Male Coaches of Female College Athletes:
Career Experiences, Hiring Processes, Coaching Approaches, and Why Male Coaches
Believe More Males than Females Coach Women

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Abstract

In 1972, when Title IX was signed into law, 90% of women's college teams were coached by women. The enactment and enforcement of Title IX led to an increase in money designated to women's sporting programs. In many cases this has led to increased pay for coaches resulting in more interest from male coaches to coach female teams (Pilon, 2015). Today the number of head female coaches of women's teams has decreased to around 40% (Longman, 2017). There is a gap in the literature about the men who are coaching nearly 60% of all female college athletic teams. The purpose of this study was to understand the experiences of male head coaches of exclusively female teams. This study focused on factors that led these men to coach female athletes, the hiring process as an opposite gender candidate to the student-athletes, the philosophies that guide male coaches in the physical training of female athletes, how male coaches approach the social and emotional characteristics of female athletes, and the perceptions of male coaches related to why more males than females coach female athletes. Semi-structured interviews revealed two themes with multiple subthemes. The first theme, securing a career within the competitive field of athletics, had seven subthemes: the desire to have a profession in sports, the presence of more opportunities in women's sports, having connections within the profession, the existence of informal interview processes, the dominance of males among hiring administration, the perception that women do not want to coach, and the physical training of female athletes. The second theme, maintaining a career within college women's athletics, had six subthemes: discrimination against male coaches, affirmative action for female coaches, the emotional characteristics of female athletes, the social and physical boundaries observed by male

coaches, low salaries and funding for women's sports, and the increased popularity and pressure in women's sports.

This study provided a contribution to the limited data pertaining to higher education male athletics coaches of female athletes. The results of this study can be utilized by higher education administrators, athletic personnel, current coaches, individuals aspiring to be coaches, student athletes, and all stakeholders associated with this specific and unexplored population.

Dedication

This work, its conception, development, implementation, and realization is dedicated to my family. To my husband, Craig Shaw, who even when I was short of certainty, never doubted I could obtain my doctorate and selflessly gave to our family so that I could pursue this dream. To Victoria, whose beautiful heart reminded me constantly that this degree is not simply for myself. It is for my current and future students so that I can better contribute to their educational aspirations to improve their lives and our world. To Elizabeth, who encouraged me to think critically and not be afraid to question others and myself. To Henry, whose life began during my coursework, illustrating that education is not prescriptive. It is a constantly evolving process and the journey is unique to each person. My unique journey was only possible due to these extraordinary people and I am forever grateful.

gave their expertise to this project without hesitation. My cohort consisted of some of the

most professional, analytical, driven, diverse, and fun people I have had the pleasure to

know. It is one of my life's greatest honors to have been a part of this team. I know you

will all contribute in countless ways to higher education.

      Finally, to a person whose contribution may not be reflected directly in the text,

but who was supremely real and this research would not exist without her. To my mother,

Jeanette H. Barrick, Esq., for your academic prowess and unparalleled friendship. You

are my hero.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

In 800 B.C., Homer told the story of Princess Nausicaa who played ball with her

handmaidens next to a riverbank on the island of Scheria (Bell, 2008). Three millennia

later women are still competing physically. It is merely the last fifty years that female

athletes have been afforded the consideration of having equal experiences to male

athletes (Bell, 2008).   In 2017 over half of the United States' college female athletic

teams were coached by men. Some in the media have claimed these positions offer a

male coach a 'layover' until he can obtain a position coaching a men's team (Pilon,

2015). Others have claimed that since most college athletic directors are male, they

continue to hire men for coaching positions (Greenwell, 2012). In addition, some female

athletes prefer male coaches (Henson, 2010).

However, male coaches of female athletes are facing several obstacles: negative

perceptions of their motivations to coach women (Bloom, 1999), interaction boundaries

with their athletes (Bloom, 1999), opposing views on physical training for females (Cahn

& O'Reilly 2012; Gilbert, 2016), how to approach the social and emotional needs of the

athletes (Amidon, 2016; Buning & Thompson, 2015; Gilbert, 2016), and political

pressure for institutions to hire female coaches (Lapchick, 2017; Morris, 2017).

Furthermore, some male coaches seeking employment for female college teams report

reverse discrimination in the hiring process (Grossman, 2001; Smith, 2012).

Current literature addresses why females do not enter and why they are leaving

coaching positions (Burke & Hallinan, 2006; Kamphoff, 2010; Moran-Miller & Flores,

2011; Sartore & Cunningham, 2007), the preferences of male and female college athletes

for male or female coaches (Frankl & Babbitt, 1998; Kalin & Waldron, 2015; Weinberg, Reveles, & Jackson, 1984; Williams & Parkhouse, 1988), psychosocial needs of female athletes (Amidon, 2016; Bloom, 1999; Buning & Thompson, 2015; Constantinesco, 2015; Stewart, 2016), and the physical training of female athletes (Cahn & O'Reilly, 2012, Gilbert, 2016). However, minimal research has been conducted to explore the experiences that lead men to coach female college athletes.

Background

The term 'coach' was first introduced to the world in the 1830s as a slang term for 'tutor' at Oxford University. The term 'coaching' came out of the 1880s and since that time it has most heavily been associated with the sports profession (Morrison, 2010). Today coaching is a highly respected profession, especially at the university level (Kiosoglous, 2013). He stated, "Experience [for coaches] is more than a mere passage of time and longevity; it is the refinement of preconceived notions garnered from rich and meaningful practical learning situations" (p. 7). However, college athletic coaches have not always been perceived as experts in their field, pillars of the community, or celebrities. During the infancy of higher education athletics, coaching positions were limited to current students, volunteer positions, or not allowed at all (Kiosoglous, 2013).

The earliest known interschool athletic event was between Harvard University and Yale University in 1840 (Smith, 2010). Rules and regulations to ensure fair play and safety were non-existent. Safety concerns grew until the National College Athletic Association (NCAA) was formed in 1910. However, the NCAA lacked the authority to enforce rules and regulations until 1951 (Smith, 2000). Women's athletics were first introduced with basketball at Smith College in 1892 (Acosta & Carpenter, 2007).

Several organizations attempted to regulate and promote women's athletics, eventually leading to the formation of the Association for Intercollege Athletics for Women (AIAW) in 1971 (Su, 2002). In 1972, the landmark Title IX legislation was passed banning sex discrimination in any educational program receiving federal funding. Higher education institutions were given until 1978 to come into compliance (Anderson, Cheslock, & Ehrenberg, 2006). During this time the AIAW and the NCAA made many unsuccessful attempts to combine their organizations. In 1982, the NCAA invested three million dollars into promoting women's sports and adjusted their policies creating equal opportunities for women's sports. These changes resulted in nearly every female athletic program changing to the NCAA and the demise of the AIAW (Bell, 2008).

In 1971, the number of girls participating in high school sports was 294,105. By 2009-2010, that number had grown to 3,172,637 (Cooky & Lavoi, 2012). This increase has not corresponded to a rise in female coaches. In 1972, 90% of women's high school and college teams were coached by females. In 2014, that number dropped to 43.4% (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014), resulting in 56.6% of female athletic teams coached by men.

Women's interest groups are questioning the increasing trend of hiring men to coach women. Pilon (2015) quoted Deborah Slaner-Larkin, the chief executive of the Women's Sports Foundation, who stated, "The lack of women in coaching and leadership roles in college sports is devastating. Not only does it lower the potential career ceiling for women in athletics, but it also means fewer female role models" (p. 3). Longman (2017) quoted Anucha Browne, the NCAA's vice president for women's basketball championships, who said, "It is vital for both male and female administrators to give

women more coaching opportunities. We need to do something to stem the decline of women in the coaching profession" (p. 2).

Speculation exists about the ability and motivations of males to pursue an authoritative role, such as coaching, over females. Bloom (1999) declared:

> While sexual harassment is the most severe form of abuse, coaches can harm female athletes in other ways, such as: overzealous training programs, competitive pressure or admonishment for a poor performance. Experts say that the aggressive approaches traditionally used with boys do not always work with girls, who mature differently and have a different emotional perspective. (p. 4)

With their motivations in question and an increase in social pressure for administrators to hire female coaches, male coaches of female athletes are facing a threat to their current positions and career prospects.

Statement of the Problem

The NCAA (2017) shared there were 179,179 female athletes in their affiliated institutions and that 57% of these athletes are coached by men. Authors have claimed that sexism and social ideology are the cause of the growth in this population of male coaches of female athletes. Greenwell (2012) quoted Judy Sweet, the NCAA's first female athletics director of a combined men's and women's program, who declared, "The increase in female coaches requires breaking the cycle of male university presidents hiring male board members hiring male athletic directors hiring male coaches" (p. 2). Sexism stems from social ideology which is the collection of attitudes and beliefs that are mutually dependent on one another because they are organized with a dominating societal theme in mind (Sartore & Cunningham, 2007). "These ideologies are what led to societal

hierarchies in general and within these hierarchies are the expectations and regulations for gender and sex-role stereotypes" (Blackshear, 2016, p. 3).

Regardless of the cause, higher education institutions are making the decision to hire male coaches for female athletes. If higher education administrators are to make informed hiring decisions and to be effective supervisors of male coaches of female athletes, there should be a better understanding of the needs, concerns, opportunities, and challenges of coaching the opposite gender. This situation brings into question the experiences of the male coach of female college athletes. Limited research currently exists on the unique situations facing this group of coaches. The motivations that lead males to decide to coach females and their experiences during the hiring process are important for higher education leaders to comprehend. Hiring process design and candidate selection rubrics can be improved with a broader understanding of candidates' perspectives.

Administrators are responsible for the professional development and performance review of their coaches. By educating themselves on the philosophy of male coaches regarding the physical training and the social emotional dynamics of female athletes and teams, administrators could be more impactful in their role as a supervisor. For the protection of their programs, coaches, and students it is important for higher education leaders to be familiar with the social and physical boundaries male coaches utilize when working with female athletes. As administrators look to the future of their athletic programs they should consider the perceptions of male coaches regarding why there are more men than women coaching female athletes. These perceptions can help leaders have

a better understanding of what is causing females to leave the profession of coaching and how these issues could be addressed.

Purpose of the Study

The focus of this study was to investigate the experiences of male coaches of female college athletes. The study was based on six purposes. The first purpose was to identify the common life events prior to a coaching career and the personal motivations that led males to coach female athletes. The second purpose was to identify the common experiences male coaches had during the hiring process for a position as a coach of female athletes. The third purpose was to discover the philosophies that guide male coaches in the physical training of female athletes. The fourth purpose was to discover the philosophies that guide male coaches in the social and emotional characteristics of female athletes. The fifth purpose was to identify perceptions of social and physical boundaries that guide male coaches of female athletes. The final purpose was to identify the perceptions of male coaches related to why more males than females coach female athletes.

Significance of the Study

Limited research has been conducted to explore the experiences of men who have chosen to coach female college athletes. Current literature addresses the different needs of male vs. female athletes, students' preferences of coaches' gender, and why female coaches are not entering or remaining in the profession of college coaching. This study will contribute to the existing body of research through examining the experiences of male coaches of college female athletes.

Acosta and Carpenter (2014) found that while the number of women in head coaching positions had been slowly increasing, there were more men coaching exclusively female athletic teams. Athletic administration would benefit from a deeper understanding of the unique needs, strengths, and concerns of male coaches when making hiring decisions for female athletes and teams and when supervising these professionals. The findings in this study may also benefit students of either gender who are considering entering the coaching profession. Female athletes in the recruitment process who are determining where they will be a student athlete will also benefit from the results of this study. Finally, current coaches may benefit from the results of the study.

Delimitations

"Delimitations are self-imposed boundaries set by the researcher on the purpose and scope of the study" (Lunenburg & Irby, 2008, p. 134). This study was narrowed by four delimitations:

- Participants were head or associate head coaches.

- Participants were currently serving in a coaching position at the time of the interview.

- Participants who were coaching sports teams open to both genders such as track and field, tennis, golf, swimming, and equestrian were not included.

- Participants held a coaching position between January 2017 and December 2017.

Assumptions

"Assumptions are postulates, premises, and propositions that are accepted as operational for purposes of the research" (Lunenburg and Irby, 2008, p. 135). This study was conducted under the following assumptions:

- Participants understood the interview questions.

- Participants gave honest responses to the questions asked during the interviews.

- Participants accurately recalled and communicated previous events in response to interview questions.

Research Questions

A review of the literature regarding the trends and concerns surrounding male coaches of female athletes contributed to the formation of six research questions that served as the basis of this study:

RQ1: What are the common life events prior to a coaching career that lead males to coach female athletes?

RQ2: What are the common perceptions male coaches have of the hiring process for a position as a coach of female athletes?

RQ3: How do male coaches approach the physical training of female athletes?

RQ4: How do male coaches approach the social and emotional characteristics of female athletes?

RQ5: What social and physical boundaries guide male coaches of female athletes?

RQ6: What are the perceptions of male coaches related to why more males than females coach female athletes?

Definition of Terms

The following terms are utilized throughout the study. The definitions assigned to the terms are to create a common understanding for readers.

Athlete. For the purposes of this study, the term 'athlete' refers to 'student-athlete' which was defined by the online Oregon Law Legal Glossary (2015) as "an individual who engages in, is eligible to engage in or may be eligible in the future to engage in any intercollege sport" (para.1).

Coach. While this term can be interchangeable with counseling or refer to business coaching (Morrison, 2010), for the purposes of this study a coach is an individual who serves as a member of the staff of a college or university whose responsibility is the training of students in athletic or sporting activities (Collins English Dictionary, 2017).

Hiring Process. For this study, the phrase 'hiring process' refers to the 'employee selection phase' as described by Doyle (2017). She described this process as, "the process by which an employer evaluates information about the pool of applicants generated during the recruitment phase. After assessing the candidates, the company decides which applicant will be offered the position" (p. 3).

Organization of the Study

This study is organized into five chapters. The first chapter served as an introduction to the study of male coaches of female college athletes. This chapter summarized the background, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, and the significance of the study. It also included the delimitations, assumptions, research questions, and definitions of terms. Chapter 2 presents the literature review which describes the history and current issues related to the topic. This chapter summarizes college athletics leading to the development of the NCAA and the AIAW. It explains the atmosphere surrounding gender issues in athletics leading up to the Title IX amendments,

enforcement difficulties, the disbanding of the AIAW and current issues surrounding

male coaches of college female athletes: motivations for coaching, sexism in hiring

process, perceptions/bias of student-athletes, job demands, and differences in coaching

men vs. women. Chapter 3 describes the methodology of the study. It presents the design

of the research, how participants were selected, measurements utilized, procedures for

collection of the data, analysis of the data, limitations, and a summary. Chapter 4

contains the results of the data analysis. Chapter 5 summarizes the study including an

overview of the problem, purpose statement and research questions, review of the

methodology, and major findings. This chapter also describes how the findings relate to

the literature. The chapter concludes with the implications for action, recommendations

for future research, and concluding remarks.

Chapter 2

Review of the Literature

More female college athletes are being coached by men than women. Across the country administrators in higher education institutions are making the decision to hire men as head coaches for women's teams with very little research to give them insight into the unique situation in which they are placing their staff and student-athletes. This literature review will share how this state-of-affairs has come to be by exploring college athletics and the eventual need for the development of the NCAA, the National Association of Intercollege Athletics (NAIA), the AIAW, Title IX, and the enforcement of the Title IX amendments. The literature review will then summarize the current atmosphere of concern pertaining to motivations of men coaching women, sexism in the hiring process, student-athletes' biases, job demands, and the differences in coaching men vs. women. These concerns will be looked at from the perspective of those wishing to see more females in head coaching positions and from the male coaches currently serving in these roles. The literature review addresses the different needs of male vs. female athletes, students' perspectives and biases of coaches' gender, and coaches' perceptions of pressure levels by gender.

History of College Athletic Governance

This section of the literature review contains an explanation how the leadership of intercollege athletics started internally at each institution, first with students followed by a move to faculty supervision. External governance started in 1906 (Bass, Schaeperkoetter, & Bunds, 2015) which led to the formation of the National College

Athletic Association (NCAA), the National Association of Intercollege Athletics (NAIA), and the Association for Intercollege Athletics for Women (AIAW).

Student leadership. In his book, *Pay to Play*, Smith (2010) quoted the 'Father of American Football', Walter Camp, who stated, "Neither the faculties nor other critics assisted in building the structure of college athletics. It is a structure which students unaided have built" (p. 9). Camp made this statement in 1889, but it referred to the student-led athletics events which began in 1852 with a regatta between Harvard and Yale Universities. Conflict began with this very event in which Harvard attempted to gain the services of a professional coxswain, steersman of a ship's boat, as an unfair advantage (Smith, 2000). Smith (2010) described that students began to work toward reform of intercollege athletics events, but the priority was not academic integrity. The focus was on a fair field of play. In 1871, Harvard initiated the creation of the Rowing Association of American Colleges, which existed for six years. This first step toward reform concentrated on participant eligibility. Institutions were asking questions such as:

> Should students from undergraduate professional schools be allowed to compete? Should graduate students be permitted? Should a graduate from one institution be allowed to compete for another institution? Should professional coaches be allowed? (Smith, 2010, pp. 9-10)

The student representatives in 1873 determined that any student in a baccalaureate degree program could participate, but not graduate students. No graduates of a college could compete for another college. No professional coaches would be allowed. Only a graduate of the institution could prepare a crew (Smith, 2010).

The first intercollege baseball game was played two years prior to the Civil War between Amherst and Williams College. The students made up most of the rules, based loosely on cricket, after the game challenge was accepted. After the Civil War, baseball spread rapidly across America. By the late 1870s a group of eastern colleges began playing regular home and away series games which would culminate in a championship. However, the number and dates of games were unclear. It was also not determined if the total number of games or series winners would determine the championship which led to countless claims and counterclaims following the season (Smith, 2010).

Students continued to be in control of the athletic scene, but the general public, alumni, and corporate sponsors were becoming increasingly financially invested. During the 1889 season:

> Yale charged Harvard and Princeton not only with playing athletes who had received money for participating and for recruiting athletes from prep schools, offering them inducements by paying tuition, board, and other costs, but also with bringing back older players who had graduated, entering them in professional schools and allowing then to continue competing. (Smith, 2010, p. 13)

Walter Camp introduced a resolution stipulating that only students attending a set number of class hours per week could compete. The resolution also banned any student receiving pay to compete, as well as, all graduate/professional students. This resolution is very similar to the intercollege athletic guidelines enforced today, but it was ahead of its time, so it was rejected on the grounds that it was not a part of the conference agenda (Smith, 2010).

Students were motivated by the prestige and bragging rights that came with competitive glory. Institutions were constantly seeking to argue any perceived advantage held by other universities. The persistence of making demands for reform on other institutions and refusing demands placed on their own universities continued for half a century (Smith, 2010).

Faculty/institutional leadership. In 1881, faculty formed the Harvard Athletic Committee which declared, "[athletics] shall hereafter be played under rules which will limit participation in them to bona fide members of the University" (Smith, 2010, p. 17). However, the students had no concern for their own athletes being bona fide students, only those of their competitors. The faculty saw their role as acting in *loco parentis* making it their responsibility to ban activities seen as immoral, obstructive to learning, or dangerous. To this end, in 1882, the committee determined that university teams would no longer be allowed to compete against professional teams. This upset the student leaders who felt it would have a severe negative effect on the training of their athletes in preparation for their game against Yale (who had no such restrictions). The committee also banned professional coaches.

> The faculty committee favored the British upper-class concept of amateurism, always looking down upon the professional, who often needed financial support to maintain his involvement with sport rather than being from the elite who did not require additional money. (Smith, 2010, pp. 20-21)

Faculty and students continued to argue about athletics, but the most controversial decision concerned football. In 1883 the student-run Intercollege Football Association (IFA) stated that a player would not be dismissed from a game until he had struck with a

closed fist for the third time. That same year the Harvard Athletic Committee declared

football "brutal, demoralizing to players and spectators, and extremely dangerous"

(Smith, 2010, p. 21). Smith (2010) further explained that the committee banned football

from Harvard, an action which led to an uprising from the students and alumni. The

following year the committee was reformed to include representation from faculty,

students, a medical doctor, and the director of the gymnasium. The committee lasted

only a few years due to complaints by the faculty and was replaced by an investigative

committee appointed by the Harvard governing board. The position of the faculty could

be heard through Charles Elliot, Harvard President, in his 1893 annual report. Cloterfelter

(2011) quoted Elliot's words:

> With athletics considered as an end in themselves, pursued either for pecuniary
>
> profit or popular applause, a college or university has nothing to do. Neither is it
>
> an appropriate function for a college or university to provide periodical
>
> entertainment during term-time for multitudes of people who are not students. (p.
>
> 10)

Bass et al. (2015) stated that until the 1905 football crises, the Harvard Athletic

Committee was asked repeatedly to abolish football. "In 1905 alone, 18 college players

died as a result of on-field injuries and more that 140 were seriously injured" (p. 4). The

committee finally banned football. President Theodore Roosevelt (Harvard Alumni)

called an emergency meeting at the White House with university administration from

Harvard, Yale, and Princeton to discuss the issue of college athletics. (Bass et al., 2015).

