

**Exploring the Career Needs of Intercollegiate Head Coaches: A Kaleidoscope  
Career Perspective**

**DISSERTATION**

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By

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## **Abstract**

The Kaleidoscope Career Model (KCM) is one of the newest career models used to help explain women's career choices (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005). The KCM proposes during different periods in people's lives, authenticity, balance, and challenge are career needs that influence career development. Collegiate coaching, a profession known to be demanding and stressful (Weaver, 2010) has been studied extensively. However, there is little understanding of the career needs of college coaches. Through a kaleidoscope lens, this study explored the differences in the career needs of head coaches working at the NCAA D-I level. Job satisfaction, conflict levels, and the obstacles and opportunities coaches' experience in their careers were also assessed.

An online survey was e-mailed to all head coaches working at D-I colleges and universities across the U.S. At the completion, there was a final sample of 840 ( $N = 840$ ) and a response rate of 17%. Sullivan, Forret, Carraher, and Mainiero's (2009) 15-item KCM scale was used and a MANOVA was conducted to determine differences in coaches' career needs as it related to gender and career stage. Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Kelch's (1983) three-item job satisfaction scale was used to determine coaches' job satisfaction levels. Netemeyer, Boyles, and McMurrian's (1996) 10-item work and family conflict scale was used. An additional MANOVA was conducted to determine differences in coaches' conflict levels as it related to gender and career stage.

Lastly, frequencies were calculated to verify the primary obstacles and opportunities coaches experienced during their careers.

The results posit the challenge career need was found to best describe coaches. There was a significant difference between coaches' need for balance, with male coaches expressing a greater need for balance than their female counterpart. Also, regardless of gender, coaches' need for authenticity was significantly more important in early career compared to those coaches in mid and late career. Coaches were highly satisfied with their jobs despite experiencing work-family conflict. Male coaches' experienced higher levels of family-work conflict than female coaches. Coaches in early and mid-career reported experiencing higher levels of work-family conflict than coaches in late career. The top three obstacles coaches' faced were recruiting, in-season demands, and coping with stress. Networking, mentoring, and training opportunities emerged as the top three opportunities coaches had to develop their career.

This study opened the door for further inquiry into understanding coaches' career needs. The KCM proposes women's desire for balance is greater than men across the career span. However, in a sport context, male coaches expressed a greater need for balance. Future study should address this issue. Coaches in early career reported a strong need for authenticity. With the changing scope of the workforce, athletic administrators should explore ways to help younger head coaches make decisions that suit the self above others. Lastly, despite the decline of women entering the coaching profession, female coaches reported loving what they do. Athletic departments must make it a priority to

uncover the factors keeping females from entering the coaching profession and provide an environment that support coaches' careers.

## **Dedication**

This work is dedicated to my twin sister and mother. All that I am is a reflection of who you are. Your love, encouragement, and support have made this all possible.

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## **Fields of Study**

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## **Chapter 1: Introduction**

According to Baruch (2004), there has been a transformation in how individuals define their career. As stated in an article on various career perspectives, “on one hand, careers are the “property” of individuals, but on the other hand, for employed people, it will be planned and managed by their organizations” (p. 58). From the traditional career path, where individuals stay with an organization over the course of their life and strive for promotion and organizational rewards, to protean careers, where an individual’s career is self-determined, driven by personal values (Hall, 2006), there is a growing conversation on the changing nature of careers (Hall, 2006; Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005) and its impact on organizations. A prime example of the evolution of careers can be seen when examining the growth of women’s presence in the workforce.

Over the past century, women have not only gained the right to work, but women’s representation in the workplace, classroom, and athletics has made undeniable strides. In 1900, women accounted for 18% of the labor force, and in 2012, there were nearly 67 million working age women in the U.S., making up a majority (57.7%) of the workers in professional and related occupations (Department of Professional Employees, 2013). Likewise, 2010 data show that 60% of women in the U.S. are either the sole income-earner in their household or they are bringing in as much or more than their partners (Tennery, 2012). The growth of women in the workforce is evident, as the

Bureau of Labor Statistics (2012) predicts the annual growth rate for women in the labor force to be 7.4% between 2010 and 2020, but there have also been gains in the classroom. Women have been earning more Bachelor's and Master's degrees than men since 1987. During the 2010-2011 academic year, women received 57.2% of Bachelor's degrees, 60.1% of Master's degrees and 51.4% of all Doctoral degrees (U.S. Department of Education, 2011).

Additionally, women have made strides in athletics. In the realm of sport, during the 1971-1972 school year, 294,015 girls participated in high school sports. In contrast, during the 2013-2014 school year, approximately 3,267,664 girls participated in high school sports (NFHS, 2014). Similarly, at the college level, in 1972, only 16,000 females participated in intercollegiate athletics. As of 2012, 200,000 females at 4-year institutions participated in intercollegiate athletics (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012).

Despite the gains in employment, educational, and athletic opportunities for women over the past few decades, there remains a staggering gender gap in women reaching the pinnacle of their respective careers (Gayle, Golan, & Miller, 2009). For example, as of 2012, women held 4.2% of *Fortune* 500 CEO positions and 4.2% of *Fortune* 1000 CEO positions ("Women CEOs," 2014). Additionally, in 2012, of women in academy in the U.S., 44.0% were tenured and of men in academy, 62.0% were tenured ("Women in Academia," 2012).

This gender gap also remains in intercollegiate athletics. An assumption that one would make is as the number of female athletes participating in interscholastic and intercollegiate sports increases, so would the number of female coaches. However, this is

not the case. Data shows a steady decline in the number of female coaches and administrators in intercollegiate and interscholastic athletics (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012). For example, in 1978, close to 90% of female sports were coached by females while as of 2012, this number decreased to 42.9%. Also, in 1972, 90% of female college athletic directors supervised female sports. The high number of female athletic directors can be attributed to the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW), an organization where women athletic directors supervised women sports. Following an aggressive takeover of the AIAW by the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), the Senior Woman Administrator (SWA) was created to provide women a voice in and to integrate women in the governance of intercollegiate athletics (Hoffman, 2010). Despite the leadership roles the SWA position intended to create for women in intercollegiate athletics, according to Hatfield, Hatfield, and Drummond (2003), it remains unclear if the SWA role is a terminal career position or prepares women leaders for career advancement. Currently, of all NCAA divisions (I, II, and III), only 20.9% of athletic directors in intercollegiate athletics are female (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012), which also illustrates a disparity in women's representation in intercollegiate athletics.

The underrepresentation of women in athletics, specifically as college coaches, has been studied from numerous perspectives such as: work-family conflict (Bruening & Dixon, 2007, 2008; Dixon & Bruening, 2007; Dixon & Sagas, 2007; Mazerolle, Bruening, & Casa, 2008; Sagas & Cunningham, 2005), retention factors (Inglis, Danylchuk, & Pastore, 1996; Pastore, Inglis, & Danylchuk, 1996), challenges of the profession (Kilty, 2006), social cognitive theory (Cunningham, Doherty, & Gregg, 2007),

commitment (Chelladurai & Ogasawara, 2003; Cunningham & Sagas, 2004; Turner, 2001; Turner & Chelladurai, 2005), job satisfaction (Chelladurai & Ogasawara, 2003; Dixon & Sagas, 2007; Kim & Cunningham, 2005; Pastore, 1994; Yusof & Mohd Shah, 2008), and turnover intentions (Cunningham & Sagas, 2002, 2003; Cunningham, Sagas, & Ashley, 2003; Ryan & Sagas, 2009). Retrospective of the literature on college coaching (Bozeman & Fay, 2013; Cunningham, 2010; Dixon & Bruening, 2007; Dixon & Madsen, 2013; Ryan & Sagas, 2011; Walker & Sagas, 2011), it is believed a new perspective to studying the careers of intercollegiate coaches is warranted. Therefore, to further understand the coaching career, the focus of this study was to explore the career needs of both men and women head coaches utilizing a relatively new career model, the Kaleidoscope Career Model (KCM). Not only did this exploratory study intend to add to the existing literature on coaches' careers, it offered another approach to further understanding the coaching career and why there remains an underrepresentation of women coaches in college athletics.

It is believed if college athletic department administration and policy makers utilize the KCM to identify the needs of their coaches during different points in their lives, then necessary actions may be taken to ensure coaches' needs are being met. In turn, the support for coaches at all stages of the career, as offered by the KCM, may help recruit, hire, and retain women in the coaching profession. Also, a new approach to viewing the coaching career may lead to alleviating some of the challenges coaches are faced with daily as a part of the profession. Therefore, to understand coaches' career

needs and their career decisions, the KCM will be used. In the following section, the KCM was described followed by the purpose of the study.

### **Overview of the Literature**

The *New York Times Magazine* published an article which argued that women “opt-out” of the workforce before reaching top positions in their careers to have children (Belkin, 2003). The author referenced a group of Princeton-educated mothers who had “taken the off-ramp from their successful careers to stay at home and raise children. They described their choice as just that: the decision towards the preferred path” (Casslerly, 2012, para. 4). Although women are often pulled from the workforce to care for children or elderly parents (Cabrera, 2007), this may not be the sole reason women leave the workforce or remain in middle-tier positions. Mainiero and Sullivan (2005, 2006) argued that men and women follow different career patterns; men follow a traditional, linear pattern, typically staying with a company long-term and working their way up the corporate ladder. On the other hand, women follow a nontraditional pattern, making career decisions that best fit their lives. The disparities result in men and women making different career decisions at different points in their lives. Critical to Mainiero and Sullivan’s (2005, 2006) inspiration for a new career model, they felt as women negotiate needs between career and relationships, some may choose to leave their career or deny opportunities for advancement in an effort to meet relational needs. The authors were motivated by the media frenzy which suggested that qualified and experienced women “opt-out” of the workforce to have kids. However, Mainiero and Sullivan (2005, 2006) believed there were more complex reasons aside from having children as to why women

were leaving their careers. In response to the “opt-out revolution” as it was labeled, Mainiero and Sullivan (2005, 2006) felt it was “time to articulate a new model for careers that deconstructs what employees are doing today” (p. 108).

With this understanding, Mainiero and Sullivan (2005, 2006) created the KCM in an effort to address workers’ career needs. After completing a multiple pronged, three-study series, where both men and women’s career transitions and motivations were investigated and compared, Mainiero and Sullivan (2005, 2006) determined men and women describe their careers differently at different points in their lives. More specifically, “many women examined the opportunities, roadblocks, and possibilities, then forged their own approach to a career without regard for traditional career models and standard measures of achievement” (p. 109). This finding relates closely with Hall’s (2004) description of a protean career, which is a career that is “self-determined, driven by personal values rather than organizational rewards, and serving the whole person, family, and life purpose” (p. 2). Conversely, men were found to typically follow a traditional, linear career path in which they remain in the same industry throughout their career span. Thus, the term kaleidoscope career was introduced as a way to explain women’s career transitions and decisions.

The KCM uses a kaleidoscope metaphor to explain shifts in the patterns of a woman’s career. Inside a kaleidoscope there are three mirrors which reflect colors. As the kaleidoscope turns or shifts, the mirrors reflect infinite patterns of colors. Mainiero and Sullivan (2005, 2006) used this kaleidoscope metaphor as the foundation for their new career model. Following their extensive study in which over 3,000 men and women



working in a variety of occupations were surveyed about the transitions in their careers and why those transitions occurred, the authors concluded most men followed a more traditional, linear career path, working for one or two organizations through their lifespan and climbing the corporate ladder. Most women, on the other hand, followed a nontraditional career path, choosing to leave the workforce or change careers based on where they are in their lives.

In connection to the kaleidoscope metaphor, from Mainiero and Sullivan's (2005, 2006) research, during different periods in people's lives, they have three parameters, or career needs that influence their career development: (a) *authenticity*, defined as being true to oneself and making decisions that suit the self above others, (b) *balance*, defined as making decisions so that the various aspects of one's life, including work and nonwork, form a coherent whole, and (c) *challenge*, defined as engaging in activities so that one can pursue autonomy, responsibility, and control while learning and growing. Mainiero and Sullivan (2005, 2006) labeled the career parameters as the ABC's Model of Kaleidoscope Careers for Women. This illustration can be seen in Appendix A.

Further, as women shift their kaleidoscope, the three parameters combine in different ways at different stages in life that then reflect a unique pattern. With the shifts, women's career needs change, and their career patterns change. The parameters are always present, but carry different levels of importance during different stages in life. In an effort to assess the three parameters of the KCM, there have been a limited number of studies looking at the career stages of women and how they shift in regards to authenticity, balance, and challenge. From their three-series study, Mainiero and Sullivan

(2005, 2006) found most women early in their career focus on challenge, those in mid-career focus on balance, and women in late career focus on authenticity.

### **Job Satisfaction**

In the sport literature, there has been an interest in understanding coaches' job satisfaction (Dixon & Sagas, 2007; Kim & Cunningham, 2005; Pastore, 1994; Yusof, 1999). In an effort to retain valuable coaches in the career, job satisfaction may be a good measure. In the literature, for example, Sagas and Batista (2001) found as job satisfaction increased, a coach's intent to leave the profession decreased. Chelladurai and Ogasawara (2003) suggested the athletic departments focus on coaches' satisfaction with their jobs in an effort to keep them within the organization. Likewise, Sagas and Ashley (2001) examined job satisfaction in the coaching profession and stated the importance of studying job satisfaction to understand turnover in female coaches. Therefore, in order to more deeply understand the careers of head coaches and disparity of women working as college head coaches, job satisfaction was measured.

### **Work-Family Conflict in Sport**

The sport industry, the nontraditional work environment, which demands long hours, nights, and weekends, may contribute to the challenges women face (e.g., Dixon & Bruening, 2007; Knoppers, 1992). In a *Time Magazine* article, Title IX's success was reflected upon and may attribute to the decrease in women coaches. Specifically, because of Title IX's success, women coaches are faced with expectations to win just as much as men and the nontraditional work hours put unique pressure on women with families (Gregory, 2007). Additionally, in Wilson's (2007) article on the decrease of female

coaches in college athletics, the biggest hurdles for women attempting to make a career in college coaching was seen to be the pace that the job requires. Recruiting, travel for competition, and taking role of substitute parents for the student-athletes contributed the most to challenge of the profession (Wilson, 2007). Much of the literature addressing the challenge to balance work and nonwork responsibilities is from a conflict perspective (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Work-family conflict is addressed below as a challenge for those working in college athletics.

Literature interested in work-family conflict is on the rise (Dixon & Bruening, 2005). Most literature has defined family as “two or more individuals occupying interdependent roles with the purpose of accomplishing shared goals” (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005, p. 126). Work-family conflict is when work interferes with family and family-work conflict is when family interferes with work (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). This conflict is defined as “a type of interrole conflict wherein at least some work and family responsibilities are not compatible and have resultant effects on each domain” (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77). DiRenzo, Greenhaus, and Weer (2011) contributed the time requirements associated with work and the stressfulness of the job as the primary factors for high levels of work-family conflict. Likewise, demographic, individual, and organizational factors may impact the level of conflict between work and family. The demographic and individual factors include: gender, personality, values, family size; and organizational variables include: organizational culture, support, job pressure, work hours, and flextime (Bruening & Dixon, 2007). Accordingly, one may assume head coaches working in college athletics

experience high levels of work-family conflict, because as literature shows, working in college athletics requires extensive time commitments and constant travel which eats into personal time (Hakim, 2006).

Dixon and Bruening (2005), pioneers in studying the work-family conflict theory in athletics, suggested investigating work-family conflict from an integrated approach would allow for a deeper understanding of the concept on the individual, structural, and social level. They recommended future studies utilize the integrated approach to help decipher the “long-term influence of a male-dominated culture on the work-family interface, and ultimately who chooses to work within this type of culture” (Dixon & Bruening, 2005, p. 247). In a different study, Bruening and Dixon (2007) analyzed coping mechanism used to achieve success in juggling work and family. Similar to their previous research, they observed mothers who are NCAA Division I head coaches. They concluded work-family conflict did affect three major areas: work, family, and life.

When studying work-family conflict and work-family enrichment in collegiate coaches, Schenewark and Dixon (2012) concluded that work-family enrichment was not significant to career commitment but work-family conflict was significant in predicting career commitment. For individuals, interactions between work and family can result in positive outcomes such as enhanced job satisfaction, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction. Yet, there can also be negative outcomes such as reduced job satisfaction, conflict, poor health, stress, and job turnover (Dixon & Bruening, 2007).

In one area of Everhart and Chelladurai's (1998) study, perceived barriers in preference to coach was assessed. Working hours were found to most negatively affect

the desire to coach at every level. Likewise, in a study addressing the external and internal barriers women coaches face, women participants cited “challenges of establishing a professional career during child-bearing years and the added pressure to balance two extremely demanding tasks” as an internal barrier to coaching (Kilty, 2006, p. 227). Furthermore, “coaches verbalized perceived choices of abandoning their professional pursuits for a while, hoping to resume it later in life or delaying professional advancement to have families” (p. 227). Dixon and Bruening (2005) suggest work-family conflict is important to study within a coaching context to explain the underrepresentation of women in the coaching profession.

Although family responsibilities have been coined the primary reason women stay in middle level positions, leave the workforce, or never pursue a career in athletics, there may be other reasons for the difficulties of women in the workplace advancing in their careers. For example, women are often pulled from the workforce to care for elderly parents or to follow their spouse when relocating for a job (Cabrera, 2007). Eby (2001) found that 82% of accompanying spouses were women. Also, women are pushed out of the workforce due to lack of advancement opportunities, discrimination, or disdain for the corporate culture (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005).

A way for institutions to provide coaches the resources for advancement and fulfillment in their profession may be in further understanding of the career needs of their employees. To date, the literature has neglected examining the career needs of intercollegiate coaches. After Bower (2008) completed an investigation of women’s career paths to obtain management positions in the health and fitness industry, it was

suggested that an area of future research would be to focus on women's career paths working in intercollegiate athletics.

