbox"/>	Other
<input type="checkbox"/>	Professions
<input type="checkbox"/>	Unemployed

CONTACT LIST USE AGREEMENT

I certify that the requested NATA mailing list will be utilized by the above-mentioned organization/individual only for mailing of the study specified. I verify that the list will not be duplicated, copied, or reproduced in any manner, but only for the aforementioned one-time use. One-time use does not allow the purchasing/receiving entity to provide NATA's members with a "subscription" or any other product or service that reaches members in any way more than once without the member's individual consent.

Erica Chung

1/31/2006

Applicant Signature

Date

Approved by (District Secretary)

Date

Dear Fellow Certified Athletic Trainer:

I am a master's degree candidate at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas (UNLV), requesting your help to complete part of my degree requirements. Please follow the link at the end of this letter to an online survey titled: **Female Athletic Trainers in Professional Male Sports**.

The questionnaire consists of 11 Likert Scale (from strongly agree to strongly disagree) questions, which will take about eight to ten minutes to complete.

Approximately 400 randomly selected certified NATA members in the professional sports of the NFL, NBA, NHL, MLS, and MLB with a listed email address are being asked to submit this questionnaire, but you have the right to choose not to participate. The University of Nevada, Las Vegas Institutional Review Board has approved this study for the Protection of Human Subjects.

This is a completely anonymous questionnaire and upon submission, neither your name nor email address will be attached to your answers. Your information will be kept strictly confidential.

As a fellow certified athletic trainer, your knowledge and opinions regarding this topic makes your input invaluable. Please take a few minutes to fill out the anonymous questionnaire you will find by clicking on this link and submit it by (Date): March 1st, 2006

([http://web page link/](#))

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Erica Chung, ATC
University of Nevada Las Vegas
4505 Maryland Parkway
Box 450007
Las Vegas, NV 89154
echung99@yahoo.com

APPENDIX D

SURVEY

Please check off in the appropriate spaces below:

Sex: M ☐ F ☐

Age: 20-30 ☐ 31-40 ☐ 41-50 ☐ 51-60 ☐ 61-70 ☐ 71+ ☐

Professional Sport: NFL ☐ NBA ☐ NHL ☐ MLB ☐ MLS ☐

Ethnicity: American Indian/Alaskan ☐ Asian/Pacific Islander ☐ Black, non-Hispanic ☐
 Hispanic ☐ White, non-Hispanic ☐
 Other:

	Strongly Agree	Agree	No Opinion	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. There is a high potential for sexual harassment when a female is in the training room.					
2. There are opportunities for female ATCs to obtain jobs or internship positions with professional male sports teams.					
3. Few female applicants are interested in working with professional male sports teams.					
4. Female ATCs lack the amount of experience needed to work with professional male sports teams.					
5. Professional male sport organizations and professional male athletes accept female ATCs in the locker room.					
6. Male ATCs are willing to mentor or hire a female ATC with a professional male sports team.					
7. A female ATC needs to network more than a male ATC to work with a professional male sports team.					
8. Professional male sport organizations have specific qualifications that need to be met in order to hire a female ATC.					
9. Professional male sport organizations have no preference in					

hiring either a male or female ATC.					
10. More female ATCs will be hired within professional male sport team organizations.					
11. Equal Opportunity and Affirmative Action have had a negative effect in professional male sport team organizations.					

Comments:

Please return this survey and additional information you would like to provide by email to:

Erica Chung, ATC
University of Nevada, Las Vegas
4505 Maryland Pkwy, Box 0007
Las Vegas, NV 89154-0007
Email: echung99@yahoo.com
Phone: 702.265.2430

Brent Mangus, EdD, ATC
University of Nevada Las Vegas
4505 Maryland Pkwy, Box 3034
Las Vegas, NV 89154-3034
bmangus@ccmail.nevada.edu
Phone: 702.895.3158