Safety was not the only concern. Smith (2010) explained that the industry of

intercollege athletics grew quickly at the end of the 18th century. Committees were

required to consider: (a) admittance of students who were athletes, (b) hiring of professional coaches, (c) the start and length of preseason practices, (d) length of seasons, (e) number of games and where they would be played, and (f) whether amounts of money should be used to build stadiums and athletic facilities. The situation was growing at a rate where it became unreasonable for faculty and students to be able to regulate the sports programs. However, until the institutions became willing to relinquish their power to an outside governing entity, no order could be brought to intercollege athletics (Smith, 2010).

NCAA. President Roosevelt's White House meeting was followed by another meeting initiated by the chancellor, Henry MacCracken, of New York University and included administration from 13 other higher education institutions. Although the original intent of the gathering was aimed at football safety, it became apparent that the governance of intercollege athletics was a national issue. In March of 1906, 62 members formed the Intercollege Athletic Association of the United States (IAAUS). Utilizing materials from the White House and New York University meetings, the IAAUS Constitution declared:

> An amateur sportsman is one who engages in sports for the physical, mental, or social benefits he derives therefrom, and to whom the sports is an avocation. Any college athlete who takes pay participation in athletics does not meet this definition of amateurism. (Bass et al., 2015, p. 5)

The IAAUS was renamed the National College Athletic Association (NCAA) in 1910 (Hums & MacLean, 2004).

In its early years, the NCAA did little to govern intercollege sports as students remained the primary organizers. It did manage to create championships and to set some rules and policies for a variety of different sports. These rules and policies were very difficult to regulate and enforce. By the 1920s, athletics had become an integral part of higher education. Public interest in university and college sports increased rapidly as successful programs became established. This ushered in scholarship opportunities providing access to higher education to students from different parts of society (Smith, 2010).

Commercialization of athletics was on the rise leading to the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Education (Smith, 2000) issuing a report that stated:

> A change of values is needed in a field that is sodden with the commercial and the material and the vested interest that these forces have created. Commercialism in college athletics must be diminished and college sport must rise to a point where it is esteemed primarily and sincerely for the opportunities it affords to mature youth. (p. 13)

Smith (2000) explained that the Carnegie Foundation's call for a de-emphasis of sports went unheeded. The 1920's became known as the 'Golden Age of Sports'. Alumni and fans continued to grow, placing increasing pressure on institutions. Colleges and universities were no longer expected to simply educate, but to fund programs, build athletics structures, recruit top athletes, and achieve championship glory. The NCAA faced the daunting task of regulating a national phenomenon. After World War II, the government placed priority on taking care of returning military men and women. This included veterans being supported financially by the national government to attend

college. This increased both available athletes and active sports enthusiasts anxious to see their educational homes victorious in the sports arena. A nation that had been starved of male athletic entertainment now had a surplus which was exploited through commercialism.

Commercialism appeared in new forms as radios could be found in a majority of homes. Televisions were becoming increasingly popular. Airline travel became more economical allowing for coaches to recruit nationally. New technology made viewing college and university sporting events accessible. These factors increased gambling scandals and recruitment excesses resulting in an attempted expansion of the NCAA governance authority. In 1948 the NCAA enacted the 'Sanity Code' which called for an end to exploitive practices pertaining to the recruitment of student-athletes. To enforce the code, the NCAA created the Constitutional Compliance Committee (CCC) to interpret rules and investigate potential violations. The code and the CCC were ultimately ineffective as the only sanction was expulsion which was too severe. To address this, the NCAA reformed the CCC in 1951 into the Committee on Infractions which was given a much broader sanctioning authority. During this year, Walter Byers was hired as the first executive director of the NCAA. He established a brick-and-mortar home for the NCAA in Kansas City creating a more formalized structure with full-time NCAA personnel (Smith, 2000).

Bass et al., (2015) explained that in 1973, the NCAA began to divide up its member institutions into Divisions I, II, and III. This was in response to the continuing concerns of scholarship amounts institutions could provide to their student-athletes. Division I schools could offer their student-athletes full scholarships that covered tuition

and housing, Division II programs could offer partial scholarships, and Division III institutions could not offer athletics scholarships. As of 2000, NCAA Division I had 250-member colleges and universities with over 170,000 student-athletes. Division II included 300 institutions and more than 110,000 student-athletes. Division III housed 450-member institutions with 180,000 student-athletes (Bass et al., 2015). While the infraction investigations, sanction enforcements, financial practices, and governance authority of the NCAA continue to be called into question, it is an institution born out of necessity with a future likely to stretch on for several generations.

NAIA. The National Association for Intercollege Athletics (National Association for Intercollege Athletics Handbook, 2010) indicated that in 1937 Emil Liston, Dr. James Naismith, Frank Cramer, and several other local businessmen wanted to provide the Kansas City area fans with an exciting amateur competition. The original championship included eight teams and expanded to 32 teams in 1938. The success of this venture was so great that is has continued to this day making it the longest continuous national college tournament in any sport. To make the championship a yearly event, an organization providing structure and procedures had to be created. The National Association of Intercollege Basketball (NAIB) held its first 'Organizing Convention' in Kansas City, Missouri in 1940. The organization sought to create a framework for small colleges and universities to determine a national basketball competition. Member institutions began to request an expansion of the NAIB to include other sports. In 1952, the National Executive Committee proposed the action and it was voted on with acceptance by all member colleges and universities. The NAIB was transformed into the National Association of Intercollege Athletics. During the same year of this change, came the

introduction of national golf, tennis, and outdoor track and field. Football, cross country, baseball, swimming, and diving were added in 1956. Wrestling was added in 1958, soccer in 1959, and indoor track and field in 1966. Several sports had limited engagements with the NAIA: bowling (1962-78), gymnastics (1964-84), and men's volleyball (1969-80). On August 1, 1980, the NAIA became the first organization to offer athletic programs for both men and women. Women's championships were held that year in basketball, cross country, gymnastics, indoor and outdoor track and field, softball, tennis, and volleyball (National Association for Intercollege Athletics Handbook, 2010).

Martin (2015) stated that by 2015 the NAIA was comprised of 260 colleges and universities including over 60,000 student-athletes (para. 3). In comparing the NAIA with the NCAA several differences exist. The NAIA tends to house medium to small student body sized institutions. The NAIA gives its member institutions more control and flexibility with budget, rules for their athletes, and recruiting. As a smaller organization, the NAIA does not have the large budget of the NCAA or the national brand recognition (Martin, 2015). As some of the participants in the current study belonged to NAIA institutions, it was important to include an explanation of this organization in the literature review.

AIAW. Su (2002) stated that the governance and regulation of women's college sports changed hands several times from the 1940s to the 1980s. The first women's intercollege national championship was organized in 1941 in the sport of golf. It was overseen by the Division for Girls' and Women's Sports (DGWS). By the 1950s and 1960s many colleges had started to sponsor women's athletics teams which competed in

friendly competitions with other institutions. The focus for these teams remained on physical wellness and not on competition. In 1956, the Tripartite Committee was formed. It included representatives from three organizations: The National Association for Physical Education for College Women, the National Association for Girls' and Women's Sports, and the American Federation of College Women (Su, 2002).

The NCAA saw the need to become involved in women's athletics because it was in a power-struggle with the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) over the control of amateur athletics. If the NCAA wanted to remain in control of intercollege athletics, it would have to embrace the growing interest in opportunities for women by supporting the Tripartite Committee (Smith, 2010). The Tripartite Committee was reformed into the National Joint Committee on Extramural Sports for College Women (NJCESCW) in 1957. In 1965, the NJCESCW was disbanded which returned the responsibility of women's college athletics governance to one entity, the DGWS (Su, 2002). In 1967, the DGWS established the Commission on Intercollege Athletics for Women which was renamed the Association for Intercollege Athletics for Women (AIAW) in 1971. This was only one year before the enactment of Title IX which produced a massive growth in participation in women's college athletics (Acosta & Carpenter, 2000).

The NCAA had not lost interest in the future of women's sports. Indeed, the formation of the AIAW led to over a decade of discussions between the two organizations in attempts to create a single governing body for college female athletics. Bass et al. (2015) addressed this stalemate in their book *The Front Porch*:

> Both women physical educators and the NCAA were discussing women's
> intercollege athletics, but from entirely different perspectives. The women

physical educators were responding to the women's movement's desire for greater

physical expression and equality of opportunity while fighting to retain women's

control of women's sports. The men were far more interested in controlling

amateur sport, trying to wrestle control of amateur sport from the AAU, and

college women's athletics were a part of the equation. (pp. 144-145)

In her qualitative dissertation, Wilson (2013) described a gathering of the AIAW

presidents at the University of Iowa in July 1980. The five-day conference was titled,

AIAW…A Decade of Progress: Presidential Review. During the conference the leaders

discussed their shared experiences with discrimination that furthered their understanding

of sexism in the patriarchal sport domain. Wilson (2013) reported:

The AIAW presidents faced constant crises during their association's brief

existence (1971-82). They confronted the lack of awareness and misconceptions

about their philosophy, and their most formidable crisis was the threat of the

NCAA starting women's programs—a 'unilateral takeover' that resulted in the

demise of the AIAW. (p. 5)

At its peak, the AIAW had almost 1,000 membership institutions. By the late

1970s, institutions started to recognize the potential profit in women's athletics resulting

in the NCAA offering women's championships in Division II and III after a vote in 1980.

Division I was not voted through until the next national meeting in 1981 (Hosick, 2011).

During the 1981-1982 academic year, colleges and universities were able to compete in

either NCAA or AIAW championships. Some chose to compete in both. The University

of Tulsa won both the AIAW and NCAA women's golf championships in 1982. This

practice was short lived as intuitions with men's teams already associated with the

NCAA began integrating their teams. Although the AIAW had supported the passage of the Title IX amendments when the NCAA had opposed its passage, ultimately NCAA contracts had better funding and television coverage (Grundy & Shackelford, 2017). As major Division I institutions began to switch to the NCAA, AIAW championships lost popularity resulting in NBC canceling its TV contract with the organization midway through the 1981-1982 season. The AIAW stopped operations in all sports. After pursuing an unsuccessful federal anti-trust suit against the NCAA, the organization disbanded on June 30, 1982 (Lannin, 2000).

Impact of Title IX on Intercollege Athletics

In this section of the literature review, the environment of women's athletics before Title IX, what Title IX is, and implementation of Title IX is explained. These sections are necessary to gain a holistic understanding why Title IX was enacted and the effect it has had on higher education athletics.

Pre-Title IX climate. In the late sixties, varsity sport opportunities were available in higher education for women in several sports. The seasons for these teams were short due to concern that the strain of a long duration of play and the stress of competition could be harmful to the delicate female physiology. Coaches for these teams were volunteers or minimally paid physical education professors with a full teaching load. The positive outcome of these short seasons is that they gave mediocre athletes an opportunity to participate in several sports because the season was over before their mediocrity was displayed. The negative outcome is that promising athletes of exceptional talent were unable to test their full potential before the season ended. During these years, the female athlete paid for her own shoes, shorts, shirt, and any hotel expenses for travel games.

Players packed their own food for travel games with an exception if the hosting school offered a light refreshment after the game. No photos of these female athletes were allowed in the university yearbooks (Acosta & Carpenter, 2007). Indeed, a young woman interested in athletics during this time, was more likely to try-out for cheerleading which commanded more positive attention and a photo in the yearbook. In 1971, fewer than 295,000 girls participated in high school varsity athletics making up merely 7% of all high school varsity athletes. In the same year, 30,000 females competed at the college level with 2% of the average institutions athletics budget going toward the support of these women (Cahn & O'Reilly, 2012).

Title IX. In 1972, the U.S. Congress passed Title IX of the Educational Amendments to the 1964 Civil Rights Act. It is comprised of 37 words: "No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any educational program or activity receiving federal financial assistance" (Office for Civil Rights, 1979, p. 1). All three branches of government had a part to play in the enactment of Title IX. The legislative branch enacted the law. It was up to the executive branch to enforce the law, which required several attempts to interpret the law to make it comprehensive to the institutions' administrators with reasonable time constraints for compliance. However, much of how higher education defines the fine print of Title IX is the result of case law from the judicial branch (Acosta & Carpenter, 2007).

The 'interpretations' provided by the executive branch, also called 'regulations', had to include ways to measure compliance and be approved by Congress before they had the force of the law. Anderson et al. (2006) explained that the first interpretation of how

Title IX would impact intercollege athletics was issued in 1975 by the Department of
Health, Education, and Welfare, now referred to as Health and Human Services. The
deadline for compliance to these regulations was set for 1978. Many universities and
colleges found the requirements vague and inadequate resulting in the 1979 Policy
Interpretations provided by the Office for Civil Rights (OCR). This document included
measurements for determining instructional compliance in the form of a three-part test.
For decades, debate revolved around the three-part test which was outlined in the Letter
of Clarification produced by the OCR in 1996. The first part of the test is called the
'proportionality prong'. As its name suggests, the test requires an athletic department to
have equal opportunities to participate for male and female athletes proportionate to
undergraduate enrollment. The second part requires the college or university to
demonstrate a 'history and continuing practice' of expanding opportunities for the
underrepresented gender. The third part requires the institution to present proof that it is
'fully and effectively' accommodating the athletic interest of the underrepresented gender
by issuing and collecting a student survey (Stafford, 2004). Compliance with the
'proportionality part' is difficult as there is no set percentage guideline that determines if
a department is within regulations. The 'history and continuing practice' part is
impossible to use in any department that has put off complying with Title IX in any way.
The 'interests and abilities' part has been strongly recommended against by the NCAA
declaring that this survey does not adequately measure the changing needs of the student
body, nor does it require institutions to implement changes based upon the results.

Implementation and enforcement of Title IX. There are three methods for enforcing Title IX: in house complaints, OCR complaints, and a lawsuit. In house complaints are reviewed by the institutions Title IX officer. While education continues to improve this growing field in higher education, there is speculation that an internal judicial processor will typically have strong motives to avoid finding the presence of discrimination. A complaint filed with the OCR has no legal standing, but the OCR does have the ability to enforce financial sanctions in the form of removing federal funding. However, this method is very slow to see results as campus administrators often delay the process with postponements. As of 2007, the OCR had never withheld government funding because of an OCR complaint filing. Lawsuits, while costly, have been historically effective in helping to solidify the requirements of Title IX (Acosta & Carpenter, 2007).

The case history of Title IX is extensive, but there are a few landmark rulings in the effort to set clear, legal standards for compliance. The decade following Title IX's passing was filled with debates, regulations, and clarifications leaving higher education institutions unclear if Title IX pertained to intercollege athletics. In 1984, the Supreme Court ruled on *Grove City College v. Bell* that Title IX only applied to specific programs that received federal aid, which excluded athletics which generally supplemented their own revenue from student fees (Sartore & Cunningham, 2007; Stafford, 2004). Anderson et al. (2006) described that Congress responded in 1984 by clarifying Title IX with the Civil Rights Restoration Act, which mandated all programs at a federally funded institution to be subject to Title IX. In 1992, the Supreme Court held in *Franklin v. Gwinnett County Public Schools* (1992) that violations of Title IX could result in

monetary damages to the plaintiff. Not long after, Congress passed the *Equity in Athletics Disclosure Act* which made it compulsory for higher education institutions to release data on the operations of men's and women's sports programs (Anderson et al., 2006). One of the most important cases of Title IX was *Cohen v. Brown University* (1996). Brown University's Athletic Department dropped two men's teams, golf and water polo, and two women's teams, volleyball and gymnastics, for financial reasons. The claim in the lawsuit was that although Brown's student population was made up of 51% women, only 31% of the athletic teams were comprised of females, making is disproportionate. Even though Brown University had far more women's teams than most universities at that time, they lost the case. The impact of *Cohen v. Brown University* is evident in that no NCAA Division I school has dropped a women's team since (Smith, 2010).

After 45 years, the climate of intercollege athletics pertaining to Title IX remains full of debate and uncertainty. There have been undeniable increases in the number of women's athletic opportunities at every level. Cooky and Lavoi (2012) stated:

> In 1971 only 294,105 girls participated in high school sports. By 2009, that number increased to 3,172,637. This increase is reflected in higher education sports as female athletes have risen from 30,000 in 1977 to more than 180,000 in 2010. (p. 43)

It is therefore not surprising that there has been an increase in women's professional sports opportunities such as U.S. football leagues for women, the growing popularity of the Women's National Basketball Association, and Women's Professional Soccer.

Despite these advancements, there is still a continuing concern that equity has not been achieved. Cooky & Lavoi (2012) stated,

> As athletes, girls and women have gained entry into the institutions of sports. Still, sexism, masculine ideals, and homophobia continue to be reproduced within sport contexts at all competitive levels. In other words, the movement for gender equality in American sport is partial, and the revolution incomplete. (p. 46)

> Smith (2000) shared that funding is of high concern in the pursuit of equity. The cost of women's programs is high; however, the revenues generated from these teams are rarely sufficient to cover the additional cost to the institutions. This increase in expenses places significant pressure on athletics programs due to the prevailing budget concerns from continual lowering of government funding for higher education. This means more institutions are requiring athletics departments to be self-sufficient. The most common practice to offset these costs is to use revenue from the lucrative male sports. Smith pointed out:

> This, in turn, raises racial equity concerns because most of the revenue producing male sports are made up predominantly of male student-athletes of color, who are expected to deliver a product that will not only produce sufficient revenue to cover its own expenses, but also a substantial portion of the costs of gender equity and male sports that are not revenue producing. (p. 20)

On the other hand, the editors Cahn and O'Reilly (2012) shared the National Coalition for Women and Girls in Education's statement that institutions are not exercising restraint on men's sports expenditures:

1. In the past four years, for every new dollar going into athletics at the Division I & II levels, male sports received 58 cents while female sports received 42 cents.

2. Each year male athletes receive $133 million or 36 percent more than female athletes in college athletic scholarships at NCAA member institutions.

3. In Division I, colleges spend an average of $2,983 per female athlete compared to $3,786 for male athletes. (p. 306)

Whether negative or positive, the impact that Title IX has had on intercollege sports is profound and continually changing. The influence of these changes does not stop with student-athletes. It also affects the leaders, professionals, and administrators who oversee these programs.

Coaches of Female Athletes

The number of female coaches in higher education is slowly increasing. Table 1 summarizes Acosta and Carpenter's (2014) research related to the percentage of female coaches across all divisions from 2012-2014.

Table 1

Percentage of College Female Coaches in Higher Education

Sport	2012	2014
Basketball	59.5	59.2
Bowling	28.6	40.0
Cross Country	21.2	22.8
Field Hockey	93.8	92.4
Golf	41.6	40.5
Gymnastics	51.0	58.0
Ice Hockey	24.5	29.1
Lacrosse	85.1	86.0
Riding/ Equestrian	90.0	88.5
Riflery	6.3	16.7
Sailing	4.5	16.7
Soccer	32.2	31.8
Softball	62.1	66.3
Swim/Dive	26.2	23.9
Tennis	29.9	29.9
Track/Field	19.2	17.9
Volleyball	53.3	51.5

Note. Adapted from *Women in Intercollege Sport: A Longitudinal, National Study. Thirty-Seven Year Update, 1977-2014* by R. V. Acosta and L. J. Carpenter, 2014, p. 22. Copyright 2014 by Acosta/Carpenter.

Female coaches have increased in some sports and decreased in others, but over-all men still hold one third more head coaching positions of female teams than women. Acosta and Carpenter (2014) summarized the most relevant changes in female coaching opportunities:

- 4154 female head coaches of women's teams was the highest ever representation of women as coaches, an increase of 180 since 2012.

- 43.4 % of women's team in 2014 were coached by females, an increase of 0.5% since 2012.

- 2.0% to 3.5% of men's teams were coached by females in 2014, a negligible increase since 1972.

- 57.1% of women's teams were coached by males in 2014, a decrease of 0.5% since 2012.

- 97% to 98% of men's teams were coached by males in 2014.

- When the athletic director is a female, there are typically a higher percentage of female coaches.

- One out of 4.5 of all male and female teams were coached by females in 2014.

- Fewer than half of women's teams were coached by females in 2014.