### **NCAA Division I**

Intercollegiate athletics are embedded in the higher-education system in the United States, and have emerged as an outlet for commercialization (television and broadcasting contracts, sponsorships, and lucrative facilities). While most college athletic departments do not generate millions in revenue, some do. The NCAA, which is the non-profit governing body for college athletics, had generated a revenue was \$981 million for fiscal 2013 (Berkowitz, 2014). Similarly, in 2012, the number of college athletic departments exceeding \$100 million in revenue had increased (Berkowitz, Upton, & Brady, 2013). Aside from finances, college athletics may provide indirect benefits to universities, including an increase in national exposure, giving, enrollment, and applications (Goff, 2000). Irrespective of the direct or indirect benefits produced, "collegiate sports have changed from being a feature of a university to, in some cases, being the defining aspects of that institution" (Hoffman, 2012, para. 1). As such, intercollegiate athletic departments are in competition for finances, recruits, coaches, and facilities. This is ever-so prevalent at the NCAA Division I (D-I) level.

In the NCAA, there are three primary divisions, Division I, II, and III. According to the NCAA (2014), D-I schools generally have the biggest student bodies, manage the largest athletic budgets, and offer the most scholarships. Currently, there are 351 total member institutions competing at the D-I level (College Sports Scholarship, 2014) with

more than 170,000 student-athletes competing in NCAA sports each year. Also, D-I schools field more than 6,000 athletic teams each year (NCAA, 2014).

Differing from the other two divisions, D-I has subdivisions based on football sponsorship. For example, schools that participate in bowl games belong to the Football Bowl Subdivision (FBS). Those that participate in the NCAA-run football championship belong to the Football Championship Subdivision FCS. The third group is for schools that do not sponsor football at all. The subdivisions apply only to football; all other sports are considered D-I (NCAA, 2014). Because of big-time revenue producing sports like football and men's basketball, D-I is known as the big leagues for college athletics (College 101, 2014). Top athletic departments competing at the D-I level receive national media coverage, the athlete is provided scholarship opportunities, and the environment in which these athletes perform is highly competitive.

The growth of D-I athletics has impacted women's opportunities to participate in sport. For instance, as of 2012, there were over 3,000 D-I women's varsity teams competing, with an average number of 9.44 women's teams represented at D-I institutions, surpassing the other two divisions (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012). However, one area in which women are underrepresented is coaching. In coaching, according to the College Sport Racial and Gender Report Card (CRGRC) which grades NCAA member institutions for their overall hiring practices in regards to race and gender found that for D-I, women held 38.6% of the head coaching jobs for women's teams (Lapchick, Agusta, Kinkopf, & McPhee, 2012). At that same time, 46.3% of head coaches were female at the D-III level (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012). Additionally, when D-I athletic departments had

a male athletic director, there were 41.9% of female coaches, compared to 45.9% when the athletic director was female. The data referenced above were a result of a longitudinal study looking at women in sport, both participation and employment over the past 35 years (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012).

When examining D-I athletics as a whole, it was deemed appropriate to study head coaches' career due to the nature of the D-I athletics environment (competition for resources, pressures to win, large athletic budgets). Additionally, when examining the number of female coaches at the D-I level, it seems important to further understand why women, at the D-I level, are underrepresented in the coaching profession.

### **Statement of the Problem**

The declining trend of women's representation in collegiate coaching is undeniable. Acosta and Carpenter's (2012) research found that 42.9% of female sports were coached by females at the collegiate level. Further, only 38.6% of female sports are coached by females at the NCAA D-I level (Lapchick et al., 2012). Demands of the career (e.g., nontraditional work hours and extensive travel), challenges to balance work and family, privation of female role models in sport, the male-dominated culture, and the lack of advancement opportunities have been coined barriers for women in the coaching profession (Cheeseman, 1992; Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Inglis, Danylchuk, & Pastore, 2000). In an effort to support women in the coaching profession and to promote coaching as a viable career for women of all ages, it is critical scholars explore the career needs and career decisions of intercollegiate head coaches. If individuals are redefining the meaning of career and taking nontraditional or multi-directional career routes, as the



literature suggests (Baruch, 2003; Hall, 2006; Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005), organizations, such as intercollegiate athletic departments, must provide resources for their employees to successfully manage and develop their careers. Thus taking a new perspective, a kaleidoscope perspective on the coaching career may provide the answer to recruiting, hiring, and retaining more women as head coaches at the collegiate level.

### **Purpose of the Study**

Literature on the KCM is still in its infancy, and of the current literature, the KCM has been used from a variety of perspectives. Cabrera (2007) compared the career needs of women at different points in their career. Additionally, a study comparing the career needs of men and women across generations (Sullivan, Forret, Carraher, & Mainiero, 2009) was explored from the kaleidoscope career perspective. The KCM was used in an attempt to understand the career needs of women in late career (August, 2011), and to support the emergence of female entrepreneurship in Japan and the United States (Futagami & Helms, 2009; Sullivan, Forret, Mainiero, & Terjesen, 2007). However, to date, no literature has used the KCM to understand the career parameters of men and women within a specific occupation and industry. Specifically, for this project, men and women who work as intercollegiate head coaches, an area in which women are underrepresented.

The employees who work as collegiate coaches have the dual-assignment of being leaders and role models to their athletes while also producing a successful, winning program. In an effort to add to the existing career development literature, the current study used the KCM as the lens to determine if NCAA D-I head coaches in early, mid,

and late career make career decisions based on the kaleidoscope values of authenticity, balance, and challenge. As of 2012, at the D-I level, 38.6% of women held head coaching jobs (Lapchick et al., 2012). Also, coaches at the D-I level have been studied extensively (e.g., Cunningham & Sagas, 2002; Humphreys, 2000; Mondello & Janelle, 2001; Welch & Sigelman, 2007). Additionally, individuals coaching at the D-I level are paid to coach. Thus coaching is their career. These head coaches are faced with the pressures to win and a lack of performance can cost them their jobs. Despite the literature available on D-I coaches, there is a dearth of literature exploring the career needs of D-I head coaches. While this study is exploratory in nature, the underrepresentation of females coaching at the D-I level, the increased pressures to win, and coaches' competing in the college athletic rat race were determined to be appropriate factors when studying this population. Thus, to understand the career needs of intercollegiate head coaches, men and women head coaches at the NCAA D-I level were studied.

This study was the first in sport to utilize the KCM to explore intercollegiate head coaches' career needs and strives to give a new perspective on male and female coaches' career decisions as it relates to the KCM. In order to accomplish this, the following purposes guided the research: a) to determine if the career needs of authenticity, balance, and challenge, as proposed by the KCM describe head coaches career needs at the NCAA D-I level; b) to determine if there were differences in how well the career parameters described men and women D-I intercollegiate head coaches across the career stages; c) to determine how satisfied D-I head coaches are with their jobs; d) to determine if there were differences in male and female coaches' level of conflict across the career stages;

and e) to develop a more precise understanding of the obstacles of the career and opportunities coaches encounter in their career.

In order to explore if the career needs proposed by the KCM described coaches and to determine if there were differences in the career needs of male and female coaches at different stages in the career, coaches completed the 15-item KCM scale (as a part of a larger online survey) which asked questions related to the three career parameters of authenticity, balance, and challenge. Also, as a part of the demographic data, coaches were asked their gender and age. Collecting age as a continuous variable served two purposes. First, once the data was collected, the researchers were able to categorize the ages into three groups representing the career stages of early career, mid-career, and late career. Second, because age is not a perfect measurement of career stages (Lindstrom, 2011); the participants were asked their occupational tenure. This variable may be used in further data analysis. The study utilized gender and age as independent variables and the career needs of authenticity, balance, and challenge, job satisfaction, and conflict (work-family conflict, family-work conflict) as dependent variables.

Also, the study intended to develop a more precise understanding of the obstacles coaches face in the career as well as the opportunities coaches have in developing their career. To accomplish this, coaches were asked to rank the top three obstacles faced in their career and the top three opportunities they have when developing or advancing their career. This data was analyzed to uncover any trends in the obstacles and opportunities coaches encounter in their career.

It is clear there is a significant gap in the sport literature addressing the career needs of intercollegiate coaches. The aforementioned purposes of this exploratory study led to the development of research questions, which then guided the researchers to the remaining aspects of designing the study (Andrew, Pedersen, & McEvoy, 2011). The research questions for the study can be found below.

### **Research Questions**

As mentioned above, there is no literature addressing the KCM within the sport industry, specifically the college coaching profession. Thus, the first research question addressed the parameters of the KCM as it describes D-I intercollegiate head coaches.

*Research question 1:* Which of the three career needs (authenticity, balance, and challenge) best describes D-I head coaches?

The crux of the KCM suggests men and women have different career needs at different stages in life. From the research, men follow an alpha kaleidoscope career pattern while women follow a beta kaleidoscope career pattern (Sullivan & Mainiero, 2007). Specifically, an *alpha* career pattern, primarily male-oriented, is characterized as challenge being central in early career, followed by authenticity in mid-career, and a focus for balance in late career. Conversely, a *beta* career pattern is characterized by women placing an emphasis on challenge in early career, followed by balance as the key focus in mid-career, and authenticity taking priority in late career. Additionally, as Mainiero and Sullivan (2005, 2006) found, men and women differed in the arrangement of career needs based on the point of the career. Therefore, the following research questions were concerned with the ABC's of the KCM in an effort to explore any

differences between the career needs of male and female D-I intercollegiate coaches across the career stages, the following research questions were addressed.

The following research question is concerned with the effects of the gender of the coach may have on their specific career needs.

*Research question 2a:* How does the career parameter of authenticity differ for male and female D-I intercollegiate head coaches?

*Research question 2b:* How does the career parameter of balance differ for male and female D-I intercollegiate head coaches?

*Research question 2c:* How does the career parameter of challenge differ for male and female D-I intercollegiate head coaches?

The following research questions involve the effect a coaches' career stage may have on the coaches' career needs.

*Research question 3a:* How does the career parameter of authenticity differ in D-I intercollegiate head coaches in early, mid, and late career?

*Research question 3b:* How does the career parameter of balance differ in D-I intercollegiate head coaches in early, mid, and late career?

*Research question 3c:* How does the career parameter of challenge differ in D-I intercollegiate head coaches in early, mid, and late career?

The following research questions involve the effect of gender and career stage on coaches' career needs.

*Research question 4a:* Does gender have an effect on the career parameter of authenticity based on the career stage of the coach?

*Research question 4b:* Does gender have an effect on the career parameter of balance based on the career stage of the coach?

*Research questions 4c:* Does gender have an effect on the career parameter of challenge based on the career stage of the coach?

In an effort to further understand the careers of coaches, job satisfaction was assessed.

*Research question 5a:* What is the level of job satisfaction among D-I intercollegiate head coaches?

*Research question 5b:* Does job satisfaction level among D-I intercollegiate head coaches differ based on gender?

The following research questions explore work-family and family work conflict of college coaches in regards to gender and career stage.

*Research question 6a:* What is the level of work-family conflict among D-I intercollegiate head coaches?

*Research question 6b:* What is the level of family-work conflict among D-I intercollegiate head coaches?

*Research question 7a:* Does work-family conflict levels among D-I intercollegiate head coaches differ based on gender?

*Research question 7b:* Does family-work conflict levels among D-I intercollegiate head coaches differ based on gender?

*Research question 8a:* Does work-family conflict levels differ based on the career stage of the coach?

*Research question 8b:* Does family-work conflict levels differ based on the career stage of the coach?

Additionally, it is significant to understand the obstacles coaches face when in their career. Gaining a deeper understanding of the obstacles coaches have at each stage in the career could be imperative for those responsible for creating policies and a supportive work environment in intercollegiate athletic departments. These factors were addressed in the following research question.

*Research question 9:* Which obstacles do D-I intercollegiate head coaches consider to be most prevalent in their career?

Similarly, understanding the opportunities coaches have in their own career development and efforts to reach the pinnacle of their career is important when studying the career needs and decisions of intercollegiate head coaches. Thus the following research question was deemed important to the study.

*Research question 10:* Which opportunities do D-I intercollegiate head coaches consider to be most helpful in their career development?

### **Research Limitations**

This study had several limitations. The study utilized the KCM to investigate head coaches' career needs and was the first of its kind in sport. The lack of research studies using the KCM within sport may be viewed as a limitation. Also, because this study utilized a census, e-mailing all head coaches at D-I institutions, it is likely to receive survey respondents from the same institution. To protect the respondent's confidentiality, it was not addressed in the study which specific institution the coaches worked at.

Delimitations for the study describe the boundaries the researchers set for the study (Simon, 2011). For this study, head coaches working at D-I colleges and universities were chosen as the sample of the study. Therefore, only men and women working as intercollegiate head coaches at the D-I level were asked to participate. Thus, the results of the study could be generalizable to head coaches working at the D-I level. However, it remains unknown if the results of the study would be consistent with head coaches working at the NCAA D-II and D-III level.

### **Importance of the Study**

Intercollegiate head coaches lead student-athletes and serve as role models to the younger generation. Despite the advancements for young girls and women in athletics, there remains a gender gap within the coaching profession at the intercollegiate level. This study offers a new perspective on the coaching career, a kaleidoscope perspective. In an attempt to strengthen the literature on the KCM and explore the career needs to D-I intercollegiate head coaches, this study provides scholars and practitioners a new approach when trying to closing the gender gap in college coaching. Both male and female coaches, the student-athletes they lead, and college athletics as a whole would benefit from the increased participation of women as head coaches. This study not only redefines the traditional career route, it also suggests athletic departments implement kaleidoscope-type programs that can assist both male and female coaches to meet their career needs at all stages of life.

It is imperative educational institutions, athletic departments, and their policy makers understand the career needs of their coaches. With this understanding, policy



makers can generate initiatives that encourage and assist male and female coaches to not only reach the pinnacle of their profession, but it may foster a fulfilling work experience. Also, as individuals are redefining the meaning of career as it relates to other areas of life, employers can reshape what it means to get work done and provide appropriate avenues for these coaches to meet their career needs at different stages in life. Although a study of this nature has not been done in college athletics before, it is believed a new take on the coaching profession is warranted. The proposal that a kaleidoscope career best suits intercollegiate athletics may in fact promote the recruitment and retention of female coaches in the profession.

### **Definition of Terms**

The following are constitutive definitions for important terms used throughout the research.

1. Kaleidoscope career model: uses a kaleidoscope metaphor to depict the changes in career needs (authenticity, balance and challenge) for both men and women over the career span (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005; Sullivan & Mainiero, 2006).
2. Authenticity: being true to oneself and making decisions that suit the self above others (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005, 2006; Sullivan & Mainiero, 2007, 2008).
3. Balance: making decisions so that the various aspects of one's life, including work and nonwork, form a coherent whole (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005; Sullivan & Mainiero, 2006).

4. Challenge: engaging in activities so that one can pursue autonomy, responsibility, and control while learning and growing (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005; Sullivan & Mainiero, 2006).
5. Alpha career pattern: primarily male-dominated, is characterized as challenge being central in early career, followed by authenticity in mid-career, and a focus for balance in late career (Sullivan & Mainiero, 2007).
6. Beta career pattern: characterized by women placing an emphasis on challenge in early career, followed by balance as the key focus in mid-career, and authenticity taking priority in late career (Sullivan & Mainiero, 2007).
7. Glass ceiling: barriers faced by women and minorities who “attempt, or aspire, to attain senior positions (as well as higher salary levels) in corporations, government, education, and nonprofit organizations” (Lockwood, 2004, p. 2).
8. Early career stage: considered to range from the ages of 20 to 34 years (Lindstrom, 2011).
9. Mid-career stage: considered to range from 35-50 years (Lindstrom, 2011).
10. Late career stage: older than 50 years (Lindstrom, 2011).
11. Division I: a division of the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) where student-athletes receive athletic financial aid.

## **Summary**

As individuals continue to redefine the meaning of their careers, this study sought to further understand the coaching careers of intercollegiate head coaches at the NCAA D-I level. Because the KCM addresses the career needs of authenticity, balance, and challenge at different stages in their career, the model could provide deeper insight into the nature of the coaching profession and address the underrepresentation of women coaching at the college level. With this information, athletic department decision makers will gain a clearer picture of their employees' career needs. As such, these decision makers can implement programs and provide resources to head coaches so they can meet their career needs at all stages of the career.

The remainder of this paper is divided into four additional chapters. The following chapter, Chapter 2 is a review of the relevant literature. This chapter is focuses on topics such as: various career models (i.e., traditional, nontraditional, and KCM), nature of college athletics, challenges for women in the workplace and in athletics (glass ceiling, work-family conflict), career stages, and NCAA D-I.

Chapter 3 of this project emphasized the methods used for the study including: research design, population description, methodology, instrument design, data collection, and data analysis used for the study. Chapter 4 involves a thorough description of the results of the study. Lastly, Chapter 5 provides a discussion and suggests areas for future research related to the KCM.

## **Chapter 2: Review of Literature**

This chapter intended to explore the scholarly literature that served as the foundation for studying the career needs of intercollegiate head coaches across the career stages. In this effort, research associated with various career models (i.e., traditional, boundaryless, protean) and specifically the Kaleidoscope Career Model (KCM) will be discussed. Also, the literature on women's careers, including how the topic has been studied in sport will be included.