APPENDIX E

COMMENTS FROM SURVEY

1. The meaning of question #10 is unclear.
2. I signed in as an NFL trainer although I work in the Arena Football League. I have had female interns and a female assistant. I would try to never again be in that position. I would not hire a female for the setting I am in if at all possible! I think that in today's society the chance of a sexual harassment claim is significant. I also had problems with the trainers having personal relations with the players. We did have a rule against this but it was hard to enforce. I did on 2 occasions have to release one intern and one assistant from our program because of this. Perhaps I just had a few bad experiences but it has made me against females as Athletic Trainers in male professional sports!
3. The locker room setting has long been considered a "boy's club," and although we have had female healthcare practitioners in our training room, I've noticed that the players tend to be less rambunctious when a female is present. There have also been instances where some players feel uncomfortable with a female in attendance, and have been less apt to fully divulge their injury/health history.
4. I feel that females would have the opportunity to work in professional sports if the facilities are designed to meet the necessary requirements to separate the locker rooms from the training room. Also there is a stigma of pro sports being a boy's club so it takes a certain attitude of both male and females to handle that high stress environment. If they are qualified and present themselves in a professional manner I can't see any reason why they would not have that opportunity if they truly desired to work in any professional league....
5. I am working in the Arena Football League. It is my opinion that professional owners will be able to make whatever decisions they wish when it comes to the gender of their athletic trainers. If a woman is hired for the job and she can defend herself she will have no problems with professional male athletes. If they come across as meek and unprofessional they will be devoured by the athletes. I personally enjoy having females in the Training Room as I think they can lighten up a room, and make the working environment that much better. The key is professionalism, we all know that the athlete is king in professional sports and if they are questioned or accused of anything they will

rarely be 'wrong,' "Nobody comes to see the athletic trainer." Sorry for my bluntness but I think it is important for the reality be presented.

6. The age of the facility will have an impact on the ability for a female to be hired.
7. There are many more leagues in pro male sports than just the majors. Many are not even affiliated with major league teams. Many training rooms are not built with the appropriate privacy to accommodate both genders.
8. I believe professional organizations hire the most qualified to work on their athletes. I have personally interviewed many female ATCs for a position in professional hockey, but I hired a male due to his previous experience in hockey. To me he was the best qualified due to the experience he obtained with college hockey.
9. This is a good survey and even though it is anonymous, I feel that you might not get completely honest answers to all your questions. "No opinion" might be a popular answer to many of the questions. This is a delicate issue within predominate male athletic teams/organizations.
10. Due to the nature and position that Athletic Trainers are put in everyday life in professional sports it is hard for administration to rationalize hiring a female ATC. In hiring a female the organization is putting itself in the position of a potential lawsuit that the organization cannot win.
11. As a head athletic trainer with a professional minor league baseball team my major concern with accepting a female intern would be the possibility of sexual harassment. While I am sure the intern would be very professional and there for the educational experience, my fear would be with the maturity level of the athletes that they would be dealing with on a daily basis. When you are dealing with 25 males between the ages of 19-23 it would only be asking for trouble.
12. I work in Arena Football...and we have female interns from local colleges every year.
13. Female ATC's are easily qualified, but the way Training Rooms and Locker Rooms are situated would make for uncomfortable situations and possible liabilities.
14. Most male professional sports facilities were constructed in such a way that they do not facilitate female ATCs working in the male professional sport setting. Many locker rooms run right into the athletic training room and there

is no separation, making even average standards of modesty and decency virtually impossible to uphold. It is less an issue of females not being capable and more an issue with privacy and decency that is a significant limitation, and having a member of the opposite sex in such close proximity to athletes changing and showering is not socially accepted and is one that would never be allowed in the opposite setting (male ATC in a female locker room).

15. Good questions

16. In my 12 years in the Arena Football League, I have been able to work with very competent female athletic trainers. I have been able to hire female ATCs as my assistants on 2 separate occasions. In the AFL, female trainers seem to be welcome. The Georgia franchise had a female head athletic trainer and many numerous teams within the league have employed female athletic trainers.
17. Women can do the job, but it is not easy with the backwards mentality that still exists in certain male professional sports. I would love to see a woman who wants to work not to self-promote, but to be proud in her work. You only get promotions if you just do your job, not because you want to be the first female head athletic trainer. That will come with old-fashioned hard work.
18. I would be interested in seeing the results of the survey...do any NFL camps have any interns that are female currently or recently?
19. Female ATC are not wanted by most organizations because they are a distraction in the locker room. 1. Guys cannot be "guys" around them. 2. Unprofessional interactions.
20. Most professional sport locker room is not set up for a female to be protected from the male athlete. Showers, locker room are most often near or by the training room. Most male ATC, like me would have a hard time to introduce a female assistant, or intern to the NHL.
21. I am currently working for a professional soccer team in Europe. We have a Pilates instructor that is female but there is a very low likelihood that you will see a female in the sports medicine setting at the professional level here in Europe.
22. I am in the MISL (Major Indoor Soccer League). Have been the Athletic Trainer for 22 years and have had female ATC's with other teams in our league. Also for the past 5 years I have had female interns. This season we have three.