- 180 more female coaches of women's teams were employed in 2014 than in 2012.

- There were 449 more female coaches of women's teams in 2014 than a decade ago.

- In 1972, when Title IX was enacted, more than 90% of women's teams were coached by females.

- Since 2000, there were 2,080 new head coaching jobs in women's athletics. In 2014, about one third were filled by females and two thirds by males.

- In 2013 and 2014, 307 new women's teams were added. Females occupied 180 of those jobs and males held 127 of the increase. (pp. A-B)

Opportunities for women in higher education coaching are slowly increasing. However, this has not always been the case. Burke and Hallinan (2006) described female opportunities at the turn of the century:

- In 1972, women coached 90% of women's teams in the NCAA competition. In 2000, the proportion was 47%.

- Between 1998 and 2000, men received 417 of the 524 new jobs (80%) for head coaches of women's teams.

- In 1972, women administered 90% of women's athletic programs in the NCAA. In 2000, the proportion had dropped to 18%, and 23% of women's programs had no women administrators.

- Between 1998 and 2000, men received 373 of the 418 new administrative jobs (93) in the athletic programs of the NCAA schools that ran women's sports.

- The decline in women coaches and administrators has been most marked at the highest levels of competition and in the highest paying jobs, and the figures from 1998 to 2000 indicate no tapering off of the trends. (p. 20)

Social awareness led to positive change toward equalizing prospects for women in athletic leadership. However, women are still underrepresented as coaches of female athletes.

The next section of the literature review describes current research pertaining to why declines in female coaching opportunities occurred, the limited information available on the men who coach female athletes, current athletics department administration as it pertains to the hiring of coaches for women's teams, and the

physiological and psychosocial differences in coaching men versus women and its relevance to coaching philosophy and approaches for female student-athletes.

Women Entering and Leaving the Coaching Profession

The increasing presence of women in leadership roles in other facets of the working world makes it hard to imagine that women are not interested in leadership roles in athletics. Lough (2001) demonstrated that many female college athletes seek out positions as youth coaches at recreational programs or as assistant coaches for local high school teams after graduation. Positive experiences in these positions often lead these women to pursue advanced degrees to gain experience as assistant college coaches. Yet few women make the leap from assistant coach to head coach and those who do, do not hold the positions for an extended career.

The lack of female college coaches is a product of a lack of female coaches at the secondary education levels. One of the reasons attributed to why fewer women are attempting to enter coaching as a profession is lack of mentorship from an early age (Lough, 2001). On any given Saturday a trip to the local recreational fields across America will display Under 12 (U12) and younger teams coached by a majority of female coaches. However, at the U12 level and up, the number of female coaches is radically reduced. Burke and Hallinan (2006) illustrated this point in their research *Women's Leadership in Junior Girls' Basketball in Victoria: Foucault, Feminism and Disciplining Women Coaches*. The study demonstrated that female coaches are primarily utilized in the lower age range teams. As the age of the team members increases, the number of female coaches decreases. This reinforces a perception that as athletes become more skilled and advanced, they are transferred to a male coach. The lack of female coaches in

higher age-group coaching roles has led to a lack of available mentorship for the next generation of female coaches. Lough (2001) clarified:

> While the connection between female team members may be nurtured by male coaches for a cohesive team performance, the modeling of leadership traits characteristic of female coaches will most often be absent. Certainly, male coaches have been successful in creating winning women's teams. Yet, with the continually decreasing number of women in coaching, it appears that they are not motivating their athletes to pursue coaching careers. (p. 3)

In *Where Are the Women in Women's Sports? Predictors of Female Athletes' Interest in a Coaching Career,* Moran-Miller and Flores (2011) found that the quality of female role models contributed significantly to coaching self-efficacy. These authors stated, "Career research has demonstrated that role models positively influence women's self-efficacy beliefs, especially those related to nontraditional careers" (p. 116). In nearly all studies examining the phenomenon of decreasing female coaches, the most common theme has been a lack of leadership mentoring by more experienced female coaches.

In their study of sports club coaching communities, Burke and Hallinan (2006), identified three other factors that discourage females from coaching upper level sports: the 'aspirational coach', power, and the 'great mother' position. The 'aspirational coach' group is described as mostly males, in their twenties, who typically congregate together before games, after games, and socially at events organized for invited players and coaches. Aspiring coaches are distinguished from other coaches for their desire to turn subcultural capital (who you know and who knows you) into economic capital. To do this, they offer their services, for fees, to individual players and their parents in the form

of specialized camps and individual player development sessions. They will typically wear clothes exclusive to those who qualify to purchase them creating an elite status desirable to players and their parents who want their daughters to have the benefit of exposure and development at the elite level. While female aspiring coaches could capitalize on this practice, it is not a current common practice that they are invited into these existing social groups or that the females create a group of their own (Burke & Hallinan, 2006).

Sartore and Cunningham (2007) suggested that in looking at the power struggle of women in coaching it is valuable to consider social ideology which is the collection of attitudes and beliefs that are mutually dependent on one another because they are organized with dominating societal themes in mind. It is these attitudes and beliefs that lead to the formation of expectations and stereotypes that help to arrange and reinforce social structures and categories of individuals and groups. These ideologies are what lead to social hierarchies. Within these hierarchies are the expectations and regulations for gender and sex-role stereotypes. Gendered stereotypes are fixed sets of beliefs about personal characteristics of men and women and often lead to attributes that include individual traits, role behaviors, and occupational preferences (Sartore & Cunningham, 2007). This supports the findings of Burke and Hallinan (2006) that:

> While power is understood as impersonal and anonymous, the effects of its regime in junior basketball is to position men and women differently. The maintenance of male power dominance in the coaching sphere relies on ensuring that differences between the sexes are carefully constructed and institutionalized. (p. 26)

Social ideology also supports the finding that many female coaches are assigned the role of 'great mother' (Burke & Hallinan, 2006). These coaches consolidate their power by providing the maternal characteristics of nurturance and caring. Many female coaches devote years to getting young children started with no aspirations to advance to more prestigious levels of coaching. Burke and Hallinan (2006) stated:

> The 'great mother' fits so tightly with the existing gender regime that its availability to women coaches is probably more important to male coaches, than its absence. Coaching under 12-year-old female basketballers became a self-imposed type of 'velvet ghetto' for women coaches. (p. 27)

However, Burke and Hallinan (2006) also pointed out that the maintenance of male power dominance, in the face of affirmative action practices, is partly carried out by the actions of females in their self-monitoring, self-limiting behavior, and self-correction. By these means, aspiring female coaches are their own obstacle in obtaining higher level coaching leadership positions.

Once women gain a head coaching positions at a higher education institutions, they are less likely to remain in their position when compared to their male counterparts. Kamphoff (2010) conducted a study to determine the contributing factors to this trend. From open-ended responses Kamphoff separated her findings into three sections: positive, negative, and neutral. The most frequently mentioned positive reasons for leaving were *opportunity for promotion* (e.g., to be a full-time administrator) and *interest in other careers areas* (e.g., to conduct research). The most frequently mentioned negative reasons for leaving were *lack of support by administration* (e.g., too much busy work and bureaucracy) and *burnout* (e.g., too many emotional and time-consuming

demands). The neutral reasons were *family commitments* (e.g., husband made more money and could not help with kids resulting in too many demands on participant's time) and *wasn't interested in moving* (e.g., moving up as a coach requires moving and participant wasn't willing to).

From the open-ended responses, Kamphoff identified three major themes: (a) general disparities in women's work, (b) technical demands of coaching, and (c) college coaching and normalized sexualities. Under general disparities in women's work, the participants expressed: 1) lack of adequate resources (e.g., budget, scholarship funding, support staff, and facilities), 2) compensation and duties (e.g., low salaries for 'lower tier' sports and additional responsibilities not required of male coaches), 3) lack of administrative support (e.g., participants described administrators as sexist, homophobic, and controlling), 4) negotiations and gender hierarchy (e.g., constant negotiations to keep their jobs and privileges of male sports, and 5) woman as caregiver (e.g., expectation to be maternalistic toward student-athletes, discouraged to have children, thought of as 'good mom/bad coach' or bad coach/good mom'). Under technical demands of coaching participants expressed reasons of: 1) 24/7 recruitment responsibilities, 2) time commitments, and 3) the pressure to win. Under college coaching and normalized sexualities participants stated the following examples: 1) a need to hide their sexual orientation if they were not 'out' as homosexual, 2) discrimination of lesbian coaches if they were 'out' as homosexual, and 3) negative recruiting (when one coach uses negative information about a coach from another college to persuade an athlete to attend the first coach's college). Kamphoff's (2010) study provided comprehensive insight about the multi-layered and complex issues surrounding the declining number of female coaches of

female athletes. However, to gain a holistic picture, it is important to consider the viewpoint of those comprising the demographic of the current study: men who coach female athletes.

Men Entering and Leaving the Coaching Profession

There is limited scholarly research available on what motivates males to enter the profession of coaching women, or what might cause them to leave their positions. The NCAA's first female athletic director of a combined men's and women's program, Judy Sweet, observed "as soon as salaries began to rise, more men became interested in jobs coaching women" (Greenwell, 2012, para. 8). Sweet added that assistant coaches of men's teams saw women's sports as a chance to be promoted to head-coaching positions faster or for the athlete who could not gain professional employment. It was a way to stay in athletics. These observations do not portray a positive view of men who chose to coach women.

The only research identified which provided insight into the motivations of why male coaches chose to coach female student-athletes is a qualitative thesis titled *Men Who Coach Women*, by Blackshear (2016). In her semi-structured interviews, Blackshear asked, 'Why do male coaches coach female athletes?' She divided the responses into three themes: experience, satisfaction, and opportunity:

Experience. Several of the participants had competed on teams open to both genders (swimming, diving, cross country/ track-and-field) so coaching women was something they had seen and participated in throughout their athletic career. Other participants had opportunities offered to them for little pay because coaches were in short supply or as volunteers coaching women's teams for fun (Blackshear, 2016).

Satisfaction. Most of the participants communicated extremely high satisfaction levels due to working with female athletes. They enjoyed the fun, developmental, nurturing, and caring environment they experienced coaching women versus male athletes who do not typically demonstrate the same level of concern for their teammates. Blackshear (2016) reported that many participants gave responses similar to one coach who said, "Absolutely, it's no questions that this is where I want to be. It may not have been where I always thought I'd be, but I wouldn't change it" (p. 26).

Opportunity. Nearly all participants acknowledged that male coaches have more opportunities across the board due to the fact they generally have experience coaching both sexes, where female coaches generally do not. Many also communicated, "While women are being hired at a much lower rate than men, they are actually more sought after for the positions" (Blackshear, 2016, p. 27) due to affirmative action. Several coaches also shared that they believed more men hold head coaching positions than women because fewer women apply for them. One coach alluded to social ideology when he stated:

> Part of it has to do with paying your dues, which comes with college coaching. You need to have an established history of being willing to scratch and claw for the best job, a willingness to move and relocate and that's harder for women because of their family life. (Blackshear, 2016, p. 28)

The lack of information on the reasons male coaches enter/leave the profession of coaching female athletes is concerning. There is also limited data on the perceived hindrances (job demands, pressures, quality of life, etc.) of male coaches of female athletes.

Athletic Department Administration and Hiring Trends

Moran-Miller and Flores (2011) described "coaching mothers" as female college coaches who had their own young children at home. In Division I institutions coaching mothers had a greater retention rate when they perceived that their administrators understood the unique and time-consuming demands of coaching. When administrators offered flexible schedules and provided adequate staff, the coaches could remain in their positions and even progress in their careers. Moran-Miller and Flores (2011) stated, "Athletic administrators seem to be a key determinant if female coaches achieve and maintain work/life balance in their careers" (p. 4). The low rate of women entering and advancing in higher education athletics, coupled with the high rate of women leaving the profession, can be directly linked to the fact that 'administrator support' is not practiced in most athletic departments. It has been argued that one of the primary causes is the lack of female representation in athletics department administration (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014). An Anonymous (2010) writer for Women in Higher Education published a *33-Year Report on Women in Athletics: More Players, Fewer Coaches & Administrators* article which shared that only 19.1% of higher education institutions had a female athletics director, which was down from 21.3% in 2008. Division III institutions had the highest representation of female athletics directors, at 29%. Thirteen-point two percent of institutions had no female administrators in their program.

By 2014, women's representation in administrative roles increased, but the disparity between men and women was still wide. Acosta and Carpenter (2014) illustrated this in their longitudinal study which examined the number of female and male administrators by division:

Table 2

Number of Female and Male Administrators by Division in 2012 and 2014

Gender	Year	Division I	Division II	Division II	Total
Female	2012	598	362	543	1503
	2014	734	387	532	1653
Male	2012	1415	617	668	2700
	2014	1554	640	734	2928

Note. Adapted from *Women in Intercollege Sport: A Longitudinal, National Study. Thirty-Seven Year Update*, 1977-2014 by R. V. Acosta and L. J. Carpenter, 2014, p. 41. Copyright 2014 by Acosta/Carpenter.

As the status and salary of positions increase, female representation decreases, as evident in female administration percentages remaining higher at the Division III level and falling in the progression to Division I. Acosta and Carpenter (2014) noted that when the athletic director was a female, the percentage of female coaches tended to be higher. Table 3 summarizes the percentage of male and female coaches in an athletic program when the athletic director is a male and when the athletic director is a female.

Table 3

Percentage of College Female Coaches by Gender of Athletic Director (AD)

AD Gender	Year	Division I	Division II	Division III
Male	2012	41.9	36.7	44.3
	2014	43	35.1	44.4
Female	2012	45.9	40.7	51.1
	2014	46.8	40.6	53.9

Note. Adapted from "*Women in Intercollege Sport: A Longitudinal, National Study. Thirty-Seven Year Update*, 1977-2014 by R. V. Acosta and L. J. Carpenter, 2014, p. 28. Copyright 2014 by Acosta/Carpenter.

In *Career Experiences and Intentions of Women in Senior Level Intercollege Athletic Administration*, Veraldo (2013) used the theory of planned behavior to determine

structural barriers to advancement and to predict females' intentions to pursue the athletic

director position. The findings suggested that structural barriers persist which hinder

women pursuing careers as athletics directors. However, the participants were very aware

of the barriers and were actively trying to break them down by gaining experiences

making them more desirable candidates. Even so, the study predicted that five of nine

potential female athletic director candidates would likely not pursue the role, indicating

that women actively contribute to their own underrepresentation (Veraldo, 2013).

Fink, Pastore, and Riemer (2001) studied employees' perceptions of diversity

management strategies in Division IA athletics departments. Multiple female athletics

directors participated in the study, but all of them indicated that they had no children:

> In order to compete on the same level as their male counterparts, females may feel
>
> the need to forgo the opportunity to have children. This may be particularly true
>
> for those interested in pursuing high level management positions in athletics.
>
> Moreover, this may also provide an explanation for why more women who have
>
> families may not be thought of as 'suitable' candidates since it is believed that
>
> they would not be able to provide the time commitment necessary to do a good
>
> job. (Fink, Pastore, et. al., p. 39)

Diacin and Lim (2012) confirmed this conclusion in their research, which found work-

family conflict, gender ideologies, and male dominated social networks as the three major

factors impacting female representation within intercollege athletic departments:

> Work-Family Conflict: Females often assume the majority of domestic
>
> responsibilities making it difficult to fulfill occupational responsibilities which

often require the employee to work evenings, weekends, holidays, and frequent

travel.

Gender Ideologies: Certain positions are seen as more appropriate for male

employees and other positions for female employees. Women are perceived as

care-givers, meaning they are more suited for areas in teaching, nursing, business

office, marketing, communications, or academics.

Male Dominated Social Networks: Traditionally, females are not seen as having

the necessary strategic connections necessary to be an efficient upper level

administrator. This 'good old boy club' mentality of white men choosing their

'buddies' for positions keeps the status quo from allowing access to women.

Though the practice is perceived by participants as 'weakening' it is still a present

barrier for women looking to advance in athletic departments. (Diacin & Lim, pp.

5-10)

In April of 2017, Dr. Lapchick, the Director of the Institute of Diversity and

Ethics in Sports (TIDES), shared that the organization had developed the College Sport

Racial and Gender Report Card. This report card grades higher education institutions on

the representation of women and people of color in athletic departments. Nationally,

college sports received a C for gender hiring practices in 2016. Lapchick (2017) stated in

the report:

Over 45 years after the passage of Title IX, the percentage of women coaching

women's teams remained far from being acceptable in any of the three divisions.

In the case of head coaches for women's teams, it should be expected that women

would hold at least half of these positions. (p. 23)

The NCAA headquarters received an A-minus in senior leadership and an A-plus for gender professional positions. These grades demonstrated progress for the NCAA, but as athletics departments are not yet hiring equal representation of gender in their administration, there is great pressure for them to begin doing so. Morris (2017) included a quote by Lapchick:

> I got into higher education all those many years ago because I thought it would be the ideal place where all things would be done with moral integrity and embracing different cultures. Obviously, that's not the case in terms of hiring practices in college sports. Hiring practices are worse in college sports than in other areas, such as professional sports. (Morris, 2017, p .1)

Lapchick (2017) recommended several suggestions for hiring practice changes. One such change was the Eddie Robinson Rule. The purpose of the Eddie Robinson Rule was to initiate opportunity for a diverse pool of candidates for every opening of a men's and women's head-coaching position in Division I. If this policy was required for women's teams it would make it mandatory for two-thirds of the candidates interviewed to be female (Lapchick, 2017).   Policy changes such as the Eddie Robinson Rule and political pressure could have negative implications for men who coach women's sports.

Reverse Discrimination toward Male Coaches

Research evidence clearly demonstrates that female presence in upper level athletics administration is low, why it is low, and that the lack of female administrative advocacy threatens to keep the gender gap from equalizing. However, gender gap awareness and political pressure from TIDES, the NCAA, and various activist groups encourage changes to staffing which could be career ending for males who have chosen

to coach female athletes. In their study, *Impact of Title IX on Careers in Intercollege Administration*, Bower and Hums (2014) looked at the impact Title IX has made on the careers of women and men working within intercollege athletic administration. The results showed that the primary factors impacting the careers of men were discrimination against qualified men and increased job opportunities for women.

There are very few public examples of reverse gender discrimination. One such case involved former Beauregard, Alabama high school softball coach, Brandon Cobb (Smith, 2012). Cobb was not removed from his position as softball coach based on performance, but because the school district superintendent, Dr. Stephen Nowlin, openly desired to have a female coach lead the program. Nowlin told reporters:

> I felt like it was an opportunity to fill that position with a female coach…because we don't currently have any female coaches at Beauregard High School. We need to have equality in our program for boys and girls in terms of sports that are offered, we need to have equality for them in terms of facilities, and then we need to have males and females among the coaching staff. (Smith, 2012, para. 6)

Nowlin communicated the affirmative action agenda that many administrators are addressing when making hiring decisions. Ultimately Cobb did not pursue legal action, but based upon the findings of *Andrew Medcalf v. The Trustees of University of Pennsylvania* (2001), he might have had grounds. Andrew Medcalf served as an assistant coach for the men's crew team at the University of Pennsylvania. He applied to be head coach of the school's women's crew team. He was not interviewed, and a woman was hired instead. Medcalf sued the University of Pennsylvania, claiming the decision

constituted sex discrimination in violation of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.

The jury found in favor of Medcalf and he was awarded $115,000 (Grossman, 2001).

Title VII precludes employers from taking sex into account when making

employment decisions, including decisions about hiring. There are two exceptions: a

bona fide occupational qualification (BFOQ) and affirmative action (Grossman, 2001).

A BFOQ can apply if a woman wants to be hired as a sperm donor or a man applies to be

a wet nurse. A few courts have permitted universities to use a BFOQ when a female

coach is hired to fill a 'role model' need, but it is not usually successful. Affirmative

action can only be a defense when the employer (institution) has a valid affirmative

action plan in place. To be valid, an affirmative action plan must be enacted to combat a

real problem of past discrimination and must be narrowly tailored to avoid unnecessarily

trampling on the rights of the majority (Grossman, 2001). In light of these findings, it is

as essential for male candidates to have knowledge of their legal rights pertaining to

employment candidacy, as it is for higher education institutions to understand their legal

hiring responsibilities.

Perceptions of Higher Education Student Athletes

Political pressure for policy changes and preferences of athletic administration are

not the only factors influencing the appointment of head coaches. For many institutions,

it is common practice for team members to have an opportunity to meet potential

coaching candidates and to share their opinions with the hiring committee. Frankl and

Babbitt (1998) expressed their concern that "gender bias toward female coaches may be

derived from many different levels within the coaching environment, ranging from hiring

practices of athletic directors to athletes' perceptions" (p. 396). Perceptions or biases can

be influenced by socially supported ideas, myths, or misconceptions. In the article

Coaching: Do female athletes prefer male coaches (2011), six myths concerning female

coaches were addressed:

Myth 1: Look at the records. Female coaches aren't winning championships. This

proves that male coaches are better.