### **Career Models**

The changing nature of work has been attributed to the complexities of the world (Baruch, 2006), multiple commitments (Cohen, 2003), and improvements in technology (Hall, 2004). As organizations go through changes, research shows employees have increasing interest in redefining their careers (Cabrera, 2007) and jobs are no longer described as a bundle of tasks (Cascio, 1995). Baruch and Rosenstein (1992) defined career as a process of development intended to take the employee along a path of experience and jobs in one or more organizations. Similarly, Arthur, Hall, and Lawrence (1989) slated a modern view of career to be the evolving sequence of work experiences over time. Previous works on career theory have focused on the traditional, linear makeup of careers (e.g., Sullivan, 1999), but more recently, scholars have become interested in nontraditional views of careers (e.g., protean and kaleidoscope), which are

often labeled boundaryless careers (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Hall, 1996; Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005; Sullivan, 1999).

### **Traditional Career Model**

Since the industrial revolution, the traditional career model has been the foundation for the career systems of many organizations (Baruch, 2006). This model is most commonly associated with employees' vertical success, climbing up the ladder (McDonald, Brown, & Bradley, 2005), and is rigid and hierarchically structured (Baruch, 2006). Organizations with tradition career systems lead to employees having careers that are structured, predictable, and linear (Baruch, 2006). As a result of employees' ambition to climb the hierarchical ladder, career success was often evaluated on external indicators of achievement (e.g. salary and promotion), rate of upward mobility (Baruch, 2004), and increased seniority (Reitman & Schneer, 2003).

In college athletics, while the literature does not address the traditional career model and the coaching profession, it has been slated that "the concepts of work and career trajectories have become institutionalized" (Bruening & Dixon, 2008, p. 11). Consequently, individuals who work long hours, travel constantly for competition and recruiting have been viewed as ideal workers. "These work patterns have come to be seen as "normal" and expected in order to be successful" (Bruening & Dixon, 2008, p. 11). Therefore, using the traditional perspective, those coaches who put in long work hours where supervisors are present and exhaustively recruit may advance at a quicker rate than those coaches who do not devote as much time or energy to the job.

## **Nontraditional Career Models**

As organizations transition with the globalization of work and advancements in technology, careers are becoming less predictable, more dynamic, and fluid (Grimland, Vigoda-Gadot, & Baruch, 2012). Thus, a major criticism of the traditional career model was found in the way organizations managed its people. Over the past three decades, scholars have addressed this criticism by proposing various career models (e.g., protean and kaleidoscope) that support employees' management of their own career (Hall, 1976; Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005). Often employees' careers that fall outside of the traditional career model are labeled boundaryless (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Sullivan, 1999). Protean careers and kaleidoscope careers are boundaryless in nature and significant to research for this study.

**Boundaryless careers.** Many scholars and practitioners have accepted the boundaryless career concept as a metaphor in the field of career theory (Briscoe & Hall, 2006). Arthur and Rousseau's (1996) book *The Boundaryless Careers* provided six different meanings of boundaryless careers, involving careers that:

1. Move across the boundaries of separate employers;
2. Draw validation and marketability from outside the present employer;
3. Sustained by external networks or information;
4. Depart from traditional organizational assumptions about hierarchy and career advancement;
5. Involve an individual rejecting existing career opportunities for personal or family reasons;

6. Based on the interpretation of the career actor, who may perceive a boundaryless future regardless of structural constraints (p.6).

Boundaryless careers are not tied to a single organization and are less vertical and stable than organizational careers (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Chan et al., 2012). Also, boundaryless careers are multifaceted and considered on the dimensions of physical and/or psychological mobility (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006).

Physical mobility is the transition across boundaries (e.g., between occupations and firm levels), and psychological mobility is the perceived capacity for change (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006). With this understanding, Sullivan and Arthur (2006) broadly classified boundaryless careers into four quadrants. In quadrant 1 careers exhibit low levels of both physical and psychological mobility; in quadrant 2 careers are considered to be high in physical but low in psychological mobility; in quadrant 3 careers exhibit strong levels of psychological but no physical mobility; and, in quadrant 4 are careers that exhibit both physical and psychological mobility (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006). Additional, boundaryless careers encompass exploring opportunities and relationships, most commonly outside of work (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006). Table 1 summarizes the differences between the traditional career model and boundaryless career concept.

Table 2.1

*Comparison of Traditional and Boundaryless Careers*

	Traditional	Boundaryless
Employment Relationship	Job security for loyalty	Employability for performance and flexibility
Boundaries	One or two firms	Multiple firms
Skills	Firm specific	Transferable
Success Measured	Pay, promotion, status	Psychologically meaningful work
Responsibility for Career Management	Organization	Individual
Training	Formal programs	On-the-job
Milestones	Age-related	Learning-related

*Note.* Adapted from Sullivan, S. E. (1999). The changing nature of careers: A review and research agenda. *Journal of Management*, 25(3), 457-484.

**Protean careers.** Derived from the Greek god Proteus, who could change shape at will (Hall, 1996), the protean career is described as a “career that is self-determined, driven by personal values rather than organizational rewards, and serving the whole person, family, and life purpose” (Hall, 2004, p. 2). This nontraditional career model is one of the most innovative approaches to capture the new notion of career systems (Hall, 2004).

Briscoe and Hall (2006) suggested that a protean career orientation encompasses values instilled in the individual and self-directedness. For instance, when Briscoe and Hall (2006) combined the two attitudes of values and self-directedness, four primary career orientations emerged. The first was labeled a dependent career orientation, which is when an individual is low on following their values and low in self-directedness.

Reactive career orientation is described as when an individual manages his own career



and is guided by external values instead of the internal values. Those individuals who are guided by internal values but lack control and self-directedness over their career have a rigid career orientation. Lastly, those individuals who are value-driven and self-driven are said to have a protean career orientation (Briscoe & Hall, 2006).

According to Waterman, Waterman, and Collard (1996), protean careers emphasize self-knowledge, flexibility, information seeking, and prioritization of career objectives, both mid- and long-term, independently of the employing organization. Employees concentrate on future employability as much as present employment (Duarte, 2009). Also, protean careers are more concerned with personal characteristics and values (e.g., greater attention to work-life balance) than mobility as found in boundaryless careers (as cited in Briscoe & Hall, 2006).

In contrast with the traditional view of careers, a protean career view assumes a greater importance on the impact of new technologies, the notion of the organization itself as a career system in its entirety, and its evolution of concepts of work (Hall, 2004). Success in protean careers is seen as psychological successes such as feelings of pride, personal accomplishment, and happiness (Hall, 1996). After exploring the impact a protean career attitude has on an individual's career success, De Vos and Soens (2008) found support for prior research suggesting protean careers engaged individuals in defining and directing their own career path.

### **Interaction between Gender and Traditional versus Protean Careers**

Scholarly literature on the traditional and protean career model have included gender as a topic of interest (Briscoe, Hall, & DeMuth, 2006; Valcour & Ladge, 2008). A

focus of this exploratory study regards gender as an important factor in individuals' careers, thus before describing the theoretical framework used for the study, it was deemed significant to reference literature linking the career models and gender.

**Traditional careers and gender.** Valcour and Ladge's (2008) article utilizing the traditional career model and protean career model to explain women's career paths, stated, "it [traditional career model] puts emphasis on continuous, full-time, long-term organizational employment, coupled with extensive commitment to one's career and organization, the traditional career is heavily gendered in nature" (Valcour & Ladge, 2008, p. 300). Additionally, according to Valcour and Ladge (2008),

The traditional career perspective would suggest that women's objective career success is likely to be limited by family factors including early-career childbearing, larger family size and prioritization of the husband's career in family decision-making, and by related deviations from the normative pattern of continuous full-time organizational employment such as career gaps, part-time work, and movement between organizations rather than up an organizational hierarchy (p. 301).

The aforementioned statement argues that the traditional career model may neglect women's needs. Although there is a dearth of literature addressing college athletic personnel and the traditional career model, there have been studies addressing the traditional career model in higher education as it relates to gender and tenured faculty.

In Mason and Goulden's (2002) investigation of family formation and its effect on careers of men and women in the academy, findings reported men [faculty] with early babies (a child in the household within five years of receiving a Ph.D.) were 38% more likely to achieve a tenured faculty position than were women with an early baby. The same authors conducted a follow-up study to determine if women in the academy chose

not to have children in order to reach top-tier ranks in the profession (Mason & Goulden, 2004). It was discovered that one in three women who took a fast-track university job before having a child never becomes a mother. After the conclusions of the study, the authors highlighted “Women, it seems, cannot have it all—tenure and a family—while men can” (Mason & Goulden, 2004, p. 2). Additionally, women with their doctorates who were not working or who had adjunct or part-time positions had children and experienced marital stability much like men who become professors (Mason & Goulden, 2004, p. 3). Thus, research shows the traditional career model does not take into account family factors that may cause women, in particular, to be less committed to their organization and career (Valcour & Ladge, 2008).

In the realm of college athletics, Dixon and Bruening (2007) explored the work-family conflict of NCAA Division I female coaches who were mothers from a sociocultural, organizational, and individual perspective. Utilizing this top-down perspective, it was found that,

Traditional definitions of a coaching job, family roles, motherhood, and fatherhood clearly shaped the workplace, the family, and feelings of conflict. Hegemonic sociocultural definitions of work, particularly coaching, assumed a workplace where the worker could commit not only his time and energy, but his spouse’s, as well. Thus, workers who fit that model succeeded in that workplace, and others who did not have those resources (i.e., they had more home responsibilities or their spouse also worked) struggled (p. 398).

The aforementioned statement from Dixon and Bruening’s (2007) study suggests the traditional definitions of a career in coaching do not support those individuals who cannot give the career all of their time and energy. As research shows men and women follow different career patterns (Sullivan et al., 2009), therefore, the traditional view of

coaching may be disadvantageous for women and could contribute to the underrepresentation of women as head coaches in intercollegiate athletics.

**Protean careers and gender.** Much of the research on protean careers has investigated the role gender plays in the construction of career paths and women's participation in creating protean careers for themselves at different points in life. Briscoe et al. (2006) developed scales for both protean and boundaryless career attitudes. Although it was found that there was no significant relationship between gender and the scores, gender has been found to influence the protean career orientation. For instance, Cabrera (2009) investigated women's adaptation of protean careers in an effort to help organizations retain female talent. Following a qualitative approach where women who had voluntarily left the workplace were interviewed, it was found that the majority of the women, when returning to the workforce, followed a protean career orientation, changing careers or working part-time. In an investigation of the motivations of women in their careers, Segers, Inceoglu, Vloeberghs, Bartram, and Henderickx (2008) discovered that compared to their male counterpart, women were motivated by their values and desire for personal growth when making career decisions.

Reitman and Schneer's (2003) longitudinal investigation of managerial careers found that compared to the traditional career path, women who chose a protean career path were as likely as men on a protean career path to be married and have children. As such, the protean career path allowed women to effectively manage work and family responsibilities. Also, McDonald et al. (2005) investigated the career paths of senior managers and whether these paths varied by gender. It was concluded that the trend

towards protean careers was more pronounced for women than for men. These findings were also supported by Mainiero and Sullivan's (2005) study, which found that women made career decisions based on their relationships and family structure.

Careers in college sport may be distinct in nature due to the culture of the industry, which demands a high degree of time commitment (Schenewark & Dixon, 2012; Wong, 2012). While there is a growing amount of literature on athletes' transition from the playing field to a career outside of sport (Baillie & Danish, 1992; Barker, Barker-Ruchti, Rynne, & Lee, 2014; Park, 2013), there is a lack of literature addressing sport coaches' career transitions. Of the literature, Lavalley (2006) examined coaches who had retired from full-time coaching in the United Kingdom. It was found that coaches had paid little attention to post-sport career planning and were also reluctant to consider careers outside of coaching.

The traditional career model may not be the career model best suited for women's careers in sport. The protean career view allows for the management of one's own career. The KCM, however, serves as the theoretical framework for this study, as it is proposed that this nontraditional career model be utilized to explore the career needs and decisions of intercollegiate head coaches.

### **Theoretical Framework**

Over the past two decades, new theories of women's development have emerged, which concentrate on the significance of relationships in women's lives (Gilligan, 1982; Miller, 1986). In Miller's (1986) book titled *Towards a New Psychology of Women*, "women have been assigned to the realms of life concerned with building relationships,

especially relationships that foster development” (p. xii). In further literature regarding women’s development, Gilligan (1982) noted gender differences in feelings towards caring, relationships, and connections with other people among males and females. The author revealed that women’s development was set within the context of caring and relationships, rather than in compliance with an abstract set of rights or rules (Young, 1999). As the literature expands on women’s psychological development, the research on women’s career development has grown exponentially (Phillips & Imhoff, 1997). In an extensive literature review on women’s career development, it was determined a major gap in the literature is the limited knowledge about the changes and transitions in women’s vocational lives (Phillips & Imhoff, 1997). This project intended to narrow the gap in the literature on women’s careers by the growing, yet limited research on the KCM.

### **Kaleidoscope Career Model (KCM)**

As the above research notes, women are relational (Gilligan, 1982). Consequently, when making career decisions, women are primarily concerned with how their decisions will impact those around them. Women often negotiate their own needs with their family, friends, and others (August, 2011). Critical to Mainiero and Sullivan’s (2005) inspiration for a new career model, they felt as women negotiate needs between career and relationships, some may choose to leave their career or deny opportunities for advancement in an effort to meet relational needs. The authors were motivated by the media frenzy which suggested qualified and experienced women “opt-out” of the workforce to have kids, but Mainiero and Sullivan (2005) believed there were more

complex reasons aside from having children as to why women were leaving their careers. In response to the “opt-out revolution” as it was labeled, Mainiero and Sullivan (2005) felt it was “time to articulate a new model for careers that deconstructs what employees are doing today” (p. 108).

Mainiero and Sullivan (2005) completed a multiple pronged, three-series study to investigate and compare both men and women’s career transitions and motivations. Study 1 was focused solely on women. The authors survey 109 women, where they were asked to describe their careers in detail. Sample questions included “Please list the transitions you have made over the course of your career”, and “How have issues regarding balancing work and nonwork demands influenced your career decisions?” (p. 120). In Study 2, the authors utilized an internet market research firm platform to survey 837 men and 810 women. The 40-item survey asked a variety of demographic questions (e.g., race, income, age, industry affiliation) and also asked participants to choose statements that best described their career now (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005, p. 121). Lastly, Study 3 was qualitative in nature where 5 women and 22 men enrolled in an Executive MBA program participated in a series of online conversations with the authors. The primary focus of the study was to learn more about men’s careers and transitions (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005, p. 121). The online conversations were sparked by questions from the authors that included: “Have gender issues affected your career in any way?” and “Tell me about your future plans” (p.121). The responses were then coded concerning authenticity, balance, and challenge.

From the extensive three-series study, Mainiero and Sullivan (2005) determined men and women describe their careers differently. More specifically, “many women examined the opportunities, roadblocks, and possibilities, then forged their own approach to a career without regard for traditional career models and standard measures of achievement” (p. 109). This finding relates closely with the description of the protean career orientation, which the person is in control of the career, not the organization, and is driven by personal values rather than organizational rewards (Hall, 2004). Conversely, men were found to typically follow a traditional, linear career path in which they remain in the same industry throughout their career span. Thus, the term kaleidoscope career was introduced as a way to explain women’s career transitions and decisions (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005).

The KCM uses a kaleidoscope metaphor to explain shifts in the patterns of a woman’s career. Inside a kaleidoscope there are three mirrors which reflect colors. As the kaleidoscope turns or shifts, the mirrors reflect infinite patterns of colors. Mainiero and Sullivan (2005) use the kaleidoscope metaphor as the foundation for their new career model. Following their extensive study in which over 3,000 men and women working in a variety of occupations were surveyed about the transitions in their careers and why those transitions occurred, the authors concluded men follow a more traditional, linear career path, working for one or two organizations through their lifespan and climbing the corporate ladder. Women, on the other hand, follow a nontraditional career path, choosing to leave the workforce or change careers based on where they are in their lives. Mainiero and Sullivan (2005) more clearly indicated,



The voices of the women in our research tell us that women are more interested in creating a career their way, through lateral but challenging assignments, opportunities that fit their lives, entrepreneurial activities, or flexible scheduling, rather than focusing on advancement for the sake of advancement. This is not to say that women are not interested in advancement; they are. Lots of women are. But the women in our research were more interested in making the career suit their lives, rather than allowing the career to overtake their lives (p. 113).

**ABC's of the KCM.** In connection to the kaleidoscope metaphor, Mainiero and Sullivan (2005) found during different periods in women's lives, they have three parameters, or career needs that influence their career development and decisions. The author's coined authenticity, balance, and challenge as the ABC's of the KCM (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005). *Authenticity* is defined as being true to oneself and making decisions that suit the self above others. It often leads individuals to looking for work compatible with their values (Cabrera, 2009). *Balance* is defined as making decisions so that the various aspects of one's life, including work and nonwork, form a coherent whole. This career needs involves an importance in work-life balance (Cabrera, 2009). Lastly, *challenge*, is defined as engaging in activities so that one can pursue autonomy, responsibility, and control while learning and growing (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005). Challenge as a career need involves individual's pursuit of continuous learning and mastery (Cabrera, 2009).

From the research, as women shift their kaleidoscope, authenticity, balance, and challenge combine in different ways at different stages in life that then reflect a unique pattern. With the shifts, women's career needs change, and their career patterns change. The parameters are always present and active, but carry different levels of importance during different stages in life (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005, 2006). In an effort to assess the

three parameters of the KCM, there have been a limited number of studies looking at the career stages of women and how they shift in regards to authenticity, balance, and challenge. From the aforementioned three-series study, Mainiero and Sullivan (2005) found women early in their career focus on challenge, those in mid-career focus on balance, and women in late career focus on authenticity.

**KCM literature.** In a follow-up study examining distinct career patterns for men and women, Sullivan and Mainiero (2007) concluded women follow a beta kaleidoscope career pattern while men follow an alpha kaleidoscope career pattern. In detail, a *beta* career pattern is characterized by women placing an emphasis on challenge in early career, followed by balance as the key focus in mid-career, and authenticity taking priority in late career. Conversely, an *alpha* career pattern, primarily male-oriented, is characterized as challenge being central in early career, followed by authenticity in mid-career, and a focus for balance in late career. In an article exploring men and women accountants' experience with career plateau, Smith-Ruig (2009) found support for men following an alpha career pattern and women taking to a beta career pattern.