23. Current female ATC's are paying for some of the poor decisions made by previous female ATC's in professional sports. No one wants to be the supervising ATC if there is a sexual harassment case. I think this is a very good study and will be interested in your results. Good luck.
24. Good luck with all your findings, I know these projects are a lot of work as I just graduated from grad school last year.
25. I'm sure the survey can only include so many questions if you want a significant participation. I think the issue is far more complex than what's been asked here. Is there any discussion regarding the presence of male ATC's working w/professional women's sports????
26. Although there are few women in professional tea sports, the road for male applicants is very difficult also.
27. I have always embraced the idea that females should and will eventually work their in to male professional sports. My opinion has recently faltered. I have had 4 female interns under my direction. Two out of the 4 I have had to let go due to the student having sexual relations with a player.
28. I believe that female ATC are very qualified to handle any job. The only problem I have is that placing females in an all male job poses risks that I believe team are not willing to take a chance on. I know a few females in professional sports and they are very professional. Working in a professional team setting I don't worry so much about the female ATC, I worry more about the male players and male staff on how they would treat a female ATC. I have seen in a couple of situations where the female ATC was not treated fairly. I thank you for this opportunity to help.
29. Stay out of male professional sports.
30. This issue is not as clear cut as some may think. Football unlike baseball and basketball, is not as progressive in its thinking. What I mean by that is majority of the GM's, owners, and coaches remember a time where it was only men involved. That older individual is still very much part of the NFL. Why they are stagnant in their thought process is beyond me. Once the older individuals begin to make way for the younger individuals then more of a change (gender diversity) will occur.
31. If the applicant is of professional character and is professionally qualified they should be accepted in professional organizations.

32. I believe that the gender barrier associated with working for a male sports team is based more in practicality than anything else. Locker room and travel accommodations make gender mixing impractical and socially awkward. I do not believe that decisions on hiring females in male sports have anything to do with the female's qualifications or competence, but are based on social considerations.
33. Question 5 should be two questions. This would give you a look at two different mentalities and generations. Ownership/management and players/athletes. I would also be interested in the results of your survey. Thank you for your interest.
34. I believe that the problem of females in the professional training room is twofold. The logistics of the various locker rooms are a problem in terms of decency and the intrusion into the routine of the male players is a problem and by that I mean that they have to change the way they conduct themselves only for the benefit of the female trainers.
35. In my years of professional sports, I have had very little interest from female ATC's whenever an opportunity has opened up. I would say that I have received a handful of resumes and requests for internships from females, compared to hundreds from males.
36. I work for the American Basketball Association (ABA), which is 2 steps below the NBA, but still considered to be the professional level.
37. This issue is a concern of team management, not of existing Athletic Trainers. Most Head Athletic Trainers are open to the idea, but their bosses are not. You should survey Coaches and General Managers to assess the resistance.
38. Overall good survey. However check your terminology on "training room" to athletic training room. Also, the question on acceptance? How do you define acceptance? Is it just being allowed in the locker rooms or is acceptance the total respect one would receive like a male counterpart?
39. I think some of the questions are difficult to answer, since ATC's in the field have little input as to who is hired by their organizations. This is usually a front office decision. To my knowledge, I don't know of any female ATC's who have applied for a position in minor league baseball. I think that, within limits, if a female is hired for a male sports team, she must be very thick-skinned as to comments, jokes, etc. Still, there she should not have to put up with overt sexual comments or advances. I have worked with women in clinical settings who are equal to, or better than some of their male

counterparts in skill, knowledge, and professionalism, and who I enjoy working with.

40. I think you should split the question about male sports organizations and male athletes accepting female ATC's in the athletic training room. I strongly feel that athletes in 2006 are used to having female ATC's in their college athletic training rooms. Sports organizations, on the other hand, I feel view this as a problem, even though it doesn't exist.

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