Myth 2: Women are less intense. They aren't as demanding of their players. They

aren't strong enough.

Myth 3: Women turn other women off. It's easier to take coaching from a man.

Myth 4: We want a male coach for our team.

Myth 5: Older female coaches simply don't have the skills and knowledge to

coach highly competitive programs. Todays' female athletes in top notch

programs who are being coached by males will be better qualified and will get

good jobs.

Myth 6: You don't have to worry about the coach being a lesbian when you hire

a male coach. (pp. 1- 5)

Regardless of the validity or invalidity of these social beliefs, they likely influence

perceptions and preferences of student-athletes as they participate in the hiring process of

a coach and as they go through the college search/athlete recruitment process. There are

several studies the topic of student-athlete bias toward male or female coaches (Fasting &

Pfisher, 2000; Frankle & Babbitt, 2015; Kalin & Waldron, 1998; Weinberg et al., 1984;

Williams & Parkhouse, 1998). Williams and Parkhouse (1988) studied the level of

gender bias exhibited by female high school varsity basketball players. The participants

were divided into four groups depending on gender of their coach and team success and

asked to indicate their preference for either a hypothetical male coach or female coach, both had a similar win/loss record to the participant's previous season. All groups showed a preference for a male coach except when the male coach was unsuccessful and the female successful. Even in this case, 40% of female athletes preferred an unsuccessful male coach.

Weinberg et al. (1984) studied a sample of female and male junior-high, high-school, and college basketball players. All male participants had male coaches and all female participants had female coaches. The participants were required to indicate their attitudes toward equally qualified male and female coaches. The male athletes generally indicated more negative attitudes toward female coaches than female athletes did. Neither group differed in their view of male coaches.

Frankl and Babbitt (1998) studied the effects of athletes' and their coach's gender on gender bias in high school track athletes through an evaluation of a new, equally qualified, hypothetical male or female coach. Males and females coached by males had more positive attitudes toward a hypothetical new coach than did subjects coached by females. This difference was demonstrated in athletes' degree of liking of a new hypothetical coach, their estimate of whether that coach could get them to improve or motivate them to perform better, and whether they could take it when the coach told them that they had done something wrong. Results also showed that males coached by males were more receptive to criticism by a coach than males coached by a female or females coached by males or females.

Kalin and Waldron (2015) conducted a survey of 59 women's basketball players from 10 Division I universities to determine a) if female college basketball players had a

preference toward male or female head basketball coaches, b) if the gender and enjoyment level of past head coaches influenced preferences toward a male or female head coach, and c) if there was a relationship between the perceived roles of women's basketball head coaches and female college preferences toward male or female coaches. The findings demonstrated that most student-athletes had a male coach in high school, but the majority had a female coach at the university level. Even though most athletes currently had a male head coach, they preferred a male coach and reported that they enjoyed being coached by a male.

There is little research which supports an athlete preference for a female coach. However, Fasting and Pfister (2000) studied perceptions of female and male coaches by female soccer players. Participants were elite level adult female soccer players who had experienced being coached by a female. Through semi-structured interviews, the athletes reported their preference for female coaching styles. They felt male coaches did not always take female sport seriously:

> Two important themes emerged from the research: Firstly, that female players who originally embraced the 'think coach, think male' philosophy, and were originally negative toward the presence of a female coach, changed this perception with experience of a female coach, and secondly, these female athletes communicated a preference for an understanding and caring style of communication that was most frequently associated with female coaches. (p. 20)

This preference for female coaching is in the minority of research findings. Student-athlete preferences and the factors contributing to those preferences will continue to be

significant in terms of recruiting student-athletes and how coaches approach the unique

needs of female athletes.

Psychosocial Coaching Approaches

Coaching philosophies, approaches to coaching, and the relationship between

coaches and their athletes have long been subjects of curiosity. Jowett, Yang, and

Lorimer (2012) studied the linear associations between personality, relationship,

relationship quality, perceptions of coach empathy, and satisfaction with training.

Regardless of the gender of the coach or athlete, the findings supported: a) athletes'

perceptions of relationship quality was affected by their personality and affected their

views about how empathetic their coach was relative to them, and b) athletes' perceptions

of coach empathy was affected by their perceptions of the quality of the relationship with

the coach and affected their levels of satisfaction with training. To gain a better

understanding of what contributes to a positive relationship between coaches and athletes,

researchers have conducted several studies looking specifically at interpersonal

constructs (closeness, co-orientation, and complementarity) and motivational climate

(Jowett & Cockerill, 2003; Philippe & Seiler, 2006).

Closeness, Co-orientation, and Complementarity

Philippe and Seiler (2006) described 'closeness' as affective or emotional

interdependence that contains such relational properties as liking, trusting, and respecting

one another. 'Co-orientation' was reported as corresponding beliefs, values, interests,

and goals which are facilitated via open communication which includes dialogue,

negotiations, and decision-making. 'Complementarity' is an interaction type that

promotes a sense of teamwork, mutual aid, and collaboration. In their study, Philippe and

Seiler found that athletes placed great importance in maintaining good relationships with their coaches. The type of relationship between the participants and their coach was reported as personal and caring, and played a central role in improving performances.

Jowett and Cockerill (2003) investigated the nature and significance of the athlete-coach relationship within the context of the interpersonal constructs by interviewing twelve Olympic medalists (three female and nine male). Feelings of trust and respect (closeness), common goals (co-orientation), and complementary roles and tasks (complementarity) marked the athletic relationships of the medalists with their coaches. While most of these reported relational aspects were positive, there were also cases of negative relational aspects which manifested in lack of emotional closeness and complementary resources. The nature of the athlete-coach relationship was found to have an important role in the athlete's development both as a performer and as a person (Jowett & Cockerill, 2003).

Motivational Climate

Coaches must remain mindful of the state of their relationship with their players, for an athlete's perception of their relationship to their coach directly affects the climate of the team. Smith, Fry, Ethington, and Li (2005) stated, "athletes' perceptions of their coaches' behaviors contribute significantly to their perceptions of the climate" (p. 177). Indeed, coaches must be intentional about the climate they contribute to, as there is much research to support the benefits of athletes perceiving a task-involving climate and the concerns that arise when athletes perceive an ego-involving climate (Balaguer, Duda, Atienza, & Mayo, 2002; Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1999; Pensgaard & Roberts, 2002).

Ntoumanis and Biddle (1999) created a critical review of research on the motivational impact of different psychological climates in physical activity with specific difference on the impact of mastery and performance climates. Ntoumanis and Biddle (1999) concluded that mastery climates utilize challenging and diverse tasks, students are given choices in leadership roles, recognition is private and based on individual progress, evaluation is based on mastery of tasks and on individual improvement, and the time requirements are adjusted to personal capabilities. In a performance climate tasks are repetitive and lack challenge, students do not take part in the decision-making process, recognition is public and based on social comparison, evaluations are based on winning or outperforming others, and time requirements are uniform to all students. Jowett and Cockerill (2003) concluded that a mastery motivational climate is associated with more adaptive motivational patterns, while a performance climate is linked with less adaptive or maladaptive motivational and affective responses. Thus, a mastery motivational climate is preferable to obtain athlete satisfaction and best performance.

Pensgaard and Roberts (2002) supported the preference of motivational climates. Through in-depth interviews of elite athletes and questionnaires, the Pensgaard and Roberts study endeavored to obtain a deeper understanding of the importance of the climate surrounding an athlete and the role of the coach for elite athletes. All the athletes scored high on task orientation and moderate to high on ego orientation. Most of the athletes perceived a high mastery climate and a low performance climate. The athletes emphasized the importance of the coach as the creator of the climate, as well as their preference for a supportive and caring climate.

Likewise, the 181 elite female handball athletes who participated in a study by Balaguer et al. (2002) were interviewed and surveyed to examine the relationship of the perceived motivational climate created by the coach and dispositional goal orientations. The results showed when a stronger task-involving climate was perceived, players reported greater performance improvement and satisfaction with performance and held more positive views regarding the coach. Task orientation added a significant proportion of the variance for perceptions of one's own performance improvement. Perceptions of an ego-involving climate were negatively related to overall coach ratings but were positively related to satisfaction with the team's competitive results.

Regardless of gender, athletes have been found to prefer a mastery motivational climate. This climate is preferred for both how the athletes prefer to be trained physically and supported emotionally. However, there has been a great deal of debate if male and female athletes should be coached in the same way.

Psychosocial Coaching Approaches for Female Athletes

Each human-being has a unique background, personality and set of needs. Likewise, all athletes bring personal experiences, expectations and needs that are specific to them. This means a 'one way works for everyone' approach will not work for coaches. Some coaches prefer to train and treat female athletes the same way that they would a male athlete. Others believe that female athletes must be coached differently in terms of their physical training and psychosocial needs. Stewart (2016) conducted a 12-year study in which data were collected from undergraduate female students enrolled in an Introduction to Coaching class. Every semester, as part of the in-class assignments, the students were asked to prioritize ten characteristics of coaches in a forced ranking

process. The participants were experienced student-athletes who played competitively, on average, for nine years. However, of the 338 participants only 81 played at the college level. Findings showed that the coaches' ability to teach ranked first, being fair and honest was second highest, and the commitment to development of sportsmanship ranked third. The preparation of athletes to play at the highest level, the individual commitment to winning, and a coach's prior experience as a player were consistently at the bottom of the rankings (Stewart 2016). These findings contradicted what many coaches believed would be prioritized by male athletes. This makes it necessary for coaches to identify and address the areas in which the needs of female athletes might differ from those of their male counterparts.

In regard to confidence, Constantinesco (2015) found women tend to assume that their opponents are as good as or better than they are. This puts them at a disadvantage in the pursuit of playing a sport at the highest level. Gilbert (2016) quoted Anson Dorrance (21-time national women's soccer championship coach) who stated, "In coaching women, there is more of a need for 'ego-boosting', with men, it is more 'ego-busting'" (p. 1). A way to address this is to use a positive approach to build confidence when female athletes succeed. When they fail and make mistakes, coaches should keep in mind that most female-athletes are tougher on themselves than male athletes. Many females take the coach's criticism personally. They might believe a general statement made to the team is something that was meant for them individually (Janssen, n.d.). Bloom (1999) quoted Dr. Brenda Armstrong, a pediatric cardiologist at the Duke University Medical Center, who is also a youth track coach, who observed, "While most boys will 'tough out' criticism as a badge of honor, a girl who is berated may withdraw or quit the team"

(p. 3).   Amidon (2016) shared that embarrassing or degrading a female athlete in front of

her teammates is an unsuccessful strategy. It does not motivate her to improve. It

encourages her to feel poorly about herself which will reduce or illuminate her

confidence to improve. Females tend to carry these feelings for extended periods of time

and to allow the lack of confidence to manifest in other areas of their life (Amidon,

2016).

Gilbert (2016) and Constantinesco (2015) addressed females' unique approach to

compartmentalization and individualization. Women do not usually compartmentalize

their interactions and their relationships. If two male teammates were to have an

argument in a social setting, the disagreement is more likely to be put on 'pause' during a

game setting due to their mutual desire to win. Women in a similar situation are more

likely to take the disagreement on the field which might manifest as not passing to each

other, therefore prioritizing their relationship over the mutual desire to win (Gilbert,

2016). This other-oriented tendency makes it important for coaches to supplement team

goals with individual goals. It should be noted that when setting individual goals, men

prefer to compare themselves publicly against their teammates. This is contrary to

women who might prefer to chart their progress against their own performance standards

(Constantinesco, 2015).

Janssen (n.d.) noted that females tend to have greater coachability than males in

that women tend to be more receptive to coaching, feedback, and new ways of doing

things. They typically desire to please their coach more than men do. They give their

coach more initial respect, as opposed to men, who usually reserve judgement and make

their coaches prove they are credible. Constantinesco (2015) stated, "Females do not

tend to directly challenge the authority of their coach, but if the coach does not already have their trust and respect they are more likely to undermine authority in an indirect manner" (p. 3). Gilbert (2016) suggested memory is also a factor in coachability. Females tend to recall experiences with more detail and emotion, while males traditionally remember the 'gist' of an experience. When coaches teach new material, males may benefit more from having an opportunity to first try it without paying too much attention to the minor details or each component of the skill or tactic. Females may feel more prepared to work on component parts of the skill or tactic immediately after a vivid demonstration by the coach (Gilbert, 2016).

Amidon (2016) reported that connection and relationships play a key role in female interaction by quoting Anson Dorrance who explained:

> With women, your effectiveness is through your ability to relate. They have to feel that you care about them personally or have some kind of connection with them beyond the game…to be an effective leader of a men's team, you don't need personal rapport as long as there is respect. That's all that's really required. But in a women's team, respect is only part of it, and it is derived from a relationship. Women have to have a sense that you care for them above and beyond their (athletic) abilities. (para. 2)

Each woman wants to feel connected to the others in some way. The web of their relationships symbolizes that one is not necessarily better than the others (Janssen, n.d.). Gilbert (2016) observed that when it comes to building relationships, men prefer to engage in physical activity, while women are more comfortable bonding through talking and sharing stories. When addressing team conflict men might be best served by

allowing them to engage in physical competition. Women, on the other hand, would prefer to sit in a group setting and talk through their disagreements (Gilbert, 2016).

Bloom (1999) addressed female body image issues and advised male coaches of female athletes to be mindful of comments pertaining to a player's body. On a physical level, runners (for example) must be monitored to prevent overtraining and extremely low body fat which can exacerbate likelihood of injury. Young girls who train heavily could delay puberty, keeping bone-building estrogen levels low, increasing the risk of stress fractures. On an emotional level, women are already influenced by media images of excessive thinness. Coaches must exercise extreme caution when addressing physical fitness with their female athletes (Bloom, 1999).

Buning and Thompson (2015) shared that females place high importance on communication. In their study of 41 college softball players, three major themes were identified as influencing head coach behaviors on their teams' competence and motivation. One of the three was communication. Athletes were motivated to perform when their head coach's communication was clear and direct. The female athletes experienced a drop in motivation if the coach avoided communication or ignored the player after a performance attempt (Buning & Thompson, 2015). Amidon (2016) said that women are notorious for wanting to know 'why'? Coaches must communicate to players what the role of the coach is, why decisions are being made, the purpose of the system, etc. The female players might not always agree with their coach, but if they understand there is a logic and purpose, they will tend to respect it (Amidon, 2016). Gilbert (2016) stated that in times of conflict, males will tend to withdraw, where females will increase their communication through nurturing. While men tend to communicate

through independence, self-reliance, and avoidance of failure, women communicate through connection, preserving intimacy, and avoiding isolation. Men are more interested in the content of communication. Women are more concerned with the interaction of the communication itself (Gilbert, 2016).

Physicality of Female Athletes

Cahn and O'Reilly (2012) stated that until the age of twelve, girls and boys are very similar in size, strength, and reaction time. If anything, girls are slightly bigger and stronger because their maturity is complete by 13, where boys do not physically mature until 16. However, when physical maturity is reached, men are 10% larger than women with double the muscle mass than that of girls making men at least 30% stronger than women until old age. Much of the reason for this lies in the male hormone, androgen, which produces denser bones and stimulates the growth of muscle tissue. No amount of conditioning can make women as lean, proportionately as men. College-age men in the United States average 15% body fat, women average around 25%. For athletes the disparity is much smaller, but still present. Women's stamina - their ability to perform at maximum capacity over an extended period of time - is linked to the fact that men have larger concentrations of hemoglobin (oxygen carriers in their blood). This is compounded with the fact that males traditionally have larger hearts and lungs, allowing them to take oxygen from the air and send it to their muscles faster than their female counterparts (Cahn & O'Reilly, 2012).

According to Cahn and O'Reilly (2012) in 1986 the American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists issued thirteen pages of *Safety Guidelines for Women.* Women were advised to consider 30 minutes of moderate exercise followed by a 'day of

rest' to avoid injury. This was challenged by women's sports advocates and researchers. Cahn and O'Reilly described the views of Dr. Jack Wilmore who addressed the cause of male's superiority of strength and endurance compared to females. Wilmore attributed male physical superiority to the social and cultural restrictions imposed on females, rather than true biological differences in performance potential between the sexes. There are no studies of the long-range effects of strenuous conditioning programs on women, the physical capabilities of older women, influence of sexual activity or menstrual cramps on women's performance, or the effects of birth-control pills on women's strength, coordination, timing, endurance, and emotional traits. However, some research supports that birth-control contributes to women being less physically active. The sociological ideology that women do not need to be physically competitive, has resulted in centuries of women not striving for their physical limits. The physical potential of women athletes is still unknown (Cahn & O'Reilly, 2012).

While it is widely accepted that female athletes sometimes respond differently than male athletes to training demands and performance stressors, Gilbert (2016) stated:

> Championship coaches such as Russ Rose, Anson Dorrance, Feno Auriemma, or Pat Summitt are living proof that coaches should not shy away from tough and demanding practices when coaching female athletes. All athletes, regardless of gender, respond best when coaches set challenging, yet realistic, training and performance goals and emphasize skill development and improvement. (p. 2)

Since little research on female athlete physicality exists and due to the relatively short existence of women's competitive sports, much is left to the coach to determine the physical expectations of their female athletes.

Male Coach and Female Athlete Interaction

It is important for male coaches to understand and respect the boundaries and social constructs that govern their interactions with female athletes. It is also imperative for higher education administrator to understand and regulate these interactions. There are several court cases that support the significance of these coach and student-athlete interactions. DeFrancesco (2007) described *Jennings v. University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill (1998):*

> Jennings filed suit against the University under Title IX. Jennings alleged that her coach, Anson Dorrance, sexually harassed her while she was a member of the team. Despite Jennings' accusations, when the defendants moved for summary judgment, the district court granted the motion.

Heckman (2008) summarized several court cases pertaining to student-athlete and coach interaction. In *Doe v. Green (2004)* the Nevada district court refused to grant the defendants' motion for summary judgment, in its totality, in this case where the female high school student originally complained about conversations with her male soccer coach, who was an assistant. In *Blue v. Lexington Independent School District (1983):*

> The allegations concerned a female student's Title IX hostile environment harassment claim and a claim for malicious prosecution for involving the Texas sheriff's office, which interrogated her based on the investigation of an anonymous letter received by the District's superintendent that one of the coaches was having an affair with her. (p.11)

In *Lillard v. Shelby County Bd. of Education (1996):*

> A female interscholastic soccer player unsuccessfully alleged sexual harassment. This was despite an FBI agent informing the high school principal the agent observed the male coach cursing and verbal abusing the girls on the team, in addition to seeing the coach hitting the girls on their buttocks. (Heckman, 2008, p.11)

In *Henderson v. Walled Lake Consolidated Schools (2006):*

> A female interscholastic soccer player also unsuccessfully charged her male coach with Title IX sexual harassment based solely on his verbal discourse. The athlete leveled her coach with using obscenities and vulgar and demeaning language in front of his all-girl team. He had allegedly engaged in flirtations and sexually suggestive remarks with team members. (Heckman, 2008, p.11)

Regardless of the legal action that has been brought against male coaches of female athletes, there is very little research on what is considered appropriate interaction for the male coach/ female athlete relationship. Male coaches are required to use their common sense or the opinions of other professionals to determine what is or is not appropriate. Constantinesco (2015) quoted Dr. Cheri Toledo who identified three areas that male coaches must be mindful of to remain above reproach:

I.   No One-on-One Situations: Always have a third person (such as another coach) present, leave doors open, meet in open areas, never have a player stay at your house, and never drive a player anywhere alone.

II.   Be Transparent- communication (email, text, etc.) should be sent to the whole team. Personal information should be shared with other coaches or parents. Keep practices in open areas.

III.   Appropriate Physical Contact- Pat on the shoulder, not the butt. Give hugs from the side, not the front. Have other players demonstrate moves or touch the player to position them. (p. 3)

The relationship between coaches and athletes continues to be a source of interest and speculation. This is particularly true of male coaches of female athletes. These professionals must have an understanding of the unique psychosocial needs, physiological attributes, and the sociological ideologies present when working with female athletes. Minimal research has been conducted to explore the experiences of men who have chosen to coach female college athletes. It is due to this lack of information that the need for further research exists (Constantinesco, 2015).