In an exploratory study using the KCM to investigate the motivations and career decisions of entrepreneurs, Sullivan, Forret, Mainiero, and Terjesen (2007) used two surveys of entrepreneurs and in-depth interviews via "one of the largest established marketing research panels in the United States" (p. 9). It was found that the KCM parameters of authenticity, balance, and challenge were motivators and drove the career decisions of entrepreneurs in the study. Also, it was concluded that authenticity, balance,

and challenge were important career needs for entrepreneurs looking for change in their careers at different points in their lives (Sullivan, et al., 2007).

Using the KCM as a way to investigate why women leave the workplace, Cabrera (2007) compared a cross-sectional sample of women in their early, mid, and late careers. Of the study's sample, "sixty-two percent of women reported that their career focus had changed over time" (p.12). The results indicated that women begin their career focused on challenge, and later move towards a concern for balance. Also, the desire for authenticity increased throughout the lifespan and across the career stages (Cabrera, 2007). Similarly, in an additional study, Cabrera (2009) examined two career models as it related to women's career decisions, the protean career and the KCM. It was found that a large portion of her female sample, which was in mid-career, followed a protean career direction, in which their career attitudes were guided by personal values and self-directedness. Also, as the KCM suggests, balance was the most emphasized career need for women in mid-career, and authenticity was highest for women in late career (Cabrera, 2009).

In an effort to expand the research using the KCM, (Sullivan et al., 2009) conducted a comparison study of the career needs of the Baby Boomer generation and members of Generation X. They found members of Generation X showed a greater desire for authenticity and balance than baby boomers did. In connection to the older population, from a KCM perspective, August (2011) examined women's career development in later life. This was the first study to look at a sample of women ages 60 or older. Results suggested even in later life, concerns for authenticity, balance, and

challenge remained present. Additionally, women in later life were primarily concerned with authenticity, while balance became less difficult to manage compared to earlier years. Finally, challenge was ongoing and present in the women's lives and had the "most consistent meaning over the career cycle, sharing virtually all of the same underlying ideas" (August, 2011, p. 230) as described by previous KCM research (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005, 2006).

The existing literature on the KCM provides support for using this framework to assess individual's career needs. However, there is a gap in the literature when investigating men and women's career needs within a specific occupation. Sullivan and Mainiero's (2007) examination of the career needs and patterns (alpha and beta careers) is the primary study that focused on both men and women employees. This exploratory study attempted to narrow the gap by studying the career needs of both men and women serving as intercollegiate head coaches. It is unknown if authenticity, balance, and challenge as suggested by the KCM describes coaches' career needs and if there are differences in the career needs for these coaches at different points in the career.

The declining trend of women's representation in collegiate coaching is an issue this study attempted to address. The demands of the career (e.g., nontraditional work hours and extensive travel), challenges to balance work and family, privation of female role models in sport, the male-dominated culture, and the lack of advancement opportunities have been coined barriers for women in the coaching profession (Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Inglis, Danylchuk, & Pastore, 2000). In an effort to support women in the coaching profession and to promote coaching as a viable career option for women of

all ages, it was critical to review the literature regarding women's opportunities at work, both in education and in sport. Also, the challenges women face at work (e.g., glass ceiling, culture of athletics, and work-family conflict) were explored. The KCM was created with women in mind (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005). If individuals are redefining the meaning of career and taking nontraditional or multi-directional career routes, as the literature suggests (Baruch, 2004; Hall, 2006; Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005), it was important to understand the strides women have made at work and also the disparities that still exist.

## **Women in the Workplace**

### **Women in the Academy**

Women have made tremendous strides in education. In 1972, President Nixon signed into law Title IX of the Education Amendments Act, which prohibited discrimination on the basis of sex for all educational programs or activities that receive funding from the federal government (Kwak, 2012). The law was designed to increase educational opportunities for women. Since the passage of Title IX, between 1999 and 2009, women in the U.S. showed a 25% increase in enrollment in colleges and universities. Today, women currently earn more than one-half of all bachelor's and master's degrees in the United States (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2013) and over 52% of all doctorate degrees, outnumbering men in 7 out of 11 graduate fields (Perry, 2014). Despite the improvements in the number of women obtaining doctorate degrees, there remains a gender gap in the academy.

In 2012, of women in the academy in the U.S., 32% were in non-tenure track positions, 23.9% were in tenure-track positions, and 44% were tenured. In contrast, of the men in academy in the U.S., 19% were in non-tenure track positions, 19% were in tenure-track positions, and 62.0% were tenured (Catalyst, 2012b). The National Study of Postsecondary Faculty examined salary, promotion, and tenure status of minority and women faculty working in colleges and universities in the U.S. It was found that the percentage of female full-time faculty who held the rank of full professor (15%) was less than half the percentage of men (39%), and women were more likely than men to hold the lower ranks of assistant professor, instructor, and lecturer. Also, a smaller share of women (42%) than men (66%) held tenured positions among full-time faculty with a higher percentage of women than men not on a tenure track. Thus, women were not only less likely to have tenure; they were also more likely to be employed in positions that would not lead to tenure (Nettles, Perna, & Bradburn, 2000).

Similarly, a study examining Australian women in academia found that despite the passage of Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) legislation, women were still underrepresented and the authors suggested more be done on the organizations' part to ensure gender equality. These suggestions for action included cultural change programs and behaviors that challenge male homogeny in academia (Kjeldal, Rindfleish, & Sheridan, 2005). An investigation of the status of women in social work education concluded that despite women making up nearly 64% of faculty in social work education in the U.S., there were pervasive gender differences in salary, tenure, and teaching opportunities (Sakamoto, Anastas, McPhail, & Colarossi, 2008). Specifically, women

were over-represented among clinical faculty (non-tenure track) and the assistant and instructor levels (tenure track). However, men predominated with tenure and rank of full professor. Also, women were primarily employed at undergraduate-only programs and smaller universities while men were more likely to be employed in joint programs and at larger institutions. In terms of salary, even when the authors controlled for job characteristics that could affect salary (e.g., rank and productivity) men earned on average \$9,000 more than their female counterpart (Sakamoto et al., 2008).

Bain and Cummings' (2000) work assessed 10 university systems in an effort to identify barriers (i.e., societal, profession-organizational, and institutional) that women faced when aiming to advance in the academic field. In their sample, women constituted for one-third of all academics, but only one in ten full professors were women. They concluded women were underrepresented in the academic profession.

Consistent with women in the academy, those in sport have made strides towards equality but there remains a gender gap in athletics. The gains young girls and women have made in sport is detailed below followed by the issue of underrepresentation of women as coaches and administrators in intercollegiate athletics.

### **Women and Athletics**

Title IX of the Education Amendments Act was designed to increase educational opportunities for women. However, Title IX is most commonly known for opening doors for women and girls in athletics (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012). The 40<sup>th</sup> anniversary of the passage of Title IX was recently celebrated and there is no question the presence of females in athletics, both playing and working in sport, have made tremendous strides

since 1972. For instance, according to the National Federation of State High School Associations (2014), during the 1971-1972 school year, 294,015 girls participated in high school sports. In contrast, during the 2013-2014 school year, approximately 3,267,664 girls participated in high school sports. Similarly, at the college level, in 1972, only 16,000 females participated in intercollegiate athletics. As of 2012, 200,000 females at 4-year institutions participated intercollegiate athletics (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012).

For women striving to have a career in intercollegiate athletics (e.g., coaching, administration, sports information, strength and conditioning, and athletic training), data shows since 1972, women's opportunities to work in sport has improved. For example, in 2000, there were 3,420 female head coaches in intercollegiate athletics. In 2012, this number grew to 3,974. Also, in 1996, there were 3,573 paid female assistant coaches. Sixteen years later, this number was up to 7,024 (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012). The increase in the number of female assistant coaches may be attributed to past teaching positions women held. In detail, "prior to Title IX, few of the female coaches were paid for their coaching duties. After Title IX, coaches of women's teams began to be paid for their efforts thus making the jobs a bit more inviting" (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012, p. 17).

In their exploration of the impact Title IX had on the careers of men and women working as athletic administrators in intercollegiate athletics, Bower and Hums (2013) found that women and men agreed as both believed women have experienced an increase in job opportunities as a result of Title IX. Women also felt opportunities to participate had increased due to Title IX. However, men felt Title IX negatively impacted their careers, as it opened the door to discrimination against hiring qualified men (Bower &



Hums, 2013). Regardless of the varying perceptions of the positive and negative impacts of Title IX and the statistics that suggest women's opportunities in sport have risen, fewer women are pursuing a career in college coaching and administration.

**Decline in female coaches and administrators.** While Title IX has impacted athletics tremendously, careers in athletic administration and coaching, remain traditionally male-dominated (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012; Knoppers, Meyer, Ewing, & Forrest, 1991; Knoppers, 1992; Whisenant, 2003). As Hattery (2012) put it, “women's attempts to crack the hyper-masculine, hyper-sex segregated world of sports have similarly met with difficulty” (Hattery, 2012). Consequently, there remains a gender gap in the number of women with coaching and administration careers compared to men. In 1978, close to 90% of females' coached female sports while as of 2012, this number decreased to 42.9%. This means that out of 100 female sports teams, only 43 head coaches are female. Conversely, 57.1% of men are head coaches of female teams (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012)

An article in *Sports Illustrated* focused on the uproar caused by the recent hire of Jimmy Dykes as Arkansas' head women's basketball coach. Dykes, a former commentator for ESPN, worked primarily with men's basketball. He also has experience as a professional scout for the National Basketball Association (NBA) and has been a men's assistant basketball coach. However, Dykes has never been a head coach nor has he coached women's college basketball. Many in the college coaching profession believe the decision to hire Dykes is disappointing and disrespectful to women in college coaching (Davis, 2014). In response to the controversy, Jeff Long, Arkansas' athletic

director stated, "For whatever reason, we haven't been able to attract a higher quality of female applicants for jobs at Arkansas. We also need more women who coach women's basketball advocating for their assistants. I'll be candid and say I didn't have that in my search" (Davis, 2014, para. 12). This article emphasized the lack of representation of women coaches in college athletics and the challenge athletic administrators find in recruiting and retaining qualified coaches.

The data also indicates as the number of female athletic teams grows, the number of female coaches and administrators is declining. In 1972 to over 90% of women's intercollegiate athletics programs were administered by a female while almost no females administered programs which included men's teams (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012). The high number of female athletic directors can be attributed to the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW), an organization where women athletic directors supervised women sports. Following an aggressive takeover of the AIAW by the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), the Senior Woman Administrator (SWA) was created to provide women a voice in and to integrate women in the governance of intercollegiate athletics (Hoffman, 2010). Despite the leadership roles the SWA position intended to create for women in intercollegiate athletics, according to Hatfield, Hatfield, and Drummond (2003), it remains unclear if the SWA role is a terminal career position or prepares women leaders for career advancement. Currently, of all NCAA divisions (I, II, and III), only 20.9% of athletic directors in intercollegiate athletics are female (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012), which also illustrates a disparity in women's representation in intercollegiate athletics.

Despite the increased opportunities available for girls to play sports as a result of Title IX, it has been stated that “female coaches have become a casualty of the same law that provided such huge benefits to female athletes” (Greenwell, 2012, para. 5). Further, “the explanation for the downward trend is as simple as it is discouraging. By legitimizing women’s sports, Title IX bestowed a new level of respect — and significantly higher salaries — on college coaching jobs, transforming them from passion projects for the most dedicated women’s sports advocates to serious career paths” (Greenwell, 2012, para. 6). Greenwell (2012) instigates that the overtime the nature of coaching has transformed into a serious career that requires a high level of commitment, which may negatively impact women opting in to the career.

Furthermore, the decline in women at the head coaching ranks in college athletics may be attributed to fewer female athletes striving to become coaches. Greenwell (2012) cited a few examples explaining why there has been a trending decline in women being hired as head coaches at the collegiate level. These examples include:

1. Job opportunities doubled for graduating male athletes who were not going pro but wanted to stay in the game;
2. Athletic directors, whose ranks have always been overwhelmingly male, increasingly hired other men for open positions; and
3. Since 2000, men have been hired for more than two-thirds of open jobs coaching women’s teams (para. 7).

Consistent with this argument, in a longitudinal study on female representation in coaching and administrative positions, it was found that only 20.3% of all athletic

directors across NCAA divisions are female. Additionally, 9.2% of college athletic programs had no females representing athletic administrative positions (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012).

In a study investigating how, and if gender roles made a difference in the hiring practices of athletic directors, compliance directors, and life-skills directors at universities across the country, it was found that females were more likely to be chosen for a life-skills position where males were more likely to be chosen for athletic director positions, even with the exact same background and attributes as female candidates (“Women breaking the glass ceiling”, 2013).

Similarly, in a qualitative study exploring the ideas of very successful female coaches in the United Kingdom as a means to encourage young coaches to pursue a career in sport, it was found that in sport, a culture dominated by masculine hegemony, restricted coaches’ opportunities for career development (Norman, 2012). Also, through the interview process, the author found that “they [coaches] are aware of the fact that female coaches are virtually invisible in leadership roles and are prepared to take some responsibility for enabling other women to reach the highest levels of coaching” (Norman, 2012, p. 235).

### **Challenges for Women at Work**

The difficulties for women to strive in a career in college athletics may be attributed to various challenges women face at work. Therefore, research addressing specific invisible and visible obstacles women face at work included: the glass ceiling, culture of athletics, and work-family conflict.

**Glass ceiling.** The United States workforce is more diverse than ever and this increase in diversity may be contributed to racial and ethnic minorities making up a larger portion of the United States population and more women entering the workforce (Burns, Barton, & Kerby, 2012). As of 2012, women made up 47% of the United States workforce, 36% were people of color. Further, in 2011, women accounted for 51% of all persons employed in management, professional, and related occupations. Although women comprise of nearly half of the workforce, only 14.3% of Executive Officers in Fortune 500 companies were women. This number has remained stagnant, showing a 1% decrease since 2010 (Catalyst, 2012a). The disparity of women and minorities in top leadership roles has received attention from literature regarding the glass ceiling due to the persistence of the issue (Dreher, 2003; Kennedy, 2009; Lockwood, 2004; Morrison, White, & Van Velsor, 1994; Pai & Vaidya, 2006; Powell & Butterfield, 1994; Ragins, 1998).

In a *Wall Street Journal* article, Hymowitz and Schellhardt (1986) coined the term “glass ceiling” to refer to invisible barriers faced by both women and minorities in the workplace. More specifically, barriers faced by women and minorities who “attempt, or aspire, to attain senior positions (as well as higher salary levels) in corporations, government, education, and nonprofit organizations (Lockwood, 2004, p. 2). As a result of the glass ceiling phenomenon, the Glass Ceiling Act was enacted in 1991. This act was included in the Civil Rights Act of 1991, and consequently, a bipartisan group of 21-members, labeled The Federal Glass Ceiling Commission was established “to conduct a study and prepare recommendations on eliminating artificial barriers to the advancement

of women and minorities to management and decision-making positions in business” (Glass Ceiling Commission, 1995, p. iii). The fact-finding report conducted by the Glass Ceiling Commission (1995) found that the glass ceiling does exist and it substantially excludes women and minorities from advancement opportunities to top level management positions. For example, in a study investigating the presence of the glass ceiling in publicly traded corporations with 500 employees or more in Texas, it was found with a sample of 257 corporations, only two corporations had female CEO’s. Ironically, these two corporations (Zale Corp and Tuesday Morning Corp) cater to females (Pai & Vaidya, 2006).

Amongst the report’s findings of the obvious existence of the glass ceiling in business, the report identified three levels of barriers in the private sector that impede the advancement opportunities of women and minority workers, arguing the barriers “contradict this nation’s ethic of individual worth and accountability—the belief that education, training, dedication, and hard work will lead to a better life” (Glass Ceiling Commission, 2005, p. 7). As identified in the report, societal barriers are those that may be outside of the direct control of the business (e.g., The Supply Barrier related to educational opportunity and attainment, and The Difference Barrier related to stereotyping, prejudice and bias in regard to gender, race, and ethnicity). Internal structural barriers include outreach, recruitment, and training practices that do not reach, recruit, or develop women and minorities (e.g., The Pipeline Barriers, including a lack of mentoring, management training, and few opportunities for career development). Similarly, as cited by Oakley (2000), specific barriers include corporate policies and

practices, training and development, promotion policies, compensation practices, behavioral and cultural explanations, behavioral double binds, communication styles, preferred leadership styles, power in a corporate culture, maintaining the status quo (“old boy” networks), and tokenism in top management circles. Lastly, governmental barriers refer to a lack of consistent monitoring and law enforcement, weaknesses in the collection of employee-data to evaluate businesses hiring and training practices, and an inadequate reporting and sharing of glass ceiling issues (Glass Ceiling Commission, 1995).

*Glass ceiling in sport.* Much of the literature on the probable glass ceiling effects focuses on women and minorities opportunities for advancement in corporate America. However, there is visible disparity of the representation of women and minorities in intercollegiate athletics in head coach and athletic director positions (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012; Cunningham, 2010). In an interview in which an article highlighted women breaking the glass ceiling in sport management, Dr. Grappendorf, a former assistant professor at North Carolina State University emphasized the challenge for women attempting to obtain management positions when she stated,

It seems like there is, unfortunately, a ‘catch-22’ for women in management roles-particularly in sports. The assumption has been that masculine attributes like aggressiveness and competitiveness are needed for management-level positions, yet women who display those attributes are still not given the same opportunities as men. Even worse, if they do happen to be hired, women are often looked down upon by colleagues for having those masculine qualities (“Women breaking the glass ceiling”, 2013, para. 6).

Pedersen and Whisenant (2005) investigated the status and success rates of interscholastic athletic directors, with gender as a primary focus. In their study, 90% of

the athletic directors were male, but of those females who had “penetrated the glass ceiling” were found to advance at a rate comparable to their male counterpart (p. 183). Also, once in the role, female athletic directors were found to have rates of tenure comparable to the male athletic directors (Pedersen & Whisenant, 2005).

The culture of college athletics may produce challenges for individuals working as college coaches. It is significant to address the distinct culture within the workplace of sport organizations and college athletic departments (Bruening & Dixon, 2007) as it could produce difficulties for the employees, their families, and the organization as a whole in retaining quality coaches.

**Culture of athletics.** Young girls and women now have the opportunity to play and work in sport. However sport remains a male-dominated entity that salivates for competition, power, and aggression. Scholars agree that sport has a culture where masculine hegemony is the norm (Norman, 2012; Trujillo, 1991), and “perhaps no single institution in American culture has influenced our sense of masculinity more than sport” (Trujillo, 1991, p. 2). In a qualitative study of female coaches in the United Kingdom, Norman (2010) examined how sport promotes and maintains a gender order unfavorable to women. Through interviews with successful female coaches, it was found that female coaches felt the need to continually prove themselves and often experienced coaching as a hostile and intimidating culture (Norman, 2010). Additionally, “throughout our history, dominant groups have successfully persuaded many Americans to believe that sports build manly character, develops physical fitness, realizes order, promotes justice, and even prepares young men for war” (as cited in Trujillo, 1991, p. 2). Similarly, the culture



of college sports breeds long hours and travel demands for most coaches. It has been shown that careers requiring extensive travel and has long or irregular work hours often eat into personal life and family time (Hakim, 2006).

### **Job Satisfaction**

In the sport literature, there has been an interest in understanding coaches' job satisfaction (Dixon & Sagas, 2007; Kim & Cunningham, 2005; Pastore, 1994; Yusof, 1999). In an effort to retain valuable coaches in the career, job satisfaction may be a good measure. In the literature, for example, Sagas and Batista (2001) found as job satisfaction increased, a coach's intent to leave the profession decreased. Chelladurai and Ogasawara (2003) suggested the athletic departments focus on coaches' satisfaction with their jobs in an effort to keep them within the organization. Likewise, Sagas and Ashley (2001) examined job satisfaction in the coaching profession and stated the importance of studying job satisfaction to understand turnover in female coaches. Therefore, in order to more deeply understand the careers of head coaches and disparity of women working as college head coaches, job satisfaction was measured.

### **Women and Family**

The literature presents evidence of a disparity among women coaches in intercollegiate athletic. One explanation for this gap could involve the challenges women face as they attempt to manage both their career and family responsibilities. The increase of women in the workforce has consequently made the challenge to balance work and home greater. Forty years ago, more women stayed at home and cared for the family. For instance, in 1969, 44% of married mothers with children under 15 years of age were stay-

at-home mothers. By 1979, this had decreased to 34% (Kreider & Elliott, 2010).

Presently, there are more women working who also have children (Higgins, Duxbury, & Lee, 1994), with working mothers representing the sole breadwinners for 40% of U.S. families (McVeigh, 2013).

**Women, family, and education.** In the education literature, there is evidence of women struggling to reach the top of their careers due to family. In a study examining dependent responsibilities of men and women medical school faculty as it relates to their aspirations, goals, rate of progress, academic productivity, and career satisfaction, it was reported that women faculty with children face major obstacles in their academic careers (Carr et al., 1998). Specifically, compared to men with children, women with children had fewer publications, less institutional support, slower self-perceived career progress, and lower career satisfaction (Carr et al., 1998). In another article exploring the effects of gender and family formation (i.e., marriage and children) on academic employment after receiving a Ph.D., it was found that both family and children account for the lower rate at which women obtain tenure-track jobs (Wolfinger, Mason, & Goulden, 2008). Likewise, William's (2004) study concluded that women who became mothers soon after completing their doctorate degrees were less likely to gain tenure than their male counterparts who become fathers at the same point in their educational pursuits.

It is suggested that because of family responsibilities, there are more women in part-time, nontenured, and lower tenure-line faculty ranks than men (Colbeck, 2006). In a *Boston Globe* article, it was expressed that women struggle with numerous disadvantages, such as discomfort with promoting themselves, a lack of access to the

informal networks, and women are disproportionately responsible for child care which requires more flexibility. Thus, exceptional female employees remain in middle management and eventually leave in frustration (Tuhus-Dubrow, 2009). In the American Association of University Professors (AAUP) report, it was determined that “the academy must make further efforts to convey to women that they no longer need to make a choice between raising children and becoming tenure-track faculty members” (West & Curtis, 2006, p. 14). Taking this into consideration, those organizations sensitive to the struggles women have, often thrive (Tuhus-Dubrow, 2009).

**Women, family, and athletics.** The sport industry, the nontraditional work environment, which demands long hours, nights, and weekends, may contribute to the challenges women face (e.g., Dixon & Bruening, 2007; Knoppers, 1992). In a *Time Magazine* article, Title IX’s success was reflected upon and may attribute to the decrease in women coaches. Specifically, because of Title IX’s success, women coaches are faced with expectations to win just as much as men and the nontraditional work hours put unique pressure on women with families (Gregory, 2007). Additionally, in Wilson’s (2007) article on the decrease of female coaches in college athletics, the biggest hurdles for women attempting to make a career in college coaching was seen to be the pace that the job requires. Recruiting, travel for competition, and taking role of substitute parents for the student-athletes contributed the most to challenge of the profession (Wilson, 2007). Much of the literature addressing the challenge to balance work and nonwork responsibilities is from a conflict perspective (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Work-family conflict is addressed below as a challenge for those working in college athletics.

*Work and family conflict in athletics.* The literature interested in work-family conflict is on the rise (Dixon & Bruening, 2005). Most literature has defined family as “two or more individuals occupying interdependent roles with the purpose of accomplishing shared goals” (Eby et al., 2005, p. 126). Work-family conflict is when work interferes with family and family-work conflict is when family interferes with work (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). This conflict is defined as “a type of interrole conflict wherein at least some work and family responsibilities are not compatible and have resultant effects on each domain” (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77). Work-family conflict is often linked to the term work-life balance. It is assumed if an individual is struggling to balance work and life, then conflict will exist. DiRenzo, Greenhaus, and Weer (2011) contributed the time requirements associated with work and the stressfulness of the job as the primary factors for high levels of work-family conflict. Likewise, demographic, individual, and organizational factors may impact the level of conflict between work and family. The demographic and individual factors include: gender, personality, values, family size; and organizational variables include: organizational culture, support, job pressure, work hours, and flextime (Bruening & Dixon, 2007). Accordingly, one may assume head coaches working in college athletics experience high levels of work-family conflict, because as literature shows, working in college athletics requires extensive time commitments and constant travel which eats into personal time (Hakim, 2006).

Dixon and Bruening (2005), pioneers in studying the work-family conflict theory in athletics, suggested investigating work-family conflict from an integrated approach

would allow for a deeper understanding of the concept on the individual, structural, and social level. They recommended future studies utilize the integrated approach to help decipher the “long-term influence of a male-dominated culture on the work-family interface, and ultimately who chooses to work within this type of culture” (Dixon & Bruening, 2005, p. 247). In a different study, Bruening and Dixon (2007) analyzed coping mechanism used to achieve success in juggling work and family. Similar to their previous research, they observed mothers who are NCAA Division I head coaches. They concluded work-family conflict did affect three major areas: work, family, and life.

When studying work-family conflict, family-work conflict, and work-family enrichment in collegiate coaches, Schenewark and Dixon (2012) concluded that work-family enrichment was not significant to career commitment but work-family conflict was significant in predicting career commitment. For individuals, interactions between work and family can result in positive outcomes such as enhanced job satisfaction, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction. Yet, there can also be negative outcomes such as reduced job satisfaction, conflict, poor health, stress, and job turnover (Dixon & Bruening, 2007). Additionally, it has been found that family-work conflict may be related to the job or workplace (Netemeyer et al., 1996).

In a review exploring the previous sport management literature addressing the tensions of the work-family interface of coaching fathers, Graham and Dixon (2014) emphasized the dearth of research studying this population in sport. Implications at the individual and organizational level, include positive outcomes (i.e., security in their life status, enrichment in their personality, an increase in their ability to function in each life

role, and enhanced overall sense of well-being) and negative outcome (i.e., dissatisfaction, distress, physical and emotional exhaustion, higher levels of dysfunctional behaviors, and decreased exercise).

Graham and Dixon (2014) posit the coaching subculture as a place where fathers face strong demands from both family and work. The literature review discussed hypermasculinity, time requirements, and sacrifice as major factors influencing the work and family interaction for fathers. Hypermasculinity in sport can be seen in sports such as football, soccer, hockey, and rugby. These competitions involve violence, aggression, and confrontation. Thus the hypermasculine culture may influence coaching fathers to act more aggressive at work while also rejecting less masculine roles at home (Graham & Dixon, 2014).

Another factor that may influence the work-family interaction is the long work hours the sport industry demands. As cited in Graham and Dixon's (2014) review, Lumpkin and Anshel (2012) investigated work addition in NCAA D-I coaches. As it relates to work-family interaction, it was found both male and female coaches worked a high number of hours and these expectations were both internally driven and externally support by the coaches' athletic directors. Likewise, face time, or time spent in the office contributed to the extensive hours coaches put in at work. This inflexible work expectation restricts a coaches' ability to balance work and family (Lumpkin & Anshel, 2012). Similarly, in one area of Everhart and Chelladurai's (1998) study, perceived barriers in preference to coach was assessed. Working hours were found to most negatively affect the desire to coach at every level. Likewise, in a study addressing the

external and internal barriers women coaches face, women participants cited “challenges of establishing a professional career during child-bearing years and the added pressure to balance two extremely demanding tasks” as an internal barrier to coaching (Kilty, 2006, p. 227). Furthermore, “coaches verbalized perceived choices of abandoning their professional pursuits for a while, hoping to resume it later in life or delaying professional advancement to have families” (p. 227). The last factor Graham and Dixon (2014) discussed that may impact the work-family interface for coaching fathers is sacrifice. It was suggested that the culture within sport breeds sacrifice as a means of commitment. Therefore, coaches may be deeply committed to their team while sacrificing time with their families, which correlates to work interfering with family.

From the reviewed literature, both male and female coaches are challenged to manage all demands that life brings. For women, although family responsibilities have been coined the primary reason they stay in middle level positions, leave the workforce, or never pursue a career in athletics, there may be other reasons for the difficulties of women in the workplace advancing in their careers. For example, women are often pulled from the workforce to care for elderly parents or to follow their spouse when relocating for a job (Cabrera, 2007). Eby (2001) found that 82% of accompanying spouses were women. Also, women are pushed out of the workforce due to lack of advancement opportunities, discrimination, or disdain for the corporate culture (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005).

A way for institutions to provide coaches the resources for advancement and fulfillment in their profession may be in further understanding of the career needs of their

employees. To date, the literature has neglected examining the career needs of intercollegiate coaches. After Bower (2008) completed an investigation of women's career paths to obtain management positions in the health and fitness industry, it was suggested that an area of future research would be to focus on women's career paths working in intercollegiate athletics.

This paper supports the notion that family may not be the single reason women coaches are underrepresented in college athletics. It is important to understand the career needs of both male and female college coaches to get a more comprehensive picture of the employees who hold the responsibility of leading student-athletes. Also, it is vital universities understand the obstacles and opportunities coaches have when trying to meet those career needs. In an effort to help organizations close the gender gap in intercollegiate athletics, this project proposes institutions begin to develop a kaleidoscope way of thinking, where they allow individuals to define their careers in relation to their values and life choices (Sullivan et al., 2007). Using the KCM may help uncover which career needs are most important for this population at different points in their career. The KCM literature suggests women early in their career focus on challenge, those in mid-career focus on balance, and women in late career focus on authenticity. For men, challenge is central in early career, followed by authenticity in mid-career, and a focus for balance in late career (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005; Mainiero & Sullivan, 2006).

### **Description of Sample**

In the aforementioned sections, pertinent literature was reviewed that served as the foundation for this study. It was established throughout this detailed review that



within the scope of college athletics, there is a persistent issue with women being underrepresented as head coaches. As such, the crux of the development of the KCM was to further understand and explain women's career needs and decisions. Therefore, this study intends to narrow the gap in the literature on the KCM by exploring both men and women head coaches' careers needs across the career span. Therefore, it is significant to acknowledge the research on the career stages (early, mid, and late) and provide a description of the sample that will be used for the study; head coaches working at the NCAA D-I level.

### **Career Stages**

The career stage model, often used in career development, categorizes employees into areas as to where they are in their career (Super, 1957). There is no clear consensus amongst researcher as to how career stages should be operationalized (Cohen, 1991). Much of the literature that defines career stages by an individual's amount of work experience utilizes Super's (1957) work in the career development domain. For example, Lam, Ng, and Feldman (2012) was guided by Super's (1957) description of career stages in their investigation of the relationship between individual's level of external mobility and salary attainment across the career stages. In their study, Lam et al. (2012) defined early career as individuals having less than 10 years of work experience. Mid-career represented individuals as having 10 to 20 years of work experience, and late career as individuals having more than 20 years of work experience. Using the same categorization, of time in the workforce, according to the United States Office of Personnel Management, a professional early in their career, has less than five years of

working experience, which may include recent graduates. Those professionals in mid-career have more than 10 years of work experience and those individuals in late career have 20 or more years of work experience (Office of Personnel Management, 2006). However, from the above classification, there is a gap in the career span between early and mid-career.

While time in the workforce is a salient option to measure career stage, age has also been used to operationalize the career stages (Allen & Meyer, 1993; Lindstrom, 2011; Morrow & McElroy, 1987). In Allen and Meyer's (1993) exploration of the relationship between organizational commitment and career stage, the author's defined career stage by age, organizational tenure, and positional tenure. Individuals less than 31 years of age were in early career, those individuals between 32 and 44 years of age were categorized in mid-career, and those workers older than 44 years of age were in late career (Allen & Meyer, 1993). In the study, utilizing age to define the career stages was found to stronger relations with the dependent variables than did organizational tenure and positional tenure (Allen & Meyer, 1993). In a recent study, Lindstrom (2011) supported using age as a measure of the career stages. In the research, Lindstrom (2011) categorized individuals in the early career stage to range from the ages of 20 to 34 years. Those individuals in mid-career ranged from the ages of 35-50 years, and those in late career were older than 50 years of age.

Throughout the sport literature, there is not a specific classification for the career stages. Many of the current coaches at the collegiate level were former college athletes and viewed coaching as a viable career option. In the coaching profession, it is common

practice for individuals to start their coaching career as an assistant coach; however, there are cases where individuals begin their career as a head coach. Also, the timing in which a coach becomes a head coach varies. For example, coaches may obtain a head coaching position right after college or some become a head coach much later in life. Once an individual becomes a head coach, it is uncommon for those individuals to become an assistant coach during their career span. This does happen when coaches wish to move to a more competitive conference or move NCAA divisions, but typically, once an individual is a head coach, they remain a head coach.

Sullivan et al. (2009) used age to advance their KCM model when studying men and women's career needs. Also, Allen and Meyer (1993) regarded age as the most sensitive measure of career stage. Therefore, taking the nature of the head coaching position into account, for the purpose of this study, it was deemed best to utilize Lindstrom's (2011) definition of the career stages. Specifically, as operationalized for the study, early career is defined as those head coaches with an age range between 20 to 34 years. Those in mid-career have ages that range from 35-50 years and head coaches in late career have are older than 50 years of age (Lindstrom, 2011). As previously discussed, age is not a perfect measurement of career stage, and is one of many factors that could shape differences in how individuals define work (Darcy, McCarthy, Hill, & Grady, 2012). Therefore, occupational tenure, or the time an individual has spent as a head coach, will also be an additional variable used to ensure the career stages are measured effectively (Allen & Meyer, 1993). Occupational tenure may be found to be a

better measure of career stage for coaches, which could add to the KCM literature in regards to career stage.

In addition to defining career stages for the purpose of understanding the career needs of intercollegiate head coaches, this study used those head coaches at NCAA D-I institutions as the sample. The rationale for studying D-I head coaches is described below.

### **NCAA Division I (D-I)**

Intercollegiate athletics are embedded in the higher-education system in the United States, and have emerged as an outlet for commercialization (television and broadcasting contracts, sponsorships, and lucrative facilities). While most college athletic departments do not generate millions in revenue, some do. The NCAA, which is the non-profit governing body for college athletics, had generated a revenue was \$981 million for fiscal 2013 (Berkowitz, 2014). Similarly, in 2012, the number of college athletic departments exceeding \$100 million in revenue had increased (Berkowitz, Upton, & Brady, 2013). Aside from finances, college athletics may provide indirect benefits to universities, including an increase in national exposure, giving, enrollment, and applications (Goff, 2000). Irrespective of the direct or indirect benefits produced, “collegiate sports have changed from being a feature of a university to, in some cases, being the defining aspects of that institution” (Hoffman, 2012, para. 1). As such, intercollegiate athletic departments are in competition for finances, recruits, coaches, and facilities. This is ever-so prevalent at the NCAA Division I level.

The NCAA, a membership-driven organization contains three primary divisions, Division I, II, and III. For the purpose of this study, D-I will be explained. According to the NCAA (2014), Division I schools generally have the biggest student bodies, manage the largest athletic budgets, and offer the most scholarships. Currently, there are 351 total member institutions competing at the D-I level (College Sports Scholarship, 2014) with more than 170,000 student-athletes competing in NCAA sports each year. Also, D-I schools field more than 6,000 athletic teams each year (NCAA, 2014).