Summary

The history of college athletics has grown from being under institutional student direction to one of national policy governance. There have been many failed attempts to regulate college sports. Struggles for power, safety-concerns, and commercialization continue to threaten the integrity of higher education athletics. College sport is a phenomenon that has as much or more influence on the success of a higher education institution as its actual educational programs. With this in mind, it is important that higher education administrators make informed decisions regarding who will coach their student-athletes and direct their athletic programs to success or failure. The impact of Title IX has made institutions aware of the imbalance of gender representation in their

athletics programs and staff. However, the number of female candidates for coaching

positions is decreasing, leaving men to coach the majority of women's college teams.

Research continues to document the decrease of female college coach

representation in college athletics. There is limited research on the common experiences

of men who coach female athletes, the common experiences of male coaches during the

hiring process for a sport to serve as a coach of female athletes, the coaching approaches

of male coaches who guide the physical training of female student-athletes, the

approaches of male coaches who guide the social emotional characteristics of female

athletes and teams, and the perception of male coaches regarding why there are fewer

female than male college coaches. The current study contributed to this gap in the

literature. Chapter 3 presents the research design, sampling procedures, instruments, data

collection procedures, data analysis and synthesis, reliability and trustworthiness,

researcher's role, and limitations of the study.

Chapter 3

Methods

The purpose of this study was to examine the experiences of male coaches of exclusively female athletes and athletic teams. The study focused on the common experiences of men who coach female athletes, the common experiences of male coaches during the hiring process as an opposite gender to the female athletes they will coach, the coaching approaches of male coaches in the physical training of female student-athletes, the approaches of male coaches related to the social emotional characteristics of female athletes, and the perception of male coaches regarding why there are fewer female college coaches of female athletes than male coaches. This chapter includes a description of the research design, sampling procedures, measurement instruments, data collection procedures, data analysis and synthesis, reliability and trustworthiness, researcher's role, and limitations of the study.

Research Design

A qualitative phenomenological research design using semi-structured interviews was selected for this study. Roberts (2014) described qualitative interview techniques when she stated:

> Qualitative interview techniques encourage respondents to talk freely around emotionally loaded topics in order to gain an insight into how people feel and think about a research topic under investigation. In this respect, qualitative interviews can be described as a conversation with a purpose so that they can probe in more depth around particular everyday issues that standardized quantitative interviews. (p. 4)

The approach of inquiry for this study was phenomenological. Creswell (2013) explained that this design allows the researcher to describe "the lived experiences of individuals about a phenomenon as described by participants. This description culminates in the essence of the experiences for several individuals who have all experienced the phenomenon" (p. 14). In this study, the shared phenomenon was the participants' decision to coach female athletes, being successfully hired for the position of head coach, and completing at least one year of coaching in which they demonstrated coaching approaches. A qualitative phenomenological research design allowed the researcher to gain a better understanding of this specific population of higher education professionals.

Setting

Participants in this study resided in states located throughout the United States. The study was conducted through phone interviews. All participants self-reported that they were in their office at their higher education institution of employment during the interview. This setting and method of communication were determined to be the most efficient to create convenience and to protect the confidentiality of the interviewees.

Sampling Procedures

The study utilized two purposive sampling procedures: criterion and snowball sampling. Lunenberg and Irby (2008) explained, "Purposive sampling involves selecting a sample based on the researcher's experience or knowledge of the group to be sampled" (p. 175). The researcher invited participants with whom she had a professional connection who believed this study would offer them an unbiased opportunity to share their experiences. In this way, purposive sampling was used in the study.

Participants worked at NAIA, NCAA, or the NJCAA institutions with programs in Division I, II, or III. The participants in this study were limited to male head or associate head coaches of teams consisting of exclusively female student-athletes. Therefore, sports such as swimming, diving, track and field, and cross-country were not included in the study. Participants had to be current coaches who had successfully been appointed to a head or associate head coaching position and had been in that role during the spring, summer, and fall 2017 athletic seasons.

In addition to purposive sampling, the researcher utilized snowball sampling. Elliot, Fairweather, Olsen, and Pampaka (2016) defined snowball sampling as:

A method of non-probability sampling where the respondents are themselves used to recruit further respondents from their social networks. This method is often used where no sample frame exists and the population of interest is a hard-to-reach group. (para.1)

Through brief conversations with potential participants the researcher obtained several recommendations for other potential participants which led to more recommendations. The final list of participants included 20 candidates for participation. Of the 20 potential candidates, 10 agreed to participate and completed the interview protocol.

Instruments

The aim of the qualitative interview is to obtain nuanced descriptions from the different aspects of the interviewee's life through words, as opposed to numbers (Kvale, 1996). Rubin and Rubin (1995) explained, "Qualitative interviewing is flexible, interactive, and continuous, rather than prepared in advance and locked in stone" (p. 43). A semi-structured interview approach was utilized so that the data could yield rich

descriptions with detailed accounts of the participants' experiences and perspectives. Edwards and Holland (2013) explained that all semi-structured interviews must have a thematic, topic-centered, biographical, or narrative approach. This means the interviewer must have themes, topics, or issues they wish to cover, but with a fluid and flexible structure. Creswell (2013) described an interview protocol as an outline of research questions with probes to ensure the interviews remain on topic and generate meaningful responses from the participants. This study used an interview protocol designed to guide the participants to share their career experiences in a safe, comfortable, and open style. The interview protocol (Appendix A) utilized for all interviews allowed for a semi-structured free flow of conversation while remaining on topic and ensuring that all areas of interest of the study were addressed. The research questions and interview questions included the following:

RQ1: What are the common life events prior to a coaching career that lead males to coach female athletes?

> **IQ1:** Please tell me about your athletic background.

> **IQ2:** How did your background contribute to your becoming a coach?

> **IQ3:** What opportunities or events led you toward coaching women?

RQ2: What are the common perceptions male coaches have of the hiring process for a position as a coach of female athletes?

> **IQ1:** Describe the hiring process when you applied to be a coach of female athletes.

> **IQ2**: Please describe any experiences you may have had with discrimination during the hiring process.

IQ3: Describe any similarities and differences in your interview experiences when the Athletic Director was female verses when the Athletic Director was male.

RQ3: How do male coaches approach the physical training of female athletes?

IQ1: How do you approach the physical training of female athletes?

IQ2: In what ways are your physical requirements for female athletes similar or different from the requirements for male athletes of the same sport and division?

RQ4: How do male coaches approach the social and emotional characteristics of female athletes?

IQ1: Tell me about the social and emotional characteristics of female athletes.

IQ2: What social interaction issues have you observed when female athletes work as a team have?

RQ5: What social and physical boundaries guide male coaches of female athletes?

IQ1: What social boundaries do you pay attention to when interacting with female athletes?

IQ2: What physical boundaries do you pay attention to when interacting with female athletes?

RQ6: What are the perceptions of male coaches related to why more males than females coach female athletes?

IQ1: Currently over 50% of female college teams are coached by men. Why do you think more males than females coach female athletes?

IQ2: In your opinion, why are female coaches leaving the profession?

Data Collection Procedures

Prior to collecting data, a Proposal for Research (Appendix B) was submitted to the Baker University Institutional Review Board (IRB) on February 15, 2018 and an IRB approval (Appendix C) was received on February 16, 2018. An email invitation to participate in the study (Appendix D) was emailed to 20 potential participants. Those who responded affirmatively to participate in the study were contacted via email to schedule a phone interview. Prior to conducting the interview, each participant signed a consent form (Appendix F) and emailed it to the researcher. The consent form communicated the purpose of the study, the research questions, and the fact that participants could opt out of responding to any question and could terminate the interview at any time. The signed consent form also gave permission for the interview to be audio recorded. To protect the identity and confidentiality of the interviewees, each was assigned an anonymous identification letter ranging alphabetically from A to J. This letter is how specific interviewees were referenced during the data analysis, the presentation of the findings, and results. Interviews took place between February 26, 2018 and March 12, 2018. The average interview took 35 minutes.

The researcher conducting this study utilized Rubin and Rubin's (1995) stages of interviewing to guide each interview session. The researcher began the interview with informal conversation to established rapport with the interviewee. The researcher spent time tactfully reassuring the interviewee of his competence as a coach of female athletes and the researcher's interest in responses to the interview questions. To encourage the interviewee to be frank and open, the researcher tried to demonstrate understanding of factual content and empathy with emotional undertones. The researcher concluded the

interviews by expressing appreciation for each participant's time and assurance of confidentiality of identity.

Data Analysis and Synthesis

When approaching qualitative data interpretation, Stein and Mankowski (2004) stated:

> Our job as researchers is to make sense of the collective experience of participants. We draw upon our subjectivity and understanding of our relationship with research participants to conceptualize the meaning of what they have and have not told us. (pp. 24-25)

After each interview the researcher transcribed the audio to text by listening to the recording and prepared a written summary. The researcher then listened to the audio file again and reviewed the transcript to correct grammar, and correct formatting of the interview summary. Once final draft transcriptions were available, the researcher emailed each interviewee the interview transcript and asked for any corrections, clarifications, or omissions to be provided within one week. Once responses were received or the response deadline passed, the researcher added a narrative analysis by reviewing the transcripts with the audio recordings to note what participants did not say, but implied with hesitations, interruptions, strong reactions to statements, reflection, agreements, or disagreements through tone. These notes were added in the text and highlighted to indicate that they were the observations of the researcher and not part of the interviewees' audio response.

The next phases of analysis involved Rubin and Rubin's (1995) approach to qualitative interview data analysis by recognizing concepts, hearing stories, hearing

themes, coding, and creating overarching themes. By picking out frequently used words and phrases, the researcher took note of reoccurring vocabulary to identify initial key concepts. When the concepts were located inside stories the researcher looked for underlying experiences common to multiple interviewees. These experiences were grouped with the concepts they related to or were used to identify new concepts. Once the researcher was satisfied that all concepts had been identified, they were grouped to form themes. With the concepts, experiences, and themes identified, the researcher grouped similar ideas into categories for coding. The coding categories allowed the researcher to refine concepts, compare themes, and piece together events and narratives to evaluate for similarities and contradictions.

Reliability and Trustworthiness

To ensure reliability the researcher used five strategies: 1) conducted a pilot interview, 2) used member checking by having participants review the interview transcript, 3) created a narrative analysis, 4) conducted a second member checking by having participants review the draft of the findings, and 5) explicated the procedures. To achieve reliability, the instrument must be thoughtfully constructed and analyzed by those with knowledge of the phenomenon being studied. Merriam and Tisdell (2015) suggested, "A ruthless review of the research questions to weed out poor ones. A pilot interview can assist in this process" (p. 122). Following this recommendation, the researcher conducted one pilot interview comprised of three male coaches of female athletes who were not selected to participate in the interviews/ data collection portion of the study. During the pilot interview the participants reviewed the interview questions, supplied potential responses, and suggested follow up probes to gain deeper, broader, and

more informative responses. The feedback from the pilot interview did not require any

changes be made to the interview questions. However, the pilot interview participants

provided suggestions on phrasing of demographic questions: 1) include the National

Junior College Athletics Association (NJCAA) as a possible affiliate institution, 2) only

ask what division the participant's team competes at if the participant has not disclosed it

in a previous response as it could be perceived as belittling and offensive, 3) keep in

mind that the NJCAA has only division I & III and that the NAIA only has divisions in

basketball which are I & II. The pilot interview participants recommended that the

interviewer sound knowledgeable in these distinctions in order to come across as

creditable to the participants. The pilot interview group suggested several prompts in the

event that a participant did not give a detailed response for an interview question:

1. RQ2, IQ2: "You might need to clarify that these are past experiences. They might

   not have felt discrimination at the time, but looking back later they might believe

   it occurred."

2. RQ2, IQ3: "The Head Athletic Director rarely participates in the search process.

   Consider letting them tell you about their experiences with the Assistant Athletic

   Directors. People in these positions usually lead searches and have influence in

   hiring decisions."

3. RQ5: IQ1: "Coaches will think of different situations. You can offer prompts

   such as: in-person-public, private conversations in the office, over the phone, and

   social media."

Creswell (2013) described member checking as, "the researcher takes back parts

of the polished or semi-polished product, such as the major findings…and provides an

opportunity for [the interviewees] to comment on the findings" (pp. 201-202). After data were collected and analyzed, the participants were emailed a draft of the findings. Participants were allowed one week to contact the researcher to communicate comments. After the week for participants to respond to the member check passed, participants were emailed a thank you. By doing this the researcher ensured the authenticity of the data (Creswell & Miller, 2000).

Silverman (2001) explained the need for narrative analysis when he pointed out, "Even when people's activities are audio or video recorded and transcribed, the reliability of the interpretation of transcripts may be gravely weakened by a failure to note apparently trivial, but often crucial, pauses, overlaps, or body movements" (p.33). To avoid this failure, the researcher developed a narrative analysis for each interview which was added within the transcript. At points in the interview where the interviewee employed a laugh, pause, or unusual noise, a description of the noise was written into the transcript and highlighted in purple to differentiate it from the dialogue and to indicate it was an observation by the researcher. If the interviewee displayed a unique tone (i.e. loud speech, quiet speech, stressed phrasing for emphasis, or responded with sarcasm) it was likewise noted within the transcript and highlighted in green.

Kvale (1996) shared *Explication of Procedures* as a way of checking the reliability of coding. He explained, "The researcher presents examples of the material used for the interpretations and explicitly outlines the different steps of the analysis process [to readers or auditors]. The readers could then retrace and check the steps of the analysis" (p. 209). The researcher engaged two professionals who served as coding auditors to review and critique the coding and interpretation of the data. These

individuals had professional experience in qualitative research, but were unconnected to the current study. The researcher presented the auditors with the transcripts, explained her method of coding, and the resulting themes. Auditors 1 and 2 agreed that the researcher was thorough and efficient during the coding process, that the coding report was a truthful and reliable interpretation of the data, and that the two themes accurately reflected what the data showed as the lived experience of male coaches of female college athletes.

Researcher's Role

Maxwell (1996) stated:

> Traditionally, what you bring to the research from your background and identity has been treated as *bias,* something whose influence needs to be eliminated from the design, rather than a valuable component of it. This has been trying to some extent even in qualitative research, where it has long been recognized that the researcher *is* the instrument of the research. However, separating your research from other aspects of your life cuts you off from a major source of insights, hypotheses, and validity checks. (pp. 27-28)

Although the insights gained because of personal background and experiences are important, it is essential for the researcher to recognize and acknowledge biases that could affect the trustworthiness of the study results. The researcher's husband is a male coach of college female athletes. The researcher's husband qualifies as a potential interviewee. Even though he was not interviewed for the current study, the researcher's knowledge of his experiences as a male coach of female athletes could have influenced the interview process. However, due to this relationship, the researcher had unique and

valuable insights which allowed successful recruitment of participants and effective communication with them. "No matter how strong the identification with participants, or how seemingly mutual the research goals, the ultimate authority of interpretation of research material is with the researcher" (Stein & Mankowski, 2004, p. 26). The researcher exercised this authority with care, diligence, and mindful reading of the data to ensure transcriptions of interviews were interpreted with integrity.

Limitations

"Limitations are factors that may have an effect on the interpretation of the findings" (Lunenburg & Irby, 2008, p. 133). A limitation of semi-structured interviews with male participants was addressed by Affleck, Glass and Macdonald (2013):

> It is likely that the level of emotional discussion required by a long interview may be uncomfortable and perhaps intimidating for some men. There is a danger that using research methods that rely solely on verbal articulation may result in a lack of accurate data on these participants' emotional experience, and dissuade some men from participating who maybe with the prospect of discussing their emotional experiences at length. (p.157)

These concerns exacerbate the other limitations and prevalent issues of interview data collection. Data in the current study were limited to the shared perspectives of the interviewees. This means that the accuracy of the data was dependent on the interviewees understanding the intention of the questions and that they were honest, thorough, and articulate in their responses. All participants may have had biases which may have resulted in overstating, understating, or omitting information.

Summary

This qualitative research study used a phenomenological method that included semi-structured interviews with participants selected from purposive, criterion, and snowball sampling. Data were collected through phone interviews with participants followed by transcription of each audio recorded interview by the researcher. The researcher used member checking by asking participants to review their interview transcript. Codes and themes were determined and the analyses were verified by having two individuals not directly involved with data collection verify codes and themes that emerged from participant responses. Member checking was accomplished by asking participants to review a draft of the study findings. This chapter summarized the methodology of the study including the research design, sampling procedures, instruments, data collection procedures, data analysis, reliability and trustworthiness, researcher's role, and limitations of the study. Chapter 4 presents the results of the data analysis and synthesis.

Chapter 4

Results

The purpose of this study was to investigate the experiences of male coaches of female college athletes. The researcher sought to investigate common life events prior to a coaching career that lead males to coach female athletes, common perceptions male coaches have of the hiring process for a position as a coach of female athletes, approaches to the physical training of female athletes, approaches to the social and emotional characteristics of female athletes, social and physical boundaries that guide male coaches of female athletes, and perceptions of male coaches related to why more males than females coach female athletes. The researcher collected data from 10 current college coaches of exclusively female teams. Each participant was assigned an anonymous identification code letter (e.g. A, B, etc.) to ensure confidentiality. Table 4 displays the sport each participant coached, the institution's athletic affiliation, and the division in which the team competed.

Table 4

Participants' 2017-2018 Coaching Position

Participant	Sport	Affiliation	Division
A	Soccer	NCAA	I
B	Softball	NAIA	II
C	Soccer	NJCAA	I
D	Basketball	NAIA	II
E	Soccer	NCAA	I
F	Soccer	NCAA	I
G	Soccer	NJCAA	I
H	Softball	NCAA	I
I	Soccer	NJCAA	I
J	Soccer	NCAA	I

Note. NCAA = National Collegiate Athletic Association; NAIA = National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics; NJCCC = National Junior College Athletic Association.

Through data collection it was determined that all of the interviewees participated in sports during their childhood, attended a higher education institution, participated as a college athlete, and earned an associates or bachelor's degree. Two themes emerged from the lived experiences of male coaches of female college athletes: securing a career within women's college athletics, and maintaining a career within college women's athletics.

Securing a Career within the Competitive Field of Athletics

Each of the participants had a unique journey from playing sports as a youth to a position as a college coach. However, the researcher identified shared experiences, which explained why and how the participants secured careers coaching female athletes. These commonalities were divided into seven subthemes: the desire to have a profession

in sports, the presence of more opportunities in women's sports, having connections within the profession, the existence of informal interview processes, the dominance of males among hiring administration, the perception that women do not want to coach, and the physical training of female athletes. The subthemes explained the common desire for the participants to have a career in sports and the advantages of being a male in the profession of athletics.

Desire to have a profession in sports. In responding to interview questions pertaining to RQ1, six of the participants indicated they enjoyed sports and that coaching provided a way for them to remain in athletics. Participant C stated,

> As opposed to women, more men want to play and they want to coach because
> they want to stay in the game. I really wanted to stay close to the game and the
> best way to do that is to probably coach.

Several of the participants expressed that through self-evaluation they did not believe they had the physical talent to play professionally which made coaching a viable option. Participant J explained, "I think for me it was that I loved the sport. I enjoyed my time as an athlete, but I knew there was a ceiling regarding what I could do athletically." Similarly, Participant A shared, "I just loved playing soccer and then when it became evident that there were better players I kind of moved to the sidelines. I just love doing that too." However, not all of the participants were unable to play professionally. Participants F and H played for professional teams, but chose coaching because of the low salaries of professional athletes. Participant H described, "I was getting paid to play fast-pitch softball, but it wasn't paying me enough to pay for my whole life." Participant F shared a similar view, "If you're not in the MLS it's not going to pay as much money

as one would hope. So I took a position as the women's assistant of the women's pro-team." Coaching provided a career path in athletics that accommodated those without the inclination or ability to play professionally as well as an alternative for professional athletes desiring higher pay.

   Presence of more opportunities in women's sports. Responses to interview questions that addressed RQ1 were offered by eight participants who expressed that women's sports had more available coaching positions than the men's side with fewer professionals applying for them. When asked, "What opportunities or events led you toward coaching women?", seven participants responded that coaching women was a quicker way to begin a coaching career with greater likelihood of obtaining future positions in higher athletic divisions. Participant A stated, "As women's sports gained traction, the jobs became more attractive to men and certainly the atmosphere in men's sports is so hyper competitive, that there's probably bleed over." Participant I described the potential for faster advancement, "I do think that you can jump or go up the ladder faster on the women's side, because a lot of males are hesitant to coach females." Even though some male coaches may be hesitant, male coaches have the advantage in that it is more common for men to coach women than for women to coach men. Participant A explained this advantage, "It essentially doubles the job opportunities by being willing to coach either side." A willingness to coach both males and females allowed some participants to take advantage of connections in the profession when opportunities for advancement were presented.