Differing from the other two divisions, D-I has subdivisions based on football sponsorship. For example, schools that participate in bowl games belong to the Football Bowl Subdivision (FBS). Those that participate in the NCAA-run football championship belong to the Football Championship Subdivision (FCS). The third group is for schools that do not sponsor football at all. The subdivisions apply only to football; all other sports are considered D-I (NCAA, 2014). Because of big-time revenue producing sports like football and men's basketball, D-I is known as the big leagues for college athletics (College 101, 2014). Top athletic departments competing at the D-I level receive national media coverage, the athlete is provided scholarship opportunities, and the environment in which these athletes perform is highly competitive.

The growth of D-I athletics has impacted women's opportunities to participate in sport. For instance, as of 2012, there were over 3,000 D-I women's varsity teams competing, with an average number of 9.44 women's teams represented at D-I institutions, surpassing the other two divisions (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012). However, one area in which women are underrepresented is coaching. In coaching, according to the

College Sport Racial and Gender Report Card (CRGRC) which grades NCAA member institutions for their overall hiring practices in regards to race and gender found that for D-I, women held 38.6% of the head coaching jobs for women's teams (Lapchick et al., 2012). At that same time, 46.3% of head coaches were female at the D-III level (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012). Additionally, when D-I athletic departments had a male athletic director, there were 41.9% of female coaches, compared to 45.9% when the athletic director was female. The data referenced above were a result of a longitudinal study looking at women in sport, both participation and employment over the past 35 years (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012).

When examining D-I athletics as a whole, it was deemed appropriate to study head coaches' career due to the nature of the D-I athletics environment (e.g., competition for resources, pressures to win, large athletic budgets, highly competitive playing environments). Additionally, when examining the number of female coaches at the D-I level, it is important to further understand why women, at the D-I level, are underrepresented in the coaching profession.

### **Summary**

After reviewing the literature, it is evident there is a need to further understand the careers of women. There is a dearth of literature using the KCM to investigate men and women working within a specific occupation. This study attempts to narrow that gap by studying men and women head coaches working at D-I institutions. This research may be ground breaking in sport, as the KCM could be a career model that provides a greater understanding of the career needs present in the careers of men and women head coaches

during different points in their life. Additionally, in an effort to address the underrepresentation of women as head coaches in college athletics, the findings of this research may be influential for athletic department policy makers to take necessary action and provide additional resources that will assist coaches in meeting their career needs. This information may provide decision makers the tools that help recruit, hire, and retain valuable athletic coaches working for university athletic programs.

### **Chapter 3: Methods**

In an effort to explain the methods used for this exploratory study, the following sections were addressed in this chapter: a) research approaches and design, b) population description, c) methodology and instruments, and d) data collection and data analysis.

#### **Research Design**

According to Creswell (2013), there are three primary approaches to research: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed method approaches. As Bryman (2006) explained, “there can be little doubt that research that involves the integration of quantitative and qualitative research has become increasingly common in recent years” (p. 97). Thus, in an effort to fully assess the career needs of D-I intercollegiate head coaches, this study used a quantitative approach and also utilized an open-ended question to probe a topic of interest. Quantitative research attempts to quantify relationships between variables and uses objective, hard data (Golafshani, 2003) to help the researcher familiarize him/herself with the problem or concept to be studied (Creswell, 2013). This study utilized a survey format to evaluate the career needs of intercollegiate coaches, their job satisfaction, work-family conflict levels, and other variables (i.e., career orientation, coaching experience, opportunities and obstacles in the career).

For this study, quantitative research was collected. There are different types of quantitative research designs, which include: *experimental*, *quasi-experimental*,



*correlational, and descriptive, or non-experimental designs* (Sukamolson, 2007).

*Experimental designs* are concerned with determining cause-effect. In this type of design, the study involves two or more groups, the independent variable is manipulated by the researcher, and there is random assignment of subjects to groups (treatments). *Quasi-experimental designs*, also labeled *causal-comparative designs*, attempts to determine cause-effect relationships between variables. This type of design is similar to experimental research designs as they both involve the researcher manipulating the independent variable. However, in *quasi-experimental designs*, there may not be two groups in which random assignment is not feasible, and thus subjects are not randomly assigned to groups (Gribbons & Herman, 1997). *Correlational designs* often lumped into *non-experimental designs*, aims at determining the relationship between two or more variables. Variables in this design are not manipulated and there is no random assignment. Lastly, *descriptive research* commonly uses *non-experimental designs*, which seeks to describe the current status of an identified variable. This type of research design was used for this study. More specifically, *survey research*, a common quantitative approach, was used. Survey research typically uses questionnaires or personal interviews to collect characteristic information of the population and helps the researcher to make comparisons between groups (Sukamolson, 2007). The specific design used for this study was described below.

In quantitative research, using *survey research*, the distribution of surveys may come in the form of mailed questionnaires, personal interviews, and online surveys. Strengths of *mailed questionnaires* include: low cost, ability to use a large sample,

geographic coverage, and the lack of interviewer bias (Evans & Mathur, 2005). However, the high non-response rate, unclear instructions, and time needed to receive all responses (Evans & Mathur, 2005) may be seen as a weakness of the mailed questionnaire. The method of *personal interviews* often provides the researcher an opportunity to work closely with the participant but it can be cost and time intensive. Contrasting to *mailed questionnaires* and *personal interviews*, the Web has changed the scope of survey research. Today, it is more common than ever to distribute a survey online. As Evans and Mathur (2005) explained in their article highlighting the advantages and disadvantages of online surveys, “over the last 25 years in particular, technology has revolutionized the way in which surveys are administered” (p. 195). Advantages of using the *online survey* method include: global reach, speed and timeliness and low administration cost (Evans & Mathur, 2005). Also, respondents to online surveys have been shown to provide more detail to open-ended questions. Weaknesses of using online surveys include privacy issues, low response rates, and the perception the survey is junk mail (Evans & Mathur, 2005).

In intercollegiate athletics, in order for coaches to fulfill their job responsibilities (e.g., communicate with recruits, organize travel, purchase equipment) it is typical for coaches to have computers, e-mail addresses, and access to the internet. Thus, despite the disadvantages of online surveys, to fulfill the purpose of this exploratory study, it was deemed appropriate to use the quantitative method of online survey as a way to survey D-I intercollegiate coaches, in determining their career needs.

## Population Description

The type of research and design has been established. The next step in the process is selecting the sample for this study. It is from the sample of subjects that data was collected through the survey method described above. This study sought to explore the career needs and career decisions of D-I intercollegiate head coaches, thus men and women coaching at the NCAA D-I level were recruited to participate in the study.

Andrew et al. (2011) identified a *population* as the group to which the researcher intends to generalize the study's results. For this study, because only D-I head coaches were being surveyed, the researchers conducted a *census*. A census is when every member of the population is surveyed (Andrew et al., 2011). Although conducting a census is typically more time consuming and has extensive data processing, it has been found to produce a larger number of respondents than sampling (Schonlau, Ronald, & Elliott, 2002). For the nature of this study, it was deemed appropriate to conduct a census of D-I head coaches.

If a census is not conducted, then from the population, sampling techniques are conducted to produce a *sample*, which is a more manageable number of subjects from the population. In research design, there are two primary sampling strategies: probability and nonprobability sampling.

The first type of sampling, *probability* sampling is when each unit within the population has an equal probability of being chosen. These techniques include random sampling, stratified random sampling, cluster sampling, and systematic sampling.

*Random sampling* is considered the best way to obtain a representative sample (Andrew

et al., 2011) and requires the research guarantee each subject within the population has an equal chance of being selected. *Stratified random sampling* is the random selection of subgroups within a population and ensures the initial sample is reflective of the subgroups present in the population (Andrew et al., 2011). *Cluster sampling* is when the researcher randomly selects groups rather than individuals as the sample. *Systematic random sampling* involves selecting every  $n^{\text{th}}$  case from a comprehensive list based on the ratio of population to sample size (Andrew et al., 2011).

Second, *nonprobability sampling* is used when probability is infeasible (Andrew et al., 2011). Types of nonprobability sampling include convenience sampling, purposive sampling, and quota sampling. The most common sampling technique in sport management is *convenience sampling*, and is when the researcher selects the sample based on convenience of access (Andrew et al., 2011). Convenience sampling is easier, cheaper, and least time consuming compared to other sampling techniques. A disadvantage of convenience sampling is it may not be representative of the target population. *Purposive sampling* is when the sample is chosen with a specific purpose in mind (Andrew et al., 2011). Lastly, *quota sampling* is a nonrandom sampling technique in which individuals are selected according to a predetermined quota (Andrew et al., 2011).

Currently, there is no literature in the sport discipline that uses the KCM to assess intercollegiate head coaches' career needs. This study focused solely on head coaches working at NCAA D-I institutions. Therefore it was imperative the sample for the research was D-I intercollegiate head coaches. Due to the desire to have a high number of

respondents, a census of all head coaches at the D-I level was utilized. The details of the census technique are described below.

First, the researchers compiled a list of all head coaches at the D-I level utilizing a web-based resource called the College Coaches Online database. This database has over 25,000 current head coaches at NCAA (Divisions I, II, and III). The database includes coaches' names, e-mail addresses, and conference affiliation (College Coaches Online, 2014). According the College Sport Racial and Gender Report Card (CRGRC) which grades NCAA member institutions for their overall hiring practices in regards to race and gender found that for D-I, women held 38.6% of the head coaching jobs for women's teams (Lapchick et al., 2012). So it expected the number of female coaches to be smaller compared to male coaches.

After creating a spreadsheet of all D-I head coaches ( $N = 5,067$ ) the researchers utilized e-mail addresses to connect with the head coaches. The e-mail addresses were accessed via College Coaches Online database and university athletic department staff directories when needed. After gaining access to the e-mail addresses of the D-I head coaches, the coaches' e-mail address were stored and an *online survey* link was created using Qualtrics software, which is an advanced online survey software. This research was approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB). Also, to ensure confidentiality, the information provided to the researchers was stored in locked and password- and firewall-protected computer. Also, the key (code sheet) was stored separately from the data to protect privacy and will be destroyed at completion of the data entry. Participants were also asked to complete an informed consent form (Appendix B).

## Methodology

After a comprehensive review of literature, a 60-item survey (Appendix C) was developed. Before describing the survey instrument used for this study, it is important to explain the concepts of validity and reliability, as a great deal of attention is applied to validity and reliability in all research methods (Morse, Barrett, Mayan, Olsen, & Spiers, 2002). Similarly, Creswell (2013) explained that “being objective is an essential aspect of competent inquiry, and for this reason researchers must examine methods and conclusions for bias. For example, standards of validity and reliability are important in quantitative research” (p.8). Thus, as mentioned above, for this quantitative research study, validity and reliability was addressed.

**Validity.** The essence of validity is truthfulness, and is an evaluative judgment of the extent to which an instrument measures what it purports to measure (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008). There are types of validity important to this research. The first is face validity, which is concerned with the degree to which an instrument “appears” to measure what it intends to measure (Sechrest, 1984). Another component of validity is content validity. This was described as “the adequacy with which a universe or domain is sampled” (Sechrest, 1984, p.36). For instance, there would be a lack of content validity if an instrument assessing the overall ability of a math teacher only asked algebra-related questions. The instrument does not contain content about geometry, calculus or statistics, and lacks representation of each element of the domain. Content validity is typically established by experts in the respective fields (Andrew et al., 2011). Finally, construct validity is concerned with determining if the instrument is actually measuring what it

intends to measure (Sechrest, 1984). Face and content validity were deemed the most significant forms of validity for this exploratory study. Therefore, in an effort to ensure the instrument used for the study appears to measure the career needs of intercollegiate head coaches and the items measured are relevant to understanding the careers of intercollegiate head coaches, a panel of experts was used prior to surveying the sample of D-I intercollegiate head coaches.

After obtaining permission from IRB, the survey instrument was examined by a panel of experts to ensure face and construct validity. A formal letter requesting the assistance in validation of the instrument was e-mailed to the experts (Appendix D). The panel of experts included individuals who had conducted research on the KCM (n=4) and individuals proficient in survey development (n=2). The panel had an opportunity to review the instrument and make comments accordingly. Once all the comments were reviewed and taken into account, appropriate changes were made to the instrument. These changes included adding a progress bar to the instrument, addressing grammatical errors, revising the format of three questions from a drop-down box to a matrix box in an effort to be more user-friendly, and wording specific questions so they reach head coaches working at universities and colleges.

**Reliability.** Reliability, a quantitative issue, defines the trustworthiness of an instrument. Reliability of the scores produced by an instrument pertains to consistency, repeatability, dependability, and generalizability (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008). A high degree of stability indicates a high degree of reliability, which means the results are repeatable (Golafshani, 2003, p. 599). There are four types of reliability: interobserver or

inter-rater reliability, test-retest reliability, equivalence of parallel forms reliability, and internal consistency reliability. The first type of reliability, labeled interobserver or inter-rater reliability is described as the extent to which different observers give similar scores to the same phenomenon (Andrew et al., 2011). The next form of reliability, test-retest reliability is the extent to which the instrument would provide the same measurements if repeated at different times (Andrew et al., 2011). Equivalence of parallel forms reliability is using multiple but equivalent forms of the same instrument. The correlation between the subjects' sets of scores from the two forms provides the reliability estimates (Andrew et al., 2011).

Lastly, *internal consistency reliability* is when each question consistently measures the same variable (Andrew et al., 2011). In order to estimate the reliability of measurement, or the internal consistency, *Cronbach's alpha* is used, and is a function of the average intercorrelations of items and the number of items in the scale (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008). George and Mallery (2003) provided the following rules of thumb concerning Cronbach's alpha: " $\alpha > .9$  = Excellent,  $\alpha > .8$  = Good,  $\alpha > .7$  = Acceptable,  $\alpha > .6$  = Questionable,  $\alpha > .5$  = Poor, and  $\alpha < .5$  = Unacceptable" (p. 231). Therefore, the closer Cronbach's alpha score is to one, the stronger the internal consistency between items. Also, as Gliem and Gliem (2003) suggested, an alpha of .80 is a reasonable goal. To evaluate the three career parameters (authenticity, balance, and challenge) of the KCM, the fifteen-item questionnaire from Sullivan et al.'s (2009) study was used. Reliability estimates from their study were high, Cronbach's alpha was .76, .81, .84, respectively.



Prior to conducting the full-scale exploratory study, a pilot test was conducted as a way to determine the adequacy of the survey instrument and to uncover any potential issues with the research design (van Teijlinggen & Hundley, 2001). Literature shows obtaining 10-20% of the main study's sample size to participate in a pilot study is a reasonable number (Baker, 1994). After appropriate revisions were made to the instrument, a total of 673 surveys were sent to head coaches working at 4 different conferences within the NCAA D-II membership. These conferences were geographically situated in different parts of the United States to ensure generalizability. After obtaining head coaches' e-mail addresses via College Coaches Online database, a cover letter (Appendix E) describing the purpose of the study and the instrument link was e-mailed to all head coaches working at universities and colleges within the four chosen D-II conferences using Qualtrics. A total of 32 e-mails bounced back as a result of a wrong e-mail address or the head coach no longer working at that institution. After review, 97 participants had responded to the survey. Listwise deletion approach was utilized for missing data. Once data was analyzed, it was determined a total of 18 surveys were unusable. Therefore, useable surveys ( $n = 79$ ) were used for data analysis. Specifically, of the useable surveys, head coaches working at Conference A ( $n = 12$ ), those working at institutional members of Conference B ( $n = 27$ ), head coaches working in Conference C ( $n = 19$ ), and lastly head coaches working at institutions within Conference D ( $n = 21$ ).

### **Instrumentation Design**

Variables are the factors measured in research and there are two primary types of variables, independent and dependent variables. *Independent variables* are the factors

controlled or manipulated in an experiment (Andrew et al., 2011). Conversely, *dependent variables* are the outcome variables, or variables of interest in a study (Andrew et al., 2011). For this study, there are numerous independent or control variables. A *categorical variable* is when there is a limited amount of possible values. In this case, gender, a categorical variable, has two possible values (i.e., male and female), thus making it a *dichotomous variable*. Age, for the purpose of this study, was collected as a *continuous variable*, because there are nearly unlimited possible values (Andrew et al., 2011). Categorizing age to define the career stages is not a perfect measurement (Lindstrom, 2011), so obtaining age as a continuous variable provided greater options during data analysis. For the purpose of this study, once age was captured, the variable was categorized into early career (20 to 34 years), mid-career (35 to 50 years), and late career (older than 50 years). Additionally, asking coaches the number of years they had spent as a head coach (occupational tenure) served as another measure for career stages (Aryee, Chay, & Chew, 1994) if needed. It is unclear if occupational tenure would best measure career stage. Other variables for potential analysis as independent variables included the number of children living in the home, marital status, and specific coaching variables (e.g., sport coached and hours per week at work).

The primary focus of the study was to determine if the career needs as proposed by the KCM describe D-I intercollegiate head coaches. Additionally, it was intended to determine if there were difference in these career needs for men and women across the career stages. The literature suggests job satisfaction may play a role in the retention of intercollegiate coaches (Dixon & Sagas, 2007; Sagas & Ashley, 2001). Also, work-

family conflict was found to negatively impact coaches, particularly female coaches (Dixon & Bruening, 2007; Kilty, 2006). Accordingly, the variables of interest, or the dependent variables for the study were the kaleidoscope career parameters (i.e., authenticity, balance, and challenge), job satisfaction, and work-family conflict.

All participants completed an online questionnaire where they were asked to provide information related to kaleidoscope career parameters, job satisfaction, work-family conflict, career characteristics, and coaching variables.

### **Kaleidoscope Career Parameters**

**Authenticity.** The career parameter of authenticity was measured using the five-item scale (Appendix F) developed by Sullivan et al. (2009). Respondents were asked to rate on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *does not describe me at all* to 5 = *describes me very well*) that describes the need for authenticity in their career. Items were reliable in past studies (e.g., Sullivan et al., 2009;  $\alpha = .76$ ). An example of an item measuring authenticity included “I hope to find a greater purpose to my life that suits who I am.” The higher the response value would indicate a greater desire for authenticity.

**Balance.** To assess the career parameter of balance, the five-item scale developed by Sullivan et al. (2009) was used (Appendix F). Respondents were asked to rate on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *does not describe me at all* to 5 = *describes me very well*) that describes the need for balance in their career. Items were reliable in past studies (e.g., Sullivan, et al., 2009;  $\alpha = .81$ ). An example of an item measuring balance included “I constantly arrange my work around my family needs.” The higher the response value would indicate a greater priority for balance.

**Challenge.** The career parameter of challenge was measured using the five-item scale (Appendix F) developed by Sullivan et al. (2009). Respondents were asked to rate on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = does not describe me at all to 5 = describes me very well) that describes the need for challenge in their career. Items were reliable in past studies (e.g., Sullivan, et al., 2009;  $\alpha = .84$ ). An example of an item measuring challenge included “I view setbacks not as “problems” to be overcome but as “challenges” that require solutions.” The higher the response value would indicate a higher importance for challenge.

### **Satisfaction and Conflict**

**Job satisfaction.** In an effort to retain valuable coaches in the career, job satisfaction may be a good measure. In the literature, for example, Sagas and Batista (2001) found as job satisfaction increased, a coach’s intent to leave the profession decreased. For this study, Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Kelch’s (1983) three-item job satisfaction scale was used. Dixon and Sagas (2007) utilized the same job satisfaction scale when investigating job and life satisfaction, work-family conflict and organizational support. Respondents were asked to rate on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*) how satisfied they were with their job. Utilizing a three-item scale for this study to determine the overall job satisfaction of D-I intercollegiate head coaches was deemed appropriate.

**Work and family conflict.** Work-family conflict was measured using 5-items from Netemeyer et al.’s (1996) work-family conflict scale. Family-work conflict was measured using the 5-item scale Netemeyer et al.’s (1996) family-work conflict scale.

Respondents were asked to rate on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1= strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) to describe their level of work-family conflict and their level of family-work conflict. The items were reliable in past studies (e.g., Netemeyer et al., 1996;  $\alpha = .88, .86$  respectively).

In an attempt to further understand the career transitions and career decisions of D-I intercollegiate head coaches, career variables were collected.

### **Career Variables**

In Mainiero and Sullivan's (2006) book titled *The Opt-Out Revolt: Why People Are Leaving Companies to Create Kaleidoscope Careers*, career variables were explored to fully understand individuals' careers and their career transitions throughout the life span. Therefore, the following career variables were assessed in this study.

**Career orientation.** This single-item measure read "Which of the following statements reflects your future career plans?" Respondents were to indicate which statement best reflected their future career plans. Sample statement included "I want to move to another university".

**Career timeout.** Respondents were asked to indicate how many times they had taken a timeout in their career. If respondents selected "0" to indicate they had not taken a timeout in their career, skip logic was used on the survey to send respondents to the next question. If respondents indicated they had taken a timeout in their career, they moved the reason for a career timeout survey item.

**Reasons for a career timeout.** To understand why coaches took a job timeout, they were asked to choose which statement (s) reflects why they have taken a timeout in

their career as a head coach. Sample factors included: “I was fired”, “health issues”, “to have children”, and “to start a business”.

**Obstacles.** To understand the obstacles coaches face in their career, respondents were asked to rank order and list the top three obstacles they have faced during their career as a head coach. Sample items included: “sex discrimination”, “household responsibilities” and “travel”.

**Opportunities.** In an effort to assess the opportunities coaches have had in developing their careers or meeting their career needs, respondents were asked to rank order and list the top three factors that helped develop their career. Sample factors included: “my spouse did not work”, “mentoring” and “networking”.

**Coaching experience variables.** Respondents were asked to answer items related to their coaching experience. Sample items include: “Indicate the number of years you have been a head coach” and “Indicate the gender of the team (s) you currently coach”.

### **Control Variables**

Research has found that demographic variables such as gender and age may impact the career needs (Cabrera, 2007; Sullivan & Mainiero, 2005) and job satisfaction levels (Sagas & Cunningham, 2005) of individuals. For the purpose of this study and further data analysis, it was imperative to determine if the career needs of coaches differed based on gender, age (career stage) and other variables.

**Demographics.** Researchers are unable to control or manipulate demographic variables, and therefore these variables are considered control variables.

**Gender.** Men were coded as 0 women were coded as 1

**Age.** Age was collected in years

**Career stage.** After collecting age (in years) as a continuous variable, the ages 20-34 were coded as 0 (early career). Ages 35-50 were coded as 1 (mid-career), and those in late career, older than 50, was coded as 2.

**Ethnicity/Race.** Respondents were asked to indicate their ethnicity. Items for this were coded as follows: 0= African American/Black, 1= American Indian or Alaskan Native, 2= Asian, 3= Caucasian/White, 4= Hispanic or Latino, 5= Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, 6= Multiple racial/ethnic backgrounds, 7= Other.

**Marital status.** Respondents who were single, divorced, or widowed were coded as 0, those who were married or living with a partner were coded as 1.

**Children.** Respondents were asked to indicate the number of children under 18 years of age living in the home. This was coded as 0= no children, 1= one child living at home, 2= two children living at home, 3= three children living at home, etc.

**Childcare and eldercare responsibilities.** Respondents were asked to indicate if they had any childcare or eldercare responsibilities. Responses to these two questions were coded 0= no and 1= yes. If respondents indicated they had childcare or eldercare responsibilities, they were then asked to indicate the number of hours, relative to work time in which they spent on childcare and eldercare.

**Income.** Respondents were asked to choose a category that contains their annual salary.

**Hours worked.** Respondents were asked to indicate the number of hours worked while in-season and also during the off season. This was coded as 1=less than 30 hours

per week, 2=less than 40 hours per week, 3=more than 40 hours per week, 4=more than 60 hours per week, and 5=more than 75 hours per week.

### **Data Collection**

Data was collected online through the Qualtrics survey system and stored on the researcher's computer. Using the College Coaches Online database, D-I intercollegiate head coaches' e-mail addresses were collected and entered into the survey system. Research has found multiple-contact strategies may increase response rate (Andrew et al., 2011). Taking this into account, three different messages were sent to participants, including a pre-notification message, an invitation to participate in the research study, and a reminder e-mail message with an additional request for participation.

Research has found prenotification messages may increase response speed (Taylor & Lynn, 1998). Also, in a study analyzing the influence prenotification had on intercollegiate head coaches' response rate, it was found the prenotification greatly influenced response rate (Kent & Turner, 2002). Therefore, a prenotification message was sent to participants (Appendix G) notifying them that an opportunity to participate was forthcoming (Andrew et al., 2011). This message was sent via e-mail to D-I head coaches four days prior to the invitation to participate message. Accompanied with the invitation to participate e-mail (Appendix H) was a link to the online survey. Lastly, Sheehan and Hoy (1999) found a reminder message in an e-mail survey increased response rates by 25% (Appendix I). Thus, a reminder message was e-mailed to participants two weeks after the invitation to participate e-mail was sent.



## **Data Analysis**

Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 22 for Windows was used for all data analysis for this study. Upon collecting the data, a correlation matrix was conducted to determine any correlation between variables. For example, the gender variable on the correlation matrix would display a difference in male and female coaches. Also, alpha reliability coefficients were calculated for each career parameter of the KCM scale, job satisfaction, and work-family conflict, family-work conflict scales to determine reliability of the differences between questionnaire items. Also, to address nonresponse error, research suggests respondents be categorized into two groups, early respondents and late respondents (Lindner, Murphy, & Briers, 2001).

The KCM scale has not been explored in athletics or with head coaches. However, Sullivan et al.'s (2009) attempt to create the KCM included utilizing factor analyses. According to DeCoster (1998), factor analysis is a collection of methods used to examine how underlying constructs influence the responses on a number of measured variables. Measures that are highly correlated (either positively or negatively) are likely influenced by the same factors, while those that are relatively uncorrelated are likely influenced by different factors. Previous studies indicated high correlations between factors related to the authenticity career need. This was similar to balance and challenge career needs. Therefore, although factor analysis was considered for this study, reliability coefficients from the pilot study were authenticity ( $\alpha = .51$ ), balance ( $\alpha = .89$ ), and challenge ( $\alpha = .78$ ). Therefore, there were no additional items added to the KCM scale.

In order to answer the first research question, descriptive statistics and a paired sample *t*-test were used to summarize the data.

*Research question 1:* Which of the three career needs (authenticity, balance, and challenge) best describes D-I head coaches?

For this study, each career need, job satisfaction, and conflict (work and family) served as the dependent variables. Therefore, one main Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) statistical test was conducted to answer the research questions related to the career parameters, gender, and career stage. In addition, one other MANOVA statistical test was conducted to answer the research questions related to work-family and family work conflict. MANOVA is best suited for dependent variables that are related. Also, not only does MANOVA better control for Type I error and increases power, running a MANOVA also assists in understanding any potential interactions between the dependent variables and the independent variables (French, Poulsen, & Yu, 2002). For research question two, three, and four, five, and six gender (male and female) and career stage (early, mid, and late) served as the independent variables, and more specifically, as grouping variables. Also, post hoc analysis was conducted using the Least Significant Difference (LSD) test.

There are certain assumptions that must be met to ensure the data can be analyzed using a MANOVA. These assumptions include: the dependent variables are measured on the interval or ratio level. The dependent variables (i.e., career parameters, job satisfaction, and conflict) were measured at the interval level. Next, the independent variable must consist of two or more independent groups (i.e., gender). Also,

observations should be independent and contain no overlap of participants in the groups. Sample size must be adequate, and there cannot be any univariate or multivariate outliers. Other assumptions for a MANOVA include testing for multivariate normality (Shapiro-Wilk test, observation of skewness and kurtosis), linear relationship between the career parameters and gender groups, homogeneity of variance, and there cannot be multicollinearity, which means the dependent variables are too closely correlated (Laerd Statistics, 2014). Also, in order to see where specific differences may lie, it was important to look at each dependent variable at a time. Therefore, single univariate tests were conducted to determine the specific differences among dependent variables. This test is conducted within the MANOVA. Therefore, a MANOVA was conducted to answer the following research questions, utilizing the three career needs as the dependent variables and gender and career stage as the independent variables.

*Research question 2a:* How does the career parameter of authenticity differ for male and female D-I intercollegiate head coaches?

*Research question 2b:* How does the career parameter of balance differ for male and female D-I intercollegiate head coaches?

*Research question 2c:* How does the career parameter of challenge differ for male and female D-I intercollegiate head coaches?

The following research questions involve the effect a coaches' career stage may have on the coaches' career needs.

*Research question 3a:* How does the career parameter of authenticity differ in D-I intercollegiate head coaches in early, mid, and late career?

*Research question 3b:* How does the career parameter of balance differ in D-I intercollegiate head coaches in early, mid, and late career?

*Research question 3c:* How does the career parameter of challenge differ in D-I intercollegiate head coaches in early, mid, and late career?

The following research questions involve the effect of gender and career stage on coaches' career needs.

*Research question 4a:* Does gender have an effect on the career parameter of authenticity based on the career stage of the coach?

*Research question 4b:* Does gender have an effect on the career parameter of balance based on the career stage of the coach?

*Research questions 4c:* Does gender have an effect on the career parameter of challenge based on the career stage of the coach?

In an effort to further understand the careers of D-I head coaches' job satisfaction, descriptive statistics including central tendency and variability were used to describe the features of the data.

*Research question 5a:* What is the level of job satisfaction among D-I intercollegiate head coaches?

*Research question 5b:* Does job satisfaction level among D-I intercollegiate head coaches differ based on gender?

To determine if gender and career stage had an effect on coaches' level of work-family and family-work conflict, another MANOVA was conducted. To answer the

following research questions, work-family and family work conflict were utilized as the dependent variables and gender and career stage as the independent variables.

*Research question 6a:* What is the level of work-family conflict among D-I intercollegiate head coaches?

*Research question 6b:* What is the level of family-work conflict among D-I intercollegiate head coaches?

*Research question 7a:* Does work-family conflict levels among D-I intercollegiate head coaches differ based on gender?

*Research question 7b:* Does family-work conflict levels among D-I intercollegiate head coaches differ based on gender?

*Research question 8a:* Does work-family conflict levels differ based on the career stage of the coach?

*Research question 8b:* Does family-work conflict levels differ based on the career stage of the coach?

Descriptive statistics including central tendency and variability were used to describe the features of the data and to determine the top three obstacles and opportunities coaches experience in their coaching career.

*Research question 9:* What obstacles do D-I intercollegiate head coaches face in their career?

*Research question 10:* What opportunities are available for D-I intercollegiate head coaches to aid in their career development?

## **Summary**

The methods and design described in this chapter were aimed at exploring the career needs of D-I intercollegiate head coaches utilizing the KCM. In an attempt to better understand the career decisions of these coaches, a census of all D-I head coaches was conducted. An online survey instrument was utilized for data collection and each coach received a pre-notification message and an invitation to participate in the study e-mail containing the survey link. Those coaches who did not complete the survey within the given time received a reminder e-mail. These actions were taken in hopes of increasing the response rate. Descriptive statistics, paired sample *t*-test, and correlations were collected and two main MANOVAs were conducted to determine if any differences existed in how well the career parameters of authenticity, balance, and challenge described men and women D-I intercollegiate head coaches in early, mid, and late career as well as their levels of job satisfaction and work-family and family-work conflict.

## **Chapter 4: Results**

The results of the study are presented in seven sections. The first section describes the final sample used for the study. Reliability estimates for the dependent variables (i.e., career needs, satisfaction, and conflict) are explored in section two. The career needs of head coaches are examined in section three, which also details the differences between male and female head coaches' career needs and any differences between coaches' career needs across the career stage (early, mid, and late). Coaches' level of job satisfaction is reported in section four. Section five explores work and family conflict levels for coaches. Differences in conflict levels in regards to gender and career stage are discussed in this section. Section six explores the obstacles and opportunities coaches face in their career. Lastly, section seven is a brief summary of the results.

### **The Final Sample**

A census of all head coaches working at the NCAA D-I level was conducted for the study. All coaches were asked to participate in study and their e-mail addresses were found via College Coaches Online Database. After checking the database for multiples of the same e-mail address, for those coaches who coach more than one sport (i.e., women and men's cross country) at a university or college, a total of 5,067 coaches remained in the database. Of those, 134 e-mails bounced back because the e-mail addresses were not recognized. Thus, a total of 4,933 e-mails were sent to head coaches. A total of 1,038 surveys were submitted with data (21%). Upon reviewing the data, there were 198

surveys that contained no responses which were eliminated from data analyzing utilizing the listwise deletion approach. At the completion, there was a final sample of 840 ( $N = 840$ ) and a response rate of 17%. In order to address nonresponse bias, early and late respondents were compared (Miller & Smith, 1983). Most often, late respondents are similar to those of nonrespondents (Miller & Smith, 1983). Therefore, early respondents were those coaches who completed the survey prior to November 10, 2014, before the reminder e-mail was sent out. Late respondents were categorized as coaches who completed the survey after receiving the reminder e-mail. Of the early and late respondents, 100 in each group were randomly sampled, because it was critical to similar sized groups when comparing groups. It was deemed important to compare early and late respondents across numerous variables to ensure no significant differences. *T*-tests were conducted on the dependent variables (i.e., career needs, satisfaction, work-family conflict, and family-work conflict). Therefore, after conducting a *t*-test with equal groups, early respondents ( $n = 100$ ) and late respondents ( $n = 100$ ), it was cleared there were no statistically significant differences between the groups across the aforementioned variables (Table 4.1).



Table 4.1

*T-test Comparing Early and Late Respondents*

	Early	Late	t-test for Equality of Means		
	<i>M</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>t</i>	Df	<i>p</i>
Authenticity	3.23	3.29	-.652	200	.515
Balance	2.99	3.11	-.578	200	.564
Challenge	3.74	3.75	1.492	200	.137
Job Satisfaction	6.01	5.93	.751	200	.453
Work-Family Conflict	3.07	3.05	-.294	200	.769
Family-Work Conflict	1.94	2.04	-.926	200	.355

**Demographics**

Of the 840 coaches who responded to the survey, 64.5% ( $n = 542$ ) were male and 35.5% ( $n = 298$ ) were female. The majority of coaches ( $n = 682$ ) were White/Non-Hispanic (81.1%) and married or in a committed relationship (72.2%). There were 349 coaches (41.5%) without children living in the home under the age of 18. The coaches' age range was 22-74, with an average age of ( $M = 45.9$ ;  $SD = 10.11$ ). Coaches occupational tenure averaged ( $M = 14.5$  years;  $SD = 10.55$ ). Demographic information is displayed in Table 4.2. Additionally, the sport and corresponding frequencies are found in Table 4.3.

When calculating career stage, coaches' ages were grouped in a range suggested by Lindstrom (2011). Those coaches ages 20-34 are said to be in early career. Data analysis uncovered that 12.9% of the respondents ( $n = 108$ ) were in early career. Those coaches aged 35-50 are categorized in mid-career. Results showed 47.7% of respondents ( $n = 401$ ) were in mid-career. Lastly, those coaches older than 50 years are in late career. Results found 27.7% of respondents ( $n = 233$ ) were in late career. Of the sample, 11.6% of respondents ( $n = 98$ ) did not indicate their age.