Connections within the profession. Data collected to address RQ2 included

seven participants who shared that a direct or personal contact contributed to obtaining a

position as a coach. Participant J related how a direct contact contributed to his career:

> So when I told him (previous supervisor) I was leaving he said "you know what,
>
> I'm ready to do that (start a family) so why don't you maybe take one program
>
> and I take one program." So he suggested me to take the women and he was
>
> gonna take the men. That's what happened and then I was coaching women.

Four participants shared that an indirect or second party contact contributed to obtaining

a position as a coach. Participant G shared, "The first job I had, I knew the guy because

he used to compete at XYZ, as well. So, I got referred by a former coach. My former

coach also referred me for my second job." Connections and networking are important in

many careers and appear to be particularly valuable to college athletic coaches.

Existence of informal interview processes. In response to questions related to

RQ2, two participants reported having only informal interviews during the hiring process,

four participants reported having only formal interviews, and four participants reported

having both. It is interesting to note that in most cases the informal interview experiences

were for first time coaching positions and/or institutions affiliated with the NAIA or

NJCAA. For two participants, gaining a coaching position was about being at the right

place at the right time. Participant D shared,

> The applying process for me was verbally expressing my interest to coach. When
>
> I became an assistant, basically my application was that previous year as a student
>
> assistant. The head coach hired me as her assistant coach prior to graduating my

senior year. A year later the head coach stepped down and promoted me as the

head women's coach so I didn't officially apply for the job.

Participant B had a similar experience, "I really didn't have to go through any application

process. It was him [athletic director] walking down saying, 'Hey, do you want to do

this?' I told him, 'Yes.' That was my interview." For Participant E, an informal interview

was the result of networking, "I had gone for the junior college position where I had

some informal conversations at a soccer coaches' convention as a way of applying for it.

The position wasn't posted - I just kind of found out about it though the men's coach." In

the case of Participant G, he was ready for a change and the institution did not want him

to leave. These examples demonstrated that for a variety of reasons there appears to be a

trend of informal interviews for women's college athletics coaching positions.

Dominance of males among hiring administration. Five participants reported

that they had never interviewed with a female athletic director, in response to questions

related to RQ2. Two of the participants shared they thought the lack of female athletic

directors might have had a positive impact on the number of male coaches being hired to

coach female athletes. Participant C shared, "All of my interviews have been conducted

by men. In terms of my own journey more males have held administrative positions so

that might play a part in it." Participant J commented, "I think people hire what they

know. So if you are male, you are going to hire a buddy, someone you know, which kind

of keeps the trend going." However, if there are fewer women applying for coaching

positions that is beyond the control of the hiring administration.

Perception that women do not want to coach. Five participants stated in the responses to questions related to RQ6 they believed women do not want to pursue coaching as a career. Participant E suggested it could be due to women having greater academic ambitions:

> The academic areas I've seen, if I had to generalize, are more rigorous and maybe make sense. Many of them are going into pharmacy, physical therapy, and medical school. These are more lucrative than coaching. I was a men's coach for six years. During that time I don't think I saw a single guy apply to medical school.

Participant B shared the thoughts of one of his former female student assistants, "An assistant told me, females a lot of times play a sport, but guys will play and study the sport." Studying the sport could include watching professional games and watching film of previous team games during an athlete's spare time. Several participants mentioned that it is less common to see female athletes engage in this behavior compared to males. Participant I observed that women don't want to coach because they themselves would not want to be coached by a woman, "I know a lot of female athletes and they have said that they would not play for a female coach. Now, I've never heard a female athlete say that they would never play for a male." Participant A stated that if women experienced being coached by females it could lead to more women desiring to be coaches, "I think the more women who coach, the more women will want to coach." Participant B stated that he believes when women athletes are taken more seriously, more female athletes will want to coach. He explained, "We're [male coaches] trying to get them into that

[coaching], but I think as you see the sport continue to grow, female coaches will want to stay around it."

The physical training of female athletes. Due to the utilization of strength and conditioning coaching, technology that can measure physical exertion, and the more widely accepted norm of coaching women more similarly to men, male coaches are facing fewer obstacles in obtaining positions coaching women. In responses to questions related to RQ3, seven participants expressed they push female athletes the same as male athletes, but make adjustments for running times and weight lifting requirements. Five participants stated their teams utilize a strength and conditioning coach who oversees most physical training. The current trend in the profession of coaching is to split the responsibility of physical training between the head coach and the strength and conditioning coach. When asked about the physical training of female athletes compared to male athletes, participants described similarities in their approach. Participant H expressed the views of study participants regarding expecting student athletes to performing at the highest level when he stated, "It's the same stuff I do. So it doesn't change. I don't believe in changing what they do. I teach them at the highest level I've learned and then hold them to that." Participant F suggested there were no differences in coaching males and females. Participant D indicated game requirements are similar, "There's really not too much difference now. The lengths of our games are the same, the court size is the same, the three-point line is the same, and the shot-clock is now the same." Participant E focused on heart rate and stated, "We have heart-rate monitoring and a GPA system. That stuff can tell you what they are doing. That's regardless of gender, that's going to tell you what the athlete that is wearing the device is doing."

Coaches also identified a few differences as they reflected on coaching male versus female athletes. Participant B described time and weight requirement differences when he said,

> We are going to push them as much physically, just like we would a guy. The weight might be different, the timings might be different on sprint works, and stuff like that, so we make that adjustment, but if you are going to play college athletics, you're an athlete.

Speed of play was also mentioned as a difference. Participant I said, "When I go over to the men's side and coach the speed of play is just much faster, the reactions are quicker, it's a big difference." Participant J described differences in types of injuries common to male versus female athletes,

> The common thread for female athletes is ACL tears. For males it is a lot of hamstring and groin. When women are on their period, they are most likely to tear their ACL. So having a female trainer who cannot-so-subtlety tell me, 'Hey, this needs to be a light load week, given where they are.' It's helpful.

Physical size was also an area coaches commented upon that they perceived differs between male and female athletes. Participant C said,

> It's not realistic for me to expect our female athletes to be as powerful or to be able to create as much force. On average they are going to be a smaller athlete, but I think that the way I treat them in the parts of the physical game is very similar.

Most study participants indicated that as long as athletes are pushing themselves physically as far as they are able, the gender of the athlete is immaterial.

Maintaining a Career within College Women's Athletics

While each of the participants had a unique journey during professional careers, a second theme that emerged from the interview responses focused on maintaining a career within women's college athletics. Six subthemes within this theme were identified: discrimination against male coaches, affirmative action for female coaches, the emotional characteristics of female athletes, the social and physical boundaries observed by male coaches, low salaries and funding for women's sports, and the increased popularity and pressure in women's sports. Within the maintaining career theme, being male had a negative impact on the participants' ability to maintain their position and advance in their field.

Discrimination against male coaches. Four participants reported in the responses to questions related to RQ2, they had experienced discrimination as a male candidate during the hiring process. Participant H had personal experience with discrimination:

> I came in and took over a program because the head coach was pregnant and going to retire. We started doing really well, but the SWA (senior women's assistant) pulled me in and told me, 'We'll put you in the candidate pool, but we are not hiring a guy so you can do what you want.'

Participant B witnessed discrimination experiences by a former male assistant,

> I literally had one of my former graduate assistants who was applying for a job at a DII school. Their AD told me, "You know, on-the-record- off-the-record they are basically going to hire a female coach.".

Participant J shared that hiring committees are being influenced to give greater consideration to female candidates:

> At my previous institution, where resumes come across the desk and you are part of a research committee and you kind of see, 'this person is a female, we are gonna give her the benefit of the doubt.' Where a man doesn't really get that.

Participant F explained that this pressure to hire a female coach might be coming from the NCAA:

> I know that the NCAA, from my understanding is that it's kind of a one of three categories. They have to check the boxes and one of them is being a minority and one of them is being a woman and I would say the third is, that if they are going to be like themselves, a Caucasian male, they would have to be almost over qualified.

Some participants felt that it was less of a matter of discrimination against men, and more of a matter of affirmative action for female coaches.

Affirmative action for female coaches. Six participants reported in the responses to questions related to RQ2, they had witnessed affirmative action in the hiring process for women. Participant A stated, "Part of the problem in our profession is that women have been promoted before they are ready at times and that leads to them failing or hating it and getting out." Participant F gave an example of a time he saw this happen:

> I was not called into a final interview to interview on-campus. They ended up going with the assistant coach who had just been hired in August for her first time as a college coach. This job came open in January. The program dropped from being the top 16 in the country. The following year she was relieved of her duties.

I think they want to have more females coaching women so the fact that she was

well underqualified comparatively to the candidates that had put in for the job was

pretty obvious.

Participant A described a job position that was only available for female applicants,

"There was a position at ABC State that was on a NCAA grant and they weren't going to

hire a male. It was listed as a woman and/or minority position." Other participants had

experienced affirmative action for females in more subtle ways. Participant G shared:

So I went to the interview and the head coach already had a male assistant and he

had already interviewed someone else. I believe it was a female because after

they told me that the reason that maybe they didn't hire me was he needed a

female on the coaching staff.

On the other hand, Participant B identified with the mindset of some programs to hire

females, "I look for a female so they can relate to their players." Likewise, Participant E

indicated, "I guess you could say 'consideration' of females, so I don't think this is a

discrimination point, I think it was a matter of us being attentive to that gender."

Regardless of whether or not the participants felt affirmative action for females was

positive or negative, this was a factor they felt existed in their profession.

Emotional characteristics of female athletes. During the RQ4 responses, three

participants utilized a quote, "Female athletes don't care how much you know, until they

know how much you care." The importance that female athletes place on 'care' affects

the way male coaches address the emotional characteristics of athletes in many ways.

The three most prevalent emotional characteristics discussed during the interviews were

team chemistry, emotions' interference with athletic performance, and low self-confidence.

Six participants mentioned team chemistry and team relationships as essential to a successful female team. Participant A stated, "I think chemistry is important. I do think we focus more on team chemistry than maybe we would have if we were coaching a men's team." Participant C supported the importance of team bonding based upon survey results:

> The social aspect is critical. When we quiz our players at the end of their career here, you know we ask them to kind of summarize their experience with the things they really enjoyed. It's in the 90% that our players' number one enjoyment of their college soccer team experience is their teammates.

Participant J explained that team bonding and relationships can manifest in positive ways, such as in teammate support, "They want to be a part of something bigger than themselves. Like if something happens to a player, how fast they are all there to support that person."

Seven participants mentioned negative emotions can have a negative effect on individual and team performance. Participant D stated, "Their emotions are going to be based on maybe how the coach is doing, maybe how their roommate is doing, maybe how the team is doing." Participant F explained that these team or non-team related issues, "Can weigh heavier, on an individual, on their emotions and their ability to show-up and get to work like nothing is wrong." Participant B gave the example, "With men, whether grandma or grandpa is going into surgery, they're just going to practice. Where our players are going to be like, 'Coach, my grandma is going into surgery today, do you

mind if I check my phone once in a while to see if my mom or dad text me or leaves a message so I can find out how my grandma is doing?'" Participant F gave another example of situations unique to female athletes:

> I have dealt more with depression, sexual harassment, and sexual assault. Those are some of the issues I have dealt with that are probably different. I would say maybe not different because I know they happen to boys and men, as well, but I would say it is probably more evident.

Most participants viewed a tendency to worry about off-field stress, sexual violence, and mental health issues as neutral aspects of coaching women. The most common negative aspect of emotional characteristics shared by the participants was female athletes' tendency to hold on to negative experiences. Participant G noted, "They might be doing what I told them to do, but once they are off the field they might be mad at each other. Girls are just different. When something happens, they will keep it." Participant B agreed, "Women have a tendency to drag things that happened two to three years ago into the mix." The participants found this tendency unique to females and not witnessed as much with male athletes. Participant H was an outlier in this study. He stated:

> It's [emotions] only an issue if you let it be an issue. Our biggest thing is we don't bring emotions on the field. That's when they become true athletes. It's just like work, it doesn't matter if you are a man or a woman, if you bring your emotions to work, the boss is gonna get after you. We just try to get them ready for life.

> Five participants reported that females struggle with self-confidence manifesting in hesitancy to critique teammates, compete with teammates, and taking constructive criticism. Participant D addressed teammate critiques:

They struggle with challenging their teammates a little bit more. Like, constructive criticism. They struggle with giving it and at times struggle with receiving it. They take things a little personal at times, more than they should. That's probably the main area that I feel female athletes struggle with.

Participant I believed the inability to speak up could have negative ramifications on leadership within the team, "It's one of those things of being able to speak up and speak out. A lot of them don't seem to have those tools." Participant H believed the potential for embarrassment was a contributing factor:

It's the first barrier to break down. The issue of feeling embarrassed in front of each other, because it's a higher chance in the women's sports side than in the males' sports. Because they worry about how they look in front of the other team mates.

Concerns of self-confidence pertained not only to how female athletes relate to their teammates, but to how they relate to their coaches. Participant I explained the importance of understanding how female athletes will take criticism, even if they ask for it, "Lots of them tell you that they want to be coached-up, but you definitely have to have that open-door relationship with them so that they know exactly where you are coming from." He gave an example:

Sally is not doing a great job, she's not playing very well. I get after Sally to tell her to step it up or whatever. Now her best friend, Stephanie, she's pissed off at me too. Now on the guys side I'm after David cause he's not playing well. His best friend isn't mad at me at all. He's thinking, 'Sweet! Now I can get David's position maybe or get more playing time.'

Participant A echoed the issue of women supporting each other to the point of not wanting to compete with one another, "I think we just have to manage the competitive side with the women a bit more and let them know that competing is ok. You know, you're not making somebody look bad, you're doing your job."

Social and physical boundaries observed by male coaches. The most common responses to social and physical boundaries pertained to physical touch, one-on-one meetings, keeping the relationship professional with their athletes, and social media. In responses to questions related to RQ5, nine participants addressed physical touch as being limited to short side-hugs, high fives, or no physical contact at all. Participant A explained a physical interaction difference when coaching female vs male athletes, "When you're congratulating a player and they come off the field, on the guys side you're gonna slap'em on the butt, obviously you are not going to do that with a woman." Participant B pointed out that it isn't just the athletes that a coach must be aware of, "Even how I hug them, where my hands are, because that person might be perfectly comfortable, but I don't want someone from the side going, 'Wow, that coach looks like he was getting pretty handsy.' Physical boundaries are not limited to touch. Participant I described how male coaches must be proactive in preventing what they see. At a recruiting event a group of coaches had to stop watching a team. They were considering giving some of the players scholarships, but because the team decided to practice in sports bras the whole group of coaches had to leave the field. Participant B acknowledged that these boundaries are necessary, but can be frustrating at times:

> You want to be able to have the ability to put your hand on somebody's back or around their shoulder or whatever, but you have to be careful when genders are

mixed. It's less of an issue when the age gap gets big, which is kind of a nice thing.

Eight participants stated they do not permit their players to meet with them alone at any time. Participant D stated, "We are very conscious when it comes to females being in our office and so I would say a boundary is being alone." When coaching women, the participants agreed that an open-door policy needs to be both figurative and literal. Participant A shared, "We typically don't meet one-on-one. If I do, the door is wide open." Participant H expressed the importance of having multiple staff present at all times, "Our doors are always open, and we always have more than one person around for conversations." Participant I explained that when athletes ask for meetings coaches have to be consistent to protect everyone:

> There are so many times that girls have come to me and they say, 'Hey, I really
> need to talk.' I'm gonna get my assistant. I have to have her next to me at all
> times when I'm having conversations with the girls because they will tell me
> some stuff.

This desire for female athletes to discuss personal issues with their coach has led some participants to place firm boundaries on appropriate areas for discussions. Participant J shared:

> My players know that you don't talk to me about what you did Friday night. A lot
> of players for some reason want that relationship, they want to be able to sit back
> and talk about that stuff, especially being male, it's a slippery slope.

These boundaries don't only pertain to one-on-one conversations, but to group social interactions. Participant F explained, "Where girls can get comfortable talking about

things with each other, we kind of have to monitor some of those conversations. Those might make me, as a coach uncomfortable."

Four participants discussed social media use as an area of concern for their athletes. Participant A stated, "I can tell ya when we see social media pictures up that are uncomfortable, whether it's too revealing, sexual or whatever it becomes a difficult thing. I don't know that we have that battle with guys." Participant B pointed out, "We have to watch very closely the way that the girls are representing themselves and also as a representative of the institution." Participant C described how these conversations could be used to address issues of self-respect, "I try to turn the conversation, not to 'you're making XYZ college look bad, neither are you making me look bad, but what kind of display of self-resect is that?"

Low salaries and funding for women's sports. In response to questions related to RQ6, three participants spoke about low salary for coaches of women's sports. Participant A described the entry salary for coaches:

> I think the amount of time required for the job and the amount of pay coming out of school, it's low. I started working at $14,000 for three years. When that first job offer came in, the head coach said, 'None of my girls are interested in working for that amount of money'. I think a willingness to do the amount of work required for that little amount of money. Maybe it doesn't track with expectations.

Participant C gave a possible reason for this higher expectation for pay, "Socio-economic class of soccer players in America is upper-middle. This means women don't want to pursue coaching as it is a low paying position." Low funding for women's sports and the

resulting low salaries for coaches could be a deterrent for women to enter and remain in coaching.

Increased popularity and pressure in women's sports. The responses to questions related to RQ6 explained why the participants felt women weren't entering or remaining in the career of college coaching. Data collected from these responses demonstrated the increased strain on coaches: programs and teams are being cut due to institutional budget restraints, a lack of wins is increasingly leading to coaches being fired, minimal to no team budget increases, an increase in number of hours of work required to be successful, and a feeling that work-life balance is nearly impossible to obtain.

Title IX led to the creation of more women's teams which created more opportunities for female athletes and more coaching positions. The increase in the popularity of women's sports led to an increase in the pressure to win, resulting in a decrease in work-life balance for coaches of women's teams. Participant J summarized:

I think the reason people are leaving the profession is because of where college athletics is going in general. I think it is a male and female issue. A lot of them are leaving the profession because the jobs aren't super stable.

Participant H explained the perceived instability, "It used to be that if a women's team didn't win, you weren't getting fired, now if you don't win we're getting fired." Participant J expounded:

I got offered a professional soccer club job. I would be making more money and it's way more stable. Why would I want to go to the college environment where now there's unrealistic pressure to win immediately? I was at one institution

where if you didn't win, the AD was in your office Monday morning asking,

'What is going on?'

Eight participants shared that the number of weekly work hours, practices/games on

nights and weekends, and amount of time a coach must spend recruiting new athletes

make coaching a difficult career for anyone with children. Participant A commented:

I think that even though we try to pretend that social pressures aren't there, I think

the pressure for women to raise families and spend time with families and be at

home is greater than it is on men. It's hard to do this job and be a parent who is

there all the time.

Perhaps it is not as simple as women deciding not to work after having children, but it has

more to do with the excessive time and unusual hours required of college coaches.

Participant H shared:

I was supposed to take over for a head coach who was pregnant. She absolutely

loved to coach. I've seen a lot of the female coaches, once it's time for a family

they completely leave coaching because it takes up your whole life. I've seen

more women get out and say, 'I'm gonna go take care of my family. I'm not

gonna spend 80 hours a week with a softball team. There's no point.

Participant E suggested that better funding of women's sports could encourage women to

remain in coaching and help restore work-life balance for all college coaches:

If a women's team had the same funding as men it might make the position more

realistic for women who want to be with their families. For example, a well-

funded team could fly out Thursday night for a Friday game and be back that

night or next day. A low funded team will have to leave Wednesday night for a

Friday game and won't return until Sunday. That makes a big difference to the

coach and their families. Title IX is very real and it has led to the addition of

women's sports, but is the funding of women's sports possibly an inhibitor toward

women staying in the game?

Summary

The purpose of this study was to investigate the experiences of male coaches of

female college athletes. The researcher collected data from 10 current college coaches of

exclusively female teams. Two themes emerged from the lived experiences of male

coaches of female college athletes. The first theme, securing a career within the

competitive field of athletics was supported by seven subthemes. The second theme,

maintaining a career within college women's athletics, was supported by six subthemes.

Chapter 4 provided a summary of the results of the data. Chapter 5 provides a summary

of the study, findings related to the literature, and conclusions.

Chapter 5

Interpretation and Recommendations

This chapter begins with a summary of the study. The major findings from the current

study related to the literature will be summarized. The chapter concludes with

implications for action, recommendations for future research, and concluding remarks.

Study Summary

This section provides a summary of the study including an overview of the

problem. The purpose statement and research questions utilized in the study are

identified. This section concludes with a review of the methodology and the major

findings.

Overview of the problem. The NCAA (2017) reported there were 179,179

female athletes in their affiliated institutions and that 57% of these athletes are coached

by men. Higher education institutions are hiring more male than female male coaches for

female athletes (NCAA, 2017). Limited research currently exists on the unique situations

facing male coaches of female athletes. The motivations that lead males to decide to

coach females and their experiences during the hiring process are important for higher

education leaders to comprehend. Hiring process design and candidate selection rubrics

can be improved with a broader understanding of candidates' perspectives.

Administrators are responsible for the professional development and performance review

of their coaches. By educating themselves on the philosophy of male coaches regarding

the physical training and the social emotional dynamics of female athletes and teams,

administrators could be more impactful in their supervisory role. For the protection of the

programs, coaches, and students it is important for higher education leaders to be familiar

with the social and physical boundaries male coaches utilize when working with female athletes.

Purpose statement and research questions. The focus of this study was to investigate the experiences of male coaches of female college athletes. The study was based on six purposes. The first purpose was to identify the common life events prior to a coaching career and the personal motivations that led males to coach female athletes. The second purpose was to identify the common experiences male coaches had during the hiring process for a position as a coach of female athletes. The third purpose was to discover the philosophies that guide male coaches in the physical training of female athletes. The fourth purpose was to discover the philosophies that guide male coaches in the social and emotional characteristics of female athletes. The fifth purpose was to identify perceptions of social and physical boundaries that guide male coaches of female athletes. The final purpose was to identify the perceptions of male coaches related to why more males than females coach female athletes. These six purposes were developed into the six research questions utilized in the study.

Review of the methodology. A qualitative phenomenological research design using semi-structured interviews was selected for this study. The 10 male participants who were interviewed at the time of this study were head or associate head coaches serving in a coaching position within an exclusively female college athletic team. A pilot group was used to review the interview protocol. The pilot group provided suggestions which are noted in Appendix A. Interviews of the 10 participants were conducted over the phone and audio recorded for transcription. Through member checking, each Participant was sent a copy of their transcript and given an opportunity to submit

corrections. Participant A was the only interviewee to submit corrections. The

corrections were spelling of names which were applied to the transcript, but as names

were not used in the results these corrections had no impact on the data. The researcher

developed a coding sheet to identify which responses where the most common for

questions related to each RQ. The codes (e.g. experienced male discrimination,

witnessed discrimination again other men) developed into ideas or subthemes (e.g.

discrimination against male coaches) which were categorized into either previous

experiences of entering the profession or the continuing experiences of maintaining a

career in the profession. Two coding auditors reviewed and approved the researchers

coding procedures. Both auditors agreed with the way the data were coded and the

structure of the findings. Participants were sent a draft of the findings and provided an

opportunity to reply with comments. Only two participants (A & B) responded and

neither of them offered corrections or additional statements. Participant B did share that

he found the results interesting and plans to utilize them in the coaching course he

teaches.

   Major findings. Two themes emerged from the lived experiences of male

coaches of female college athletes. The first theme, securing a career within the

competitive field of college athletics was supported by seven subthemes: the desire to

have a profession in sports, the presence of more opportunities in women's sports, having

connections within the profession, the existence of informal interview processes, the

dominance of males among hiring administration, the perception that women do not want

to coach, and the physical training of female athletes. The second theme, maintaining a

career within women's college athletics, was supported by six subthemes: the

discrimination against male coaches, affirmative action for female coaches, the emotional characteristics of female athletes, the social and physical boundaries observed by male coaches, low salaries and funding for women's sports, and the increased popularity and pressure in women's sports.

Findings Related to the Literature

This study expanded the body of knowledge related to the experience of male coaches of women's college athletic teams. This section demonstrates how previous studies are supported or unsupported by the findings of this study. Topics included within this section included: women entering and leaving the coaching profession, men entering and leaving the coaching profession, athletic department administration and hiring trends, reverse discrimination toward male coaches, psychosocial coaching approaches, physicality of female athletes, and male coach and female athlete interaction.

Women entering and leaving the coaching profession. Lough (2001) found that one of the reasons attributed to why fewer women are attempting to enter coaching as a profession is lack of mentorship from an early age. Moran-Miller and Flores (2011) found that the quality of female role models contributed significantly to coaching self-efficacy. These authors stated, "Career research has demonstrated that role models positively influence women's self-efficacy beliefs, especially those related to nontraditional careers" (p. 116). In the current study five participants stated reasons they believed women do not want to pursue coaching as a career. Two of these five participants specified that they believed a lack of role models was a contributing factor. Participant A stated that if women experienced being coached by females it could lead to more women desiring to be coaches, "I think the more women who coach, the more

women will want to coach." Participant B believed that as women athletes are taken more seriously, more females athletes will want to coach. He explained, "We're (male coaches) trying to get them into that (coaching), but I think as you see the sport continue to grow, female coaches will want to stay around it."

Kamphoff (2010) determined that once women gain head coaching positions at a higher education institution, they are less likely to remain in their position when compared to their male counterparts. Several contributing factors listed in Kamphoff's study were supported by the participants of this study:

1. Lack of adequate resources (e.g., budget, scholarship funding, support staff, and facilities). Participant E suggested that better funding of women's sports could encourage women to remain in coaching and help restore work-life balance for all college coaches.

2. Compensation and duties (e.g., low salaries for 'lower tier' sports). Participant A described the entry salary for coaches, "I think the amount of time required for the job and the amount of pay coming out of school, is low. I started working at $14,000 for three years."

3. Technical demands of coaching (e.g., 24/7 recruitment responsibilities, time commitments, and the pressure to win). Eight participants shared that the number of weekly work hours, practices/games on nights and weekends, and recruiting time requirement make coaching a difficult career for anyone with children. Participant H explained the increasing expectation to win, "It used to be that if a women's team didn't win, you weren't getting fired, now if you don't win we're getting fired."

Men entering and leaving the coaching profession. Blackshear (2016), in her semi-structured interviews, asked male coaches, 'Why do male coaches coach female athletes?' She divided the responses into three themes: experience, satisfaction, and opportunity:

1. Experience. Participants were able to gain experience with relative ease because opportunities were abundant due to coaches being in short supply (Blackshear, 2016). In the current study eight participants expressed that women's sports had more coaching positions coming available than the men's side with fewer professionals applying for them.

2. Satisfaction. Blackshear (2016) found male coaches of female athletes enjoyed the fun, developmental, nurturing, and caring environment they experienced coaching women versus male athletes who do not typically demonstrate the same level of concern for their teammates. In the current study six participants mentioned team chemistry and team relationships as essential to a successful female team. Participant J explained, "They want to be a part of something bigger than themselves. Like if something happens to a player, how fast they are all there to support that person."

3. Opportunity. In Blackshear's (2016) study, participants communicated, "While women are being hired at a much lower rate than men, they are actually more sought after for the positions" (p. 27) due to affirmative action. In the current study six participants reported they had witnessed affirmative action in the hiring process. Six participants were told that administration was actively seeking a female for an available coaching position. Additionally, six participants

acknowledged that male coaches have more opportunities to pursue coaching positions with female athletes due to the fact they generally have experience coaching both sexes, compared to female coaches who generally have limited coaching opportunities. Participant I described the potential for faster advancement, "I do think that you can jump or go up the ladder faster on the women's side, because a lot of males are hesitant to coach females." Even though some male coaches may be hesitant, male coaches have an advantage given that it is more common for men to coach women than for women to coach men. Participant A explained this advantage, "It essentially doubles the job opportunities by being willing to coach either side."

Athletic department administration and hiring trends. Diacin and Lim (2012) found three major themes which impacted female representation within intercollege athletic departments; work-family conflict, gender ideologies, and male dominated social networks. Diacin and Lim explained work-family conflict occurs when females assume the majority of domestic responsibilities making it difficult to fulfill occupational responsibilities which often require the employee to work evenings, weekends, holidays, and frequently travel. In the current study eight participants shared that the number of weekly work hours, practices/games on nights and weekends, and amount of time for recruitment activities make coaching a difficult career for anyone with children. Participant A commented, "It's hard to do this job and be a parent who is there all the time."

Diacin and Lim (2012) explained gender ideologies occur when positions are seen as more appropriate for either male employees or female employees. According to these

authors, women are perceived as care-givers, meaning they are more suited for areas in teaching, nursing, business office, marketing, communications, or academics. Data from the current study did not support this ideology as impacting female representation within intercollege athletics. However, data did support that male coaches perceive that women still feel pressure to leave coaching to be the primary care-giver for their children. Participant A stated, "I think that even though we try to pretend that social pressures aren't there, I think the pressure for women to raise families and spend time with families and be at home is greater than it is on men." Participant D stated:

"I would say women leave coaching mainly because of family and wanting to be mothers. That is the biggest reason why they female coaches I have known that have left coaching is to be with their kids, be at home to raise their family."

Participate H stated:

I've seen more women get out and say, 'I'm gonna go take care of my family, I'm not gonna spend 80 hours a week with a softball team, there's no point.' College sports have more pressure and it's impossible to balance the two anymore.

Diacin and Lim (2012) described male dominated social networks as a 'good old boy club' mentality of white men choosing their 'buddies' for positions. This attitude keeps the status quo from allowing access to women. In the current study five participants reported that they had never interviewed with a female athletic director. Two of the participants shared that they thought this might have a positive impact on the number of male coaches being hired to coach female athletes. Participant C shared, "All

of my interviews have been conducted by men. In terms of my own journey more males have held administrative positions so that might play a part in it."

Reverse discrimination toward male coaches. In *Andrew Medcalf v. The Trustees of University of Pennsylvania* (2011), Andrew Medcalf sued the University of Pennsylvania, claiming the decision to not hire him for a women's crew coaching position constituted sex discrimination in violation of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. The jury found in favor of Medcalf and he was awarded $115,000 (Grossman, 2001). Four participants in the current study reported they had been victims of discrimination as a male candidate during the hiring process for the coach of a female team.

Psychosocial coaching approaches. Philippe and Seiler (2006) found that athletes placed great importance in maintaining good relationships with their coaches. Three of the participants in the current study utilized a quote, "Female athletes don't care how much you know, until they know how much you care." The importance that female athletes place on 'care' affected male coaches' approach to addressing the emotional characteristics of their athletes in a number of ways. Participant D stated, "Their emotions are going to be based on maybe how the coach is doing." Amidon (2016) shared that embarrassing or degrading a female athlete in front of her teammates is an unsuccessful strategy. It does not motivate her to improve. In the current study Participant H noted that he believed the potential for embarrassment was of great concern for female athletes:

> It's the first barrier to break down. The issue of feeling embarrassed in front of
> each other, because it's a higher chance in the women's sports side than in the

males sports. Because they worry about how they look in front of the other team

mates.

Gilbert (2016) observed that when it comes to building relationships, men prefer to

engage in physical activity, while women are more comfortable bonding through talking

and sharing stories. Participant A in the current study stated, "I think chemistry is

important. I do think we focus more on team chemistry than maybe we would have if we

were coaching a men's team." Participant C supported the importance of team bonding,

when he stated, "The social aspect is critical. It's in the 90% that our players' number one

enjoyment of their college soccer team experience is their teammates."

Physicality of female athletes. According to Cahn and O'Reilly (2012) the

physical potential of women athletes is still unknown. Gilbert (2016) stated, "All

athletes, regardless of gender, respond best when coaches set challenging, yet realistic,

training and performance goals and emphasize skill development and improvement" (p.

2). Seven participants in the current study expressed that they push their female athletes

the same way they would male athletes, but made adjustments for running times and

weight lifting requirements. Participant B stated:

> We are going to push them as much physically, just like we would a guy. The
>
> weight might be different, the timings might be different on sprint works, and
>
> stuff like that, so we make that adjustment, but if you are going to play college
>
> athletics, you're an athlete.

Male coach and female athlete interaction. Constantinesco (2015) quoted Dr. Cheri Toledo who identified three actions male coaches should consider when interacting with opposite sex student athletes to remain above reproach: no one-on-one situation, be transparent, and maintain appropriate physical contact.

1. No one-on-one situation. "Always have a third person (such as another coach) present, leave doors open, meet in open areas, never have a player stay at your house, and never drive a player anywhere alone" (Constantinesco, p. 3). Eight participants in the current study indicated they do not permit their players to meet with them alone at any time. Participant D stated, "We are very conscious when it comes to females being in our office and so I would say a boundary is being alone."

2. Be transparent. "Communication (email, text, etc.) should be sent to the whole team. Personal information should be shared with other coaches or parents. Keep practices in open areas" (Constantinesco, p. 3). In the current study, none of the participants listed transparency as a priority.

3. Appropriate physical contact. "Pat on the shoulder, not the butt. Give hugs from the side, not the front. Have other players demonstrate moves or touch the player to position them" (Constantinesco, p. 3). Nine participants in the current study addressed physical touch as being limited to short side-hugs, high fives, or no physical contact at all.

Conclusions

The findings from the current study were divided into two themes which indicated that male coaches of female athletes had similar experiences securing and maintaining a

career. The first theme, securing a career within the competitive field of athletics, found a common desire for the participants to have a career in sports and the advantages of being a male in the profession of athletics. These commonalities were divided into seven subthemes. In subtheme one, participants disclosed that coaching provided a career path in athletics for those who either did not have the physical talent to play sports professionally or they were not paid enough as a professional athlete. In subtheme two, participants expressed that women's sports had more available coaching positions than the men's side with fewer professionals applying for them. A willingness to coach both male and female athletes allowed participants a quicker way to begin a coaching career with greater likelihood of obtaining future positions in higher athletics divisions. In subtheme three, participants shared that a direct or personal contact contributed to their obtaining a position as a coach. Connections and networking are important in many careers and appear to be particularly valuable to college athletic coaches. In subtheme four, participants reported that for a variety of reasons there appears to be a trend of informal interviews for women's college athletics coaching positions. In subtheme five, five participants shared that they had never interviewed with a female athletics director and that two participants believed the lack of females in administrative positions might have had a positive impact on the number of male coaches being hired to coach female athletes. In subtheme six, participants responded females do not want to pursue a career in coaching due to a lack of desire to study sports, a lack of current female coaches as role models, and a belief that female sports are not taken as seriously as male sports. In subtheme seven, participants explained that female athletes have a slower rate-of-play, are smaller in size, have lower weight lifting requirements, and slower timed run

requirements than male athletes in similar sports and divisions. However, as long as the athletes are pushing themselves physically as far as they are able, the gender of the athlete did not matter.

The second theme, maintaining a career within college women's athletics, revealed that participants felt being a male made it difficult to maintain coaching positions and advance in their field. This theme was divided into six subthemes. In subtheme one, participants reported they experienced discrimination as a male candidate during the hiring process. However, participants also felt that it could be less a matter of discrimination against men, and more of an issue of affirmative action for female coaches. In subtheme two, participants expressed that they had witnessed women being promoted before they had the qualifications to be successful and that they repeatedly saw coaching positions specify that only female candidates would be considered. Participants also indicated a preference to maintain at least one female coach on the team staff to relate to the players. Regardless of whether or not the participants felt affirmative action was positive or negative, it was a factor they felt existed in the profession. In subtheme three, participants reported that the three most prevalent emotional characteristics for female athletes were team chemistry, the interference of emotions with athletic performance, and low self-confidence. In subtheme four, the most common responses to social and physical boundaries pertained to physical touch, one-on-one meetings, keeping the relationship professional with athletes, and responsible use of social media. In subtheme five, participants related there is low funding for women's sports resulting in low salaries for coaches which could be a deterrent for women and men to enter and remain in coaching. In subtheme six, the data demonstrated an increased strain on

coaches related to programs and teams being cut due to institutional budget restraints, minimal to no team budget increases, a lack of wins increasingly leading to coaches being fired, an increase in the number of hours of work required to be successful, and a feeling that work-life balance is nearly impossible to obtain.

Implications for action. Administrators in higher education institutions are making the decision to hire male coaches for female athletes. Increasing administrators understanding of the needs, concerns, opportunities, and challenges of coaching the opposite gender may influence informed decision making and supervision of male coaches hired to coach female athletes. The findings of this study support four actions for higher education administrators responsible for hiring coaches of female athletes: evaluate hiring processes, acquire knowledge about female athlete emotional characteristics, create guidelines for boundaries between male coaches and female athletes, and address the high stress nature of college coaching.

Evaluate hiring processes. The data demonstrate a perceived trend in higher education toward institutions filling coaching position vacancies without conducting publicized searches (informal hiring processes). Throughout their careers, two participants in the current study reported having only informal interviews during the hiring process, four participants reported having only formal interviews, and four participants reported having both informal and formal interviews. Informal hiring processes limit opportunities for both male and female coaching candidates. Four participants reported they had experienced discrimination as a male candidate during the hiring process. Six participants reported they had witnessed a verbal preference for hiring women to coach female athletes. Administrators responsible for hiring coaches could

collaborate with their Department of Human Resources to ensure hiring committees are properly trained with respect to Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act. Administrators should consider holding athletic departments to the same hiring process standards required for hiring faculty and staff. Disparities in hiring procedures should be identified and addressed.

Acquire knowledge about female athlete emotional characteristics. Six participants mentioned team chemistry and team relationships as essential to a successful female team. If female athletes place a high level of importance on team chemistry it is likely to affect the success of the students and the athletic program in which they compete. Institution retention and graduation rates might also be affected. Seven participants mentioned negative emotions can have a negative effect on individual and team performance. Five participants reported that females struggle with self-confidence which manifests in hesitancy to critique teammates, compete with teammates, and receive constructive criticism. To adequately address these common emotional characteristics, coaches could benefit from training in counseling, sport psychology seminars, or workshops. Administrators could utilize results of the current study to familiarize themselves and coaches with information about the emotional characteristics of female athletes. This knowledge could be taken into consideration when setting program expectations, administering coach performance reviews, and when considering professional development for athletic staff.

Create guidelines for boundaries between male coaches and female athletes. Nine participants in the current study addressed physical touch as being limited to short side-hugs, high fives, or no physical contact at all. Eight participants stated they do not

permit players to meet with them alone at any time. The findings of the current study demonstrate that male coaches self-impose strict physical boundaries with their female athletes. Administrators could use the findings of this study to commit institutional resources to determine if these physical limitations are reasonable and if they should be enforced regardless of the coach or student-athlete gender. If physical boundaries are an unspoken expectation then the administration could create a task force to design clear guidelines to hold coaching staff accountable and to protect coaching staff from allegations of inappropriate physical contact.

Address the high stress nature of college coaching. The current study supports previous research (Kamphoff, 2010) that low compensation, high time commitments, and the pressure to win in female athletic programs has a negative impact on female coaches and on male coaches of female teams. The participants in this study shared that low salaries (particularly in entry level positions) made pursuing a career in coaching difficult for men and was a deterrent for women. When determining base-pay for coaching positions, higher education administrators need to consider if the compensation is reasonable for the time commitment required in the position. The results of this study could be reviewed and utilized by higher education administrators and governing athletic association organizations when developing regulations and job performance expectations for athletics staff including office hours, practice hours, travel hours, recruiting hours, game and competitive event hours, etc. The increased pressure for women's teams to win has led to an exponential increase in time commitment (office hours, practices/games on nights and weekends, and recruiting time expectations) for coaches regardless of gender. Moran-Miller and Flores (2011) stated, "Athletic administrators seem to be a key

determinant if female coaches achieve and maintain work/life balance in their careers" (p. 4). Findings of the current study demonstrated that work/life balance is seen as extremely difficult for male coaches, as well. Administrators could utilize results of this study and survey coaching staff to determine if work-life balance is an area for improvement among the coaching staff. Administrators could then determine how to assist the coaching staff to improve work-life balance at the university level (i.e., supervisor one-on-one meetings, restructuring expectations, and changes in policy) and district, regional, and national levels (i.e., advocating with the institution's governing athletics organization).

Recommendations for future research. The current study findings suggested additional opportunities for future research. The current study included 10 participants. A future study could expand the number of participants. In addition to increasing the number of interviewees, males who coach specific female sports might help determine whether or not there are differences in experiences of male coaches linked to particular sports. The majority of participants in this study were coaching female soccer teams. Research should focus on male coaches of female teams in varied sports to determine commonality of experiences. Looking at differences in experiences across divisions (I, II, III, etc.) might also reveal unique experiences. The geographic region where an institution is located might also influence the expectations and experiences of male coaches of female athletes. The employing institutions' status as a public or private entity could also be a variable in the experience of the coaching staff.

Several participants in the current study shared that they experienced an informal interview process. Filling coaching position vacancies without conducting publicized

searches could limit opportunities for both male and female coaching candidates. A multiple-case study design or phenomenological case study could examine the hiring process practices of athletic departments at various institutions. The analysis of hiring practices could focus on institutions within the same athletic conference or could review multiple athletic conference affiliations. A mixed methods research design could compare hiring expectations and practices of each institution's human resource department to determine if consistency exists across institutions.

Female athletes place a high level of importance on team chemistry. Athlete perception of team chemistry may impact the success of the students and the athletic program the female athletes participate in as well as retention and graduation rates. Future research could investigate if there is a relationship between female student-athlete perception of team chemistry (when coached by a female verses a male coach) and program success, persistence, retention, and graduation.

The findings of this study demonstrated that male coaches self-impose strict physical boundaries with female athletes. None of the participants disclosed that they were creating these boundaries from a set of guidelines, policies, or expectations. Coaches appear to be designing these practices without guidance or support. A phenomenological study could examine the non-spoken physical limitations imposed by college coaches in interactions with student athletes.

The increased pressure for women's athletic teams to win has led to an exponential increase in time commitment (office hours, practices/games on nights and weekends, and amount of time for recruiting activities for coaches). Bruening and Dixon (2008) utilized a:

Qualitative life course perspective to examine the experiences of seventeen head

coach mothers (women who have children and are head coaches) in NCAA

institutions. The results suggest that it is insufficient for managers to view the

employee in isolation or to neglect the organizational culture in athletics.

Supervisor attention to this, while time and effort-intensive, can impact employee

well-being. (p. 10)

The Bruening and Dixon study could be replicated and applied to head coach fathers

(men who have children and are head coaches). Replications of Bruening and Dixon's

(2008) study from a paternal perspective could narrow the research gap concerning the

increasing demands on male college coaches.

Concluding remarks. This study investigated the experiences of male coaches

of female college athletes. Two themes emerged from responses of 10 coaches who

participated in interviews: securing a career within the competitive field of athletics, and

maintaining a career within college women's athletics. In 1972, 90% of women's teams

were coached by females. In 2014, that number dropped to 43.4% (Acosta & Carpenter,

2014). This study examined perceptions of male coaches regarding why there are an

increased number of male coaches of female athletic teams. Respondents indicated: (1) a

quicker career ladder coaching women's athletic teams than coaching only men, (2) more

opportunities to apply for women's athletic team coaching positions than exclusively

male athletic teams, (3) more connections in the profession for male coaches vs female

coaches, (4) an informal interview process for female team coaching positions compared

to more formal interviews for coaching positions for male athletic teams, (5) a hiring

administration dominantly male,(6) a lack of female competitors for coaching positions

because fewer females are pursuing coaching as a career, and (7) the physical training of female athletes is increasingly similar to the physical training of male athletes. This study found male coaches of female athletes perceived discrimination in the hiring process when administrators rejected their employment based on the fact they were male and affirmative action for female coaches by coaching positions being available for only female candidates or less qualified female candidates receiving coaching position offers. Additional responses from participants indicated male coaches of female athletic teams perceived emotional characteristic are more prevalent in female athletes than male athletes. Male coaches of female athletic teams also create, implement, and maintain social and physical boundaries with female athletes that might be less of an issue with female coaches. Respondents indicated that low funding and salaries for women's sports in higher education, and respondents indicated that increased pressure to win drove women away from coaching and is also difficult for male coaches to navigate.

This study contributed to an existing gap in the literature on the experience of male coaches of female college athletes. Athletic administration would benefit from a deeper understanding of the unique needs, strengths, and concerns of male coaches when making hiring decisions for their female athletes and teams and when supervising these professionals. The findings in this study may also benefit students of either gender who are considering entering the coaching profession. Female athletes in the recruitment process who are determining where they will be a student athlete will also benefit from the results of this study. Finally, current coaches may benefit from the results of the study.

This study contributed to the literature on male coaches of female college athletes. The findings of the study provide an increased understanding of the needs, concerns, opportunities, and challenges of coaching opposite gender student athletes in a higher education setting. Athletics is an essential part of the history and future of higher education. Administrator, current coach, future coach, and student athlete understanding of the experiences of male coaches hired to coach female athletes, may increase informed decision making and supervision of male coaches of female athletic teams. With the application of this knowledge, the likelihood for successful student athletes, athletic programs, and institutions can likewise increase.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Interview Protocol

Participant Interview Protocol
(Pilot Group Suggestions in Italics)

Date:
Time:
Participant Number:

Introduction

My name is Alexandra Shaw and I am speaking to you today as a doctoral student at Baker University in Baldwin City, Kansas. I want to thank you for agreeing to participate in my research project by allowing me to interview you today. My study is focused on the experiences of the male coaches of female college athletes. Before I go any further I want to ask you to indicate if you still agree to participate in this interview as a volunteer. As such you can decline to answer any question if you want or remove yourself from participation at any time during the interview. Are you still willing to participate?

Thank you, in order to transcribe this interview for later analysis I will be making an audio recording of this conversation. By recording the conversation, we will be able to conduct the interview faster and I will be able to interact with you without being inhibited with taking notes. All of your responses will remain confidential and your identity will not be attached to any documentation. Are you willing to continue knowing that a recording is being made?

Thank you. Today's interview should take between 45 minutes to an hour. I will be asking you about your experiences as a male coach of female college athletes. There are no correct or incorrect answers. Please feel free to be honest so that I may gain a true understanding of what being a male coach of female college athletes is like. It is my goal that you feel comfortable communicating what you really think and feel. I will make a transcript of this interview which I will email to you so that you may review it to make clarifications, additions, or omissions.

Before we begin I would like to briefly reiterate the purpose of this study.

General Purpose

In 1972, when Title IX was signed into law, 90% of women's college teams were coached by women. Today the number of head female coaches of women's teams has decrease to around 40%. There is a gap in the literature about the men who are coaching nearly 60% of all female college athletic teams. This study will focus on factors that led men to coach female athletes, the hiring process as an opposite gender candidate to the student-athletes, how male coaches approach the physical training and the social and emotional characteristics of female athletes, and your perceptions of why more men coach then women coach females. This study serves as a contribution to the limited data pertaining to higher education male athletic coaches of female athletes. The results of this study will be utilized by higher education administrators, athletic personnel, current coaches, individuals aspiring to coaching, student athletes, and all stakeholders associated with this specific and unexplored population

At this point, do you have any questions?

Thank you for taking the time to let me explain these details. Do I have your consent to move forward with the interview?

Warm up [demographic check list]

Are you currently a head or associate head coach at a college or university?

Did you hold this position during spring, summer, and fall of 2017?

What sport do you coach?

Is your team made up exclusively of female athletes?

Is your institution affiliated with the NCAA or NAIA?
- *Include the NJCAA*

What divisional level does your team compete at?
- *Only ask this question if they don't clarify in the previous question. It could be offensive in that coaches will feel belittled if they coach a lower division team.*
- *NJCAA has only division 1 and 3. You need to sound knowledgeable*
- *NAIA only has division in basketball (division 1 and 2)*

Research Question	Interview Questions and Probes
RQ1: What are the common life events prior to a coaching career that lead males to coach female athletes	**IQ1:** Please tell me about your athletic background? **IQ2:** How did your background contribute to your becoming a coach? **IQ3:** What opportunities or events led you toward coaching women?
RQ2: What are the common perceptions male coaches have of the hiring process for a position as a coach of female athletes?	**IQ1:** Describe the hiring process when you applied to be a coach of female athletes. **IQ2**: Please describe any experiences you may have had with discrimination during the hiring process. • *You might need to clarify that these are past experiences. They might not have felt discrimination at the time, but looking back later they might believe it occurred.*

	IQ3: Describe any similarities and differences in your interview experiences when the Athletic Director was female verses male. *The Head Athletic Director rarely participates in the search process. Consider letting them tell you about their experiences with the Asst. Athletic Directors. People in these positions usually lead searches and have influence in hiring decisions.*
RQ3: How do male coaches approach the physical training of female athletes?	**IQ1:** How do you approach the physical training of female athletes? **IQ2:** In what ways are your physical requirements for female athletes similar or different from the requirements for male athletes of the same sport and division?
RQ4: How do male coaches approach the social and emotional characteristics of female athletes?	**IQ1:** Tell me about the social and emotional characteristics of female athletes. **IQ2:** What social interaction issues have you observed when female athletes work as a team?
RQ5: What social and physical boundaries guide male coaches of female athletes?	**IQ1:** What social boundaries do you pay attention to when interacting with female athletes? • *Coaches will think of different situations. You can offer prompts such as: in-person-public, private conversations in the office, over the phone, and social media.* **IQ2:** What physical boundaries do you pay attention to when interacting with female athletes?
RQ6: What are the perceptions of male coaches related to why more males than females coach female athletes?	**IQ1:** Currently over 50% of female college teams are coached by men. Why do you think more males than females coach female athletes? **IQ2:** In your opinion, why are female coaches leaving the profession?

Closing

✓ Summarize

✓ Thank participant

- ✓ Provide extra information and contacts to participants

- ✓ Remind participant about the transcript check

- ✓ Explain that they will receive a draft of the findings which they will be given as opportunity to respond to

Appendix B: Proposal for Research

BAKER
UNIVERSITY

IRB Request

Date 2/14/2018

IRB Protocol Number _____
(IRB use only)

I. Research Investigator(s) (students must list faculty sponsor)

Department(s) School of Education

	Name	Signature	
1.	Alexandra J. S. Shaw	Alexandra J. S. Shaw *(Digitally signed by Alexandra J. S. Shaw Date: 2018.02.15 16:07:39 -08'07)*	Principal Investigator
2.	_____	_____	☐ Check if faculty sponsor
3.	_____	_____	☐ Check if faculty sponsor
4.	_____	_____	☐ Check if faculty sponsor

Principal investigator contact information

Phone 785-639-5284

Note: When submitting your finalized, signed form to the IRB, please ensure that you cc all investigators and faculty sponsors using their official Baker University (or respective organization's) email addresses.

Email alexandrajshaw@stu.bakeru.edu

Address 430 Palmetto St.

Corpus Christi, TX 78412

_____

Faculty sponsor contact information

Phone _____

Email _____

Expected Category of Review: ☐ Exempt ☑ Expedited ☐ Full ☐ Renewal

II. Protocol Title

Male Coaches of Female Collegiate Athletes: Career Experiences, Coaching Approaches, and Why More Males than Females Coach Women

_____

_____

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III. Summary:

The following questions must be answered. Be specific about exactly what participants will experience and about the protections that have been included to safeguard participants from harm.

A. In a sentence or two, please describe the background and purpose of the research.

Limited research currently exists on the career experiences and coaching approaches of male coaches of female collegiate athletes. This study will focus on factors that led these men to coach female athletes, the hiring process as an opposite gender candidate to the student-athletes, how male coaches approach coaching women as physical athletes, how males approach the social and emotional characteristic of female athletes, and perceptions of why more males than females coach collegiate female athletes.

B. Briefly describe each condition, manipulation, or archival data set to be included within the study.

There are no conditions, manipulations, or archival data included within this study.

IV. Protocol Details

A. What measures or observations will be taken in the study? If any questionnaire or other instruments are used, provide a brief description and attach a copy.

The data will be collected through phone interviews which will be audio recorded. The researcher will transcribe the data. Interviewees will be sent a copy of their transcript to review for accuracy. The researcher will add a narrative analysis within the reviewed transcripts to indicate what participants do not say, but imply with hesitations, interruptions, strong reactions to statements, reflection, agreements, or disagreements through tone. These notes will be added in the text and highlighted to indicate that they are the observations of the researcher and not part of the interviewees' audio response. Research questions and the interview questions associated with each include the following:

B. Will the subjects encounter the risk of psychological, social, physical, or legal risk? If so, please describe the nature of the risk and any measures designed to mitigate that risk.

Subjects will not encounter risk of psychological, social, physical, or legal risk during this study.

C. Will any stress to subjects be involved? If so, please describe.

It is not anticipated that subjects will experience any stress during the study.

D. Will the subjects be deceived or misled in any way? If so, include an outline or script of the debriefing.

The subjects will not be deceived or misled during this study.

E. Will there be a request for information which subjects might consider to be personal or sensitive? If so, please include a description.

The subjects will not be asked for personal or sensitive information.

F Will the subjects be presented with materials which might be considered to be offensive, threatening, or degrading? If so, please describe.

The subjects will not be presented with materials that might be considered offensive, threatening, or degrading.

G. Approximately how much time will be demanded of each subject?

Subjects will be required to contribute approximately two hours for this study: one hour for the interview; thirty minutes to review their transcript and to email any clarifications, additions, or omissions; and thirty minutes to review the draft of the findings and email the researcher any comments.

H. Who will be the subjects in this study? How will they be solicited or contacted? Provide an outline or script of the information which will be provided to subjects prior to their volunteering to participate. Include a copy of any written solicitation as well as an outline of any oral solicitation.

The subjects of the study must be head or associate head coaches of an all-female athlete collegiate team at the time of the interview and must have held their coaching position from January 1, 2017 to December 31, 2018. The researcher has identified several potential participants through personal connections in the field of athletics. Male coaches known by the researcher who meet these criteria will be sent an email invitation to participate in the study. The Invitation to Participate is included below:

Participant Invitation

I. What steps will be taken to insure that each subject's participation is voluntary? What if any inducements will be offered to the subjects for their participation?

After a subject reviews the Participant Invitation and communicates to the researcher that he is willing to participate, he will be emailed a Consent Form. The Consent Form will communicate the voluntary nature of their participation, that no direct benefits will be awarded, and that no penalties will apply for electing to not participate or to leave the study. The Consent Form is provided in the response to Question J below.

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J. How will you insure that the subjects give their consent prior to participating? Will a written consent form be used? If so, include the form. If not, explain why not.

When a subject replies to the researcher that he has received the Participant Invitation and indicates a willingness to participate, the researcher will email him the Consent Form. The subject must review, sign, and return the Consent Form to the researcher before the interview can be scheduled. The Consent Form is included below:

Consent Form

K. Will any aspect of the data be made a part of any permanent record that can be identified with the subject? If so, please explain the necessity.

No aspect of the data will be made a part of any permanent record that can identify the subjects.

L. Will the fact that a subject did or did not participate in a specific experiment or study be made part of any permanent record available to a supervisor, teacher, or employer? If so, explain.

The fact that a subject did or did not participate in the study will not be made part of any permanent record.

M. What steps will be taken to insure the confidentiality of the data? Where will it be stored? How long will it be stored? What will be done with the data after the study is completed?

Each Consent Form and interview transcript will be assigned an identification number corresponding to the subject it involves(e.g., Participant A) to insure confidentiality. The data and documents associated with this study will be stored digitally on a firewall and password protected computer. A back-up copy of all digital documents will be stored on a memory stick which will be kept in a lock and key safe. Any hard copies of documents associated with this study will be stored in a lock and key file cabinet. All documents will be destroyed after seven years.

N. If there are any risks involved in the study, are there any offsetting benefits that might accrue to either the subjects or society?

There are no risks or offsetting benefits for the subjects or society that are anticipated as a result of this study.

O. Will any data from files or archival data be used? If so, please describe.

No data from files or archival data will be utilized in this study.

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Appendix C: IRB Approval

Baker University Institutional Review Board

February 16th, 2018

Dear Alexandra Shaw and Tes Mehring,

The Baker University IRB has reviewed your project application and approved this project under Expedited Status Review. As described, the project complies with all the requirements and policies established by the University for protection of human subjects in research. Unless renewed, approval lapses one year after approval date.

Please be aware of the following:

1. Any significant change in the research protocol as described should be reviewed by this Committee prior to altering the project.
2. Notify the IRB about any new investigators not named in original application.
3. When signed consent documents are required, the primary investigator must retain the signed consent documents of the research activity.
4. If this is a funded project, keep a copy of this approval letter with your proposal/grant file.
5. If the results of the research are used to prepare papers for publication or oral presentation at professional conferences, manuscripts or abstracts are requested for IRB as part of the project record.

Please inform this Committee or myself when this project is terminated or completed. As noted above, you must also provide IRB with an annual status report and receive approval for maintaining your status. If you have any questions, please contact me at npoell@bakeru.edu or 785.594.4582.

Sincerely,

Nathan Poell, MA
Chair, Baker University IRB

Baker University IRB Committee
    Scott Crenshaw
    Jamin Perry, PhD
    Susan Rogers, PhD
    Joe Watson, PhD

Appendix D: Participant Invitation

Participant Invitation

February 19, 2018
Mr. XXX
XXX University

Dear XXX:

My name is Alexandra Shaw and I am doctoral candidate at Baker University in Baldwin City, Kansas in the School of Education Graduate Programs. For my dissertation I am conducting a qualitative study of the experiences of male coaches of exclusively female collegiate athletic teams. You were identified as a qualified candidate and I would like to invite you to participate in the study.

Your participation would include a 45-60 minute phone interview (which will be audio recorded) to discuss your life experiences which led you to a head coaching position for female athletes, your experience as a successful applicant for being hired as a coach for a team comprised of the opposite gender, and your approach to coaching females as physical athletes, your approach to the social and emotional characteristics of female athletes, social or physical boundaries that guide you in coaching female athletes, and your perceptions about why more males than females coach female athletes. After the interview I will email you a copy of your interview transcript. You will have an opportunity to review your transcript to make any clarifications, additions, or omissions. You will also be sent a draft of the findings. You will have an opportunity to review the findings and share comments with the researcher. Your participation is completely voluntary. Should you decide to participate in the study, you can withdraw your consent and cease participating at any point in the process.

Your participation would truly enrich the research on this topic. If you would like to participate, or if you have any questions about the research project, please feel free to contact me at 785-639-5284 or at Alexandrajshaw@stu.bakeru.edu. Thank you for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,
Alexandra J. S. Shaw, M.S.E.

Appendix E: Participant Consent Form

Consent Form

Purpose of the Study: The focus of this study is to investigate the experiences of male coaches of female collegiate athletes. The study is based on six purposes:

1) To identify the common life events prior to a coaching career and the personal motivations that lead males to coach female athletes.

2) To identify the common experiences male coaches had during the hiring process for a position as a coach of female athletes.

3) To discover the approaches of male coaches in the physical training of female athletes.

4) To discover the approaches of male coaches in the social and emotional characteristics of female athletes.

5) To identify perceptions of social and physical boundaries that guide male coaches of female athletes.

6) To identify the perceptions of male coaches related to why more males than females coach female athletes.

Participant Requirements: As the interviewee, you will respond to a series of questions in a phone interview related to the experiences of male coaches of female collegiate athletes. Your responses will help me to better understand the six purposes of this study which are listed above. Demographic questions will be asked at the beginning of the interview. The interview will last no longer than 60 minutes. Interviews will be audio recorded, transcribed, and uploaded to a secure database. Once your interview has been transcribed, I will share your transcription with you, and you will have the opportunity to review your response in written format. Additionally, after I have complied all themes and findings, I will share the overall findings, and you will have the opportunity to provide a final comment.

 Potential Risks/ Discomforts: There are no known anticipated risks in this study.

Benefits: There are no direct benefits to you as a participant in this study. The results of this study may be of interest to current male coaches of female collegiate athletes, college students considering coaching as an occupation, and athletic department administration hiring and supervising male coaches.

Confidentiality: Any feedback you provide in this study will be handled confidentially. Your data will be anonymous which means that your name will not be linked to the data. Your name will be coded to insure your anonymity.

Voluntary Participation: Participation in this study is completely voluntary.

Right to Withdraw from the Study: You have the right to withdraw from the study without penalty. At any point during the interview you can opt out of responding to any question and you can terminate the interview at any time. Should you decide to withdraw from the study, your audio recording will be destroyed.

How to Withdraw from the Study: If the interview is in progress and you wish to withdraw, tell the researcher, "Stop the interview." If you would like to withdraw before the interview or after completion of your interview, please contact the researcher at alexandrajshaw@stu.bakeru.edu. There is no penalty for withdrawing.

Compensation: You will receive no compensation for participating in this study.

Consent Form Signature: Your signature below indicates that you have agreed to participate in this research study and to audio taping of the interview.

For Questions Regarding This Study, Contact:

Principle Investigator:
Alexandra J. S. Shaw, M.S.E.
alexandrajshaw@stu.bakeru.edu
785.639.5284
430 Palmetto St. Corpus Christi, TX 78412

Academic Advisor:
Tes Mehring, PhD
School of Education, Baker University
Interim Provost
P.O. Box 65
Baldwin City, KS 66006-0065
785.594.8312
tmehring@bakeru.edu

Agreement: I agree to participant in the study described above and to audiotaping of the interview.

Name (Printed):_____

Signature: _____ **Date:** _____

Your will receive a copy of this form for your records.