Table 4.2

*Descriptive Statistics for Coaches' Background Variables*

		Head Coaches ( <i>n</i> = 840)	
Background variable	Category	<i>n</i>	%
Gender	Male	542	64.5
	Female	298	35.5
Age ( <i>M</i> = 45.89; <i>SD</i> = 10.11 )	21-29	34	4.0
	30-39	184	21.8
	40-49	262	31.0
	50-59	186	22.2
	60-69	71	8.6
	70+	5	0.5
	Missing	98	11.7
Ethnicity/Race	African American/Black	31	3.7
	American Indian/Alaskan Native	3	0.4
	Asian	7	0.8
	Caucasian/White	682	81.2
	Hispanic or Latino	14	1.7
	Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander	2	0.2
	Multiple Ethnic/Racial Background	9	1.1
	Other	5	0.6
	Missing	87	10.4
Marital Status	Single	101	12.0
	Married	550	65.5
	Committed Relationship	65	7.7
	Divorced	33	3.9
	Widowed	2	0.2
	Missing	89	10.6
Number of Children	0	349	41.5
	1	113	13.5
	2	168	20.0
	3	68	8.1
	4+	25	2.9

Table 4.3

*Sports Coached by Respondents*

Sport	N	Percentage
Softball	83	9.9
Women's Volleyball	80	9.5
Women's Cross Country	65	7.7
Women's Soccer	62	7.4
Baseball	60	7.1
Women's Golf	53	6.3
Women's Tennis	43	5.1
Women's Basketball	42	5.0
Women's Swimming	40	4.8
Women's Rowing	33	3.9
Men's Basketball	29	3.5
Men's Golf	27	3.2
Men's Soccer	25	3.0
Women's Diving	22	2.6
Men's Tennis	19	2.3
Women's Lacrosse	16	1.9
Field Hockey	14	1.7
Women's Gymnastics	14	1.7
Cheerleading	13	1.5
Wrestling	12	1.4
Football	11	1.3
Men's Cross Country	9	1.1
Men's Lacrosse	9	1.1
Men's Volleyball	9	1.1
Women's Ice Hockey	8	1.0
Women's Indoor Track	7	0.8
Men's Ice Hockey	5	0.6
Women's Track	5	0.6
Men's Swimming	3	0.4
Women's Rifle	3	0.4
Women's Water Polo	3	0.4
Men's Rowing	2	0.2
Men's Track	2	0.2
Men's Gymnastics	2	0.2
Women's Fencing	2	0.2
Bowling	1	0.1
Men's Water Polo	1	0.1
Women's Skiing	1	0.1

## Reliability of Dependent Variables

The career parameter of authenticity, balance, and challenge was measured using the 15-item scale (Appendix F) developed by Sullivan et al. (2009). Respondents were asked to rate on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *does not describe me at all* to 5 = *describes me very well*) that describes the need for authenticity in their career. Items were reliable in past studies (e.g., Sullivan et al., 2009;  $\alpha = .76, .81, .84$ ) respectively. The internal consistency of the authenticity parameter was ( $\alpha = .60$ ). According to George and Mallery (2003) this would still be an expectable measure. The internal consistency of the balance parameter for this study was ( $\alpha = .84$ ). Also, as Gliem and Gliem (2003) suggested an alpha of .80 is a reasonable goal. Lastly, the Cronbach's alpha for the challenge parameter from this study was ( $\alpha = .76$ ).

Cammann et al. (1983) three-item job satisfaction scale was used. Dixon and Sagas (2007) utilized the same job satisfaction scale when investigating job and life satisfaction, work-family conflict and organizational support. Respondents were asked to rate on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*) how satisfied they were with their job. Internal consistency for job satisfaction was  $\alpha = .80$ .

Work-family conflict and family-work conflict were measured using Netemeyer et al.'s (1996) work and family conflict scale. Respondents were asked to rate on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*) to describe their level of work-family conflict and their level of family-work conflict. The items were reliable in past studies (e.g., Netemeyer et al., 1996;  $\alpha = .88, .86$  respectively). For this study, internal consistency for work-family conflict was  $\alpha = .91$  and for family-work conflict was  $\alpha = .90$ . Table 4.4 displays the results of all reliability estimates for the

dependent variables. Table J1 includes additional information including means, standard deviations, and correlations among the key dependent variables (i.e., career needs, satisfaction, work and family conflict) and the primary independent variables (gender and career stage) used for the study (Appendix J).

Table 4.4

*Reliability of Dependent Variable Scales*

Scale	$\alpha$
Authenticity	.60
Balance	.84
Challenge	.76
Job Satisfaction	.80
Work-Family Conflict	.91
Family-Work Conflict	.90

### **Career Needs**

*Research question 1* was focused on determining which of the three career needs (authenticity, balance, and challenge) was deemed most significant to D-I head coaches. Descriptive statistics indicate male and female coaches' need for authenticity ( $M = 3.28$ ;  $SD = .82$ ), balance ( $M = 3.05$ ;  $SD = 1.02$ ), and challenge ( $M = 3.74$ ;  $SD = .76$ ).

Descriptive results for both male and female coaches' career needs are indicated in Figure 1. In order to determine if the mean scores were statistically different between all career needs, a paired sample *t*-test was conducted. Results determined there was a statistically significant difference between the mean score of authenticity ( $M = 3.28$ ;  $SD = .815$ ) and balance ( $M = 3.05$ ;  $SD = 1.02$ ) career need;  $t(838) = 5.937$ ,  $p < .001$ . Also, there was a statistically significant difference in the mean for authenticity ( $M = 3.28$ ;  $SD$

= .815) and challenge ( $M = 3.74$ ;  $SD = .761$ ) career need;  $t(838) = -15.150$ ,  $p < .001$ .

Lastly, there was a statistically significant difference in the mean for balance ( $M = 3.05$ ;  $SD = 1.02$ ) and challenge ( $M = 3.74$ ;  $SD = .761$ ) career need;  $t(838) = -16.179$ ,  $p < .001$ .

Results indicate challenge was deemed the most important career need for college coaches, followed by their need for authenticity, and lastly balance. For each career need, there were specific survey items that were ranked the most important. For authenticity, “I want to have an impact and leave my signature on what I accomplish in life” was ranked the highest for coaches. “Achieving balance between work and family is life's holy grail” was scored the highest for the balance career need and “I view setbacks not as “problems” to be overcome but as “challenges” that require solutions” was the highest scored for challenge.

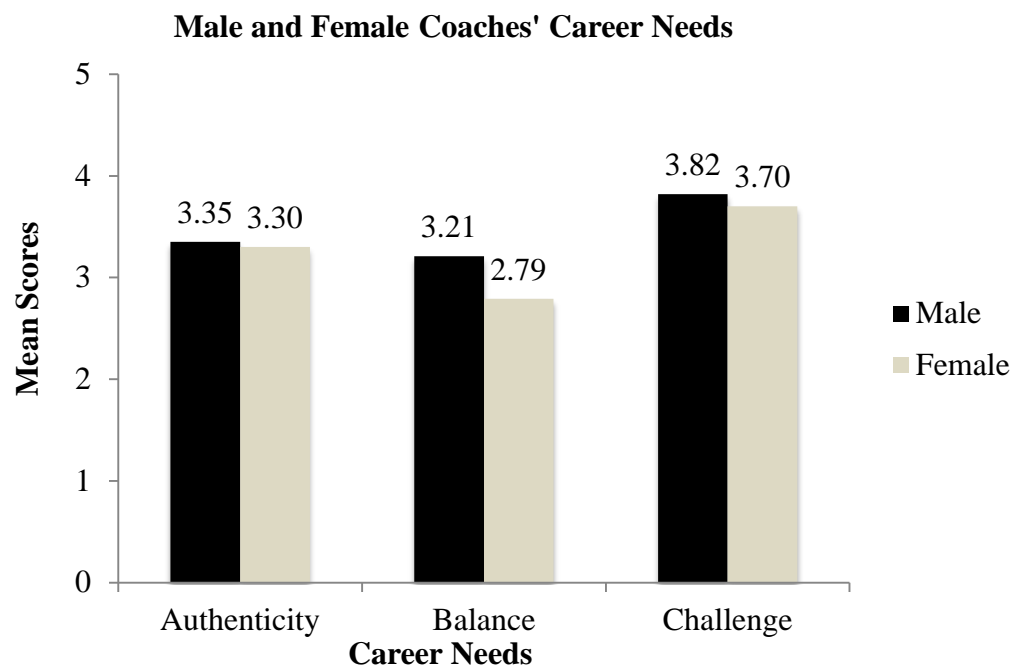


Figure 1. Mean scores for male and female coaches' career needs

## Assumptions

When running both MANOVAs, it was significant to determine if the assumptions of independence, normality, and homogeneity of variances were violated. This study utilized a design that required contact with participants via e-mail. Thus coaches were e-mailed individually and completed the survey on their own which ensured their responses were independent from other individual's responses.

Normality was met after analyzing the skewness and kurtosis of the data. Skewness measures the asymmetry of the distribution while kurtosis measures the peakedness of the distribution (Brown, 2012). Skewness and kurtosis were both between the absolute values of 2.0 for all dependent variables (authenticity, balance, challenge, work-family, and family-work conflict). With the design of this study and the purpose to truly understand coaches' needs, outliers were not pertinent to this data.

To test the final assumption, homogeneity of variance, Levene's test was utilized (Stevens, 2009). This test is appropriate, as it tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups (Stevens, 2009). Levene's test was non-significant for the career needs of balance,  $F(5,736) = 1.50, p = .186$ , and challenge,  $F(5,736) = .562, p = .729$ , as well as for work-family conflict,  $F(5,736) = 1.11, p = .353$ . Levene's test was however significant for the career need of authenticity,  $F(5,736) = 2.59, p = .025$ , as well as for family-work conflict,  $F(5,736) = 4.73, p < .001$ , which indicates that the variances were different. Results are expressed in Table 4.5.

For the study, there were no groups that were 1.5 times the size of the other. Research has shown that if groups are of similar size, the violation is not as impactful to the data (Stevens, 2009). Also, a result of this violation is a loss in power. However, for

the two tests, power was strong. Therefore, the statistical tests were able to overcome the violation of homogeneity of variance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) because the failure did not result in a loss of power.

Table 4.5

*Levene's Test for Equality of Variance for Career Needs and Conflict Among College Coaches*

Variable	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Authenticity	2.59	5	736	.025*
Balance	1.50	5	736	.186
Challenge	.56	5	736	.729
Work-Family Conflict	1.11	5	736	.353
Family-Work Conflict	4.73	5	736	.000*

*Note.* \*indicates significance at the .05 level.

#### Statistical Testing

When examining the career needs of college coaches, MANOVA (Multivariate Analysis of Variance) was conducted to answer the research questions related to the career parameters, gender, and career stage. The MANOVA utilized the career needs (i.e., authenticity, balance, and challenge) as the dependent variables and gender and career stage as independent variables. Results for the MANOVA are listed in Table 4.6 and illustrate significant differences that are further discussed in the sections below.



Table 4.6

*Multivariate Tests for Career Needs of D-I College Coaches*

Effect	$\Lambda$	$F$	df1	df2	$P$
Gender	.968	7.987 <sup>b</sup>	3.000	734	.000*
Career Stage	.976	3.041 <sup>b</sup>	6.000	1468	.006*
Gender x Career Stage	.997	.390 <sup>b</sup>	6.000	1468	.886

*Note.* \* indicates significance at the .01 level.

**Gender**

When looking at the overall effect gender had on the career needs of college coaches, the MANOVA results in Table 4.7 indicate a significant multivariate main effect of gender ( $\Lambda = .968$ ,  $F = 7.987$ ,  $df = 3, 734$ ,  $p < .001$ ), with a small to medium effect size ( $\eta_p^2 = .032$ ) and strong power (.991).

Research question 2 examined any differences between the career needs of coaches as it relates to gender. Examining each career need, ANOVA (Univariate Analysis of Variance) reveal how the dependent variables differ according to gender. The post hoc ANOVA revealed no significant differences between gender of the coach and the authenticity career need. Recall that *research question 2a* was concerned with determining any differences between male and female coaches' need for authenticity. Data suggested a non-significant result following a univariate post hoc test for gender on the career parameter for authenticity,  $F(1,736) = .434$ ,  $p = .510$ .

However, a significant univariate post hoc test (ANOVA) for gender on the career parameter for balance,  $F(1,736) = 20.434$ ,  $p < .001$ , with a small to medium effect size ( $\eta_p^2 = .027$ ) and strong power (.995). Research question 2b asked whether there was a

difference in male and female coaches' need for balance. *Research question 2b* was answered in the affirmative. These findings illustrate a significant difference between male and female coaches' need for balance. For the challenge career parameter, a univariate post hoc test for gender on the career parameter for challenge,  $F(1,736) = 2.877$ ,  $p = .090$  was insignificant. Results indicate gender had no effect on coaches' need for challenge, addressing *research question 2c*.

Results for the ANOVAs are displayed in Table 4.7. As mentioned above, balance  $F(1,736) = .434$ ,  $p < .001$  was the only career need that displayed a statistically significant difference at the .01 level.

Table 4.7

*ANOVA Results for Career Needs of Male and Female D-I College Head Coaches*

Career Needs	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Authenticity	.277	1	.277	.434	.510
Balance	20.726	1	20.726	20.434	.000*
Challenge	1.661	1	1.661	2.877	.090

*Note.* \* indicates significance at the .01 level.

### **Career Stage**

Research question 3a, 3b, and 3c investigated the effect a coaches' career stage had on their career needs. Results indicate a significant multivariate main effect of career stage ( $\Lambda = .976$ ,  $F = 3.041$ ,  $df = 6, 1468$ ,  $p = .006$ ), with a small to medium effect size ( $\eta_p^2 = .012$ ) and strong power (.914). In an effort to determine where potential differences lie, results of the univariate post hoc can be found in Table 4.8.

*Research question 3a* was focused on the career parameter of authenticity and if there are differences in D-I intercollegiate head coaches in early, mid, and late career. Results supported this in the affirmative with ANOVA results for authenticity,  $F(2,736) = 6.837, p = .001$ . The mean difference ( $0.341, SE = 0.092$ ) in career parameter of authenticity between the early and mid-career stage was significant at the  $\alpha = .01$  level ( $p < .001$ ). The mean difference ( $0.281, SE = .102$ ) between early and late career stage was also significant ( $p = .006$ ). There was not a significant difference in career parameter of authenticity between the mid and late career groups with a mean difference ( $.060, SE = .074$ ) with ( $p = .415$ ).

*Research question 3b* examined the effect the career stage of college coaches had on the balance career need. ANOVA results indicated that the differences were not significant,  $F(2,736) = 1.793, p = .167$ . *Research question 3c* examined the effect the career stage of college coaches had on the challenge career need. ANOVA results  $F(2,736) = 1.992, p = .137$  indicated no significant differences. Figure 2 displays the means of coaches career needs as it relates to career stage.

Table 4.8

*ANOVA Results for Career Needs Among D-I College Head Coaches Across Career Stages*

Career Needs	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Authenticity	8.720	2	4.360	6.837	.001*
Balance	3.636	2	1.818	1.793	.167
Challenge	2.300	2	1.150	1.992	.137

*Note.* \* indicates significance at the .01 level.

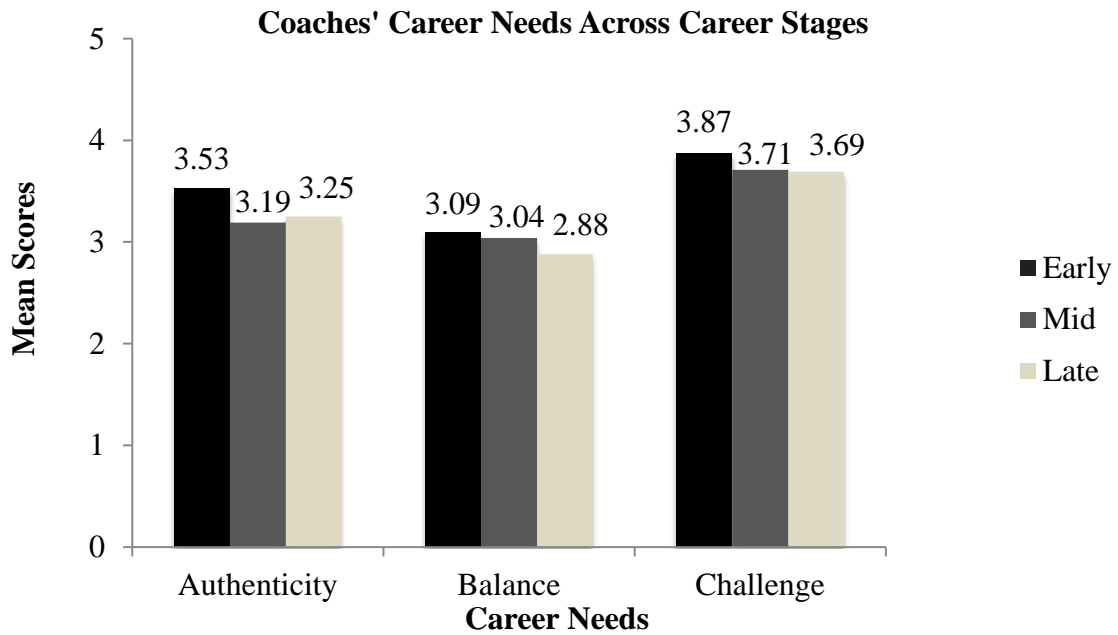


Figure 2. Mean scores for coaches' career needs across career stages.

*Research question 4a, 4b, and 4c* sought out to determine if the gender of the coach has an effect on the career parameter of (authenticity, balance, and challenge) based on career stage. After analyzing the MANOVA, the results indicate a non-significant multivariate main effect of gender ( $\Lambda = .886$ ,  $F = .390$ ,  $df = 6, 1468$ ,  $p = .886$ ). This indicates that there is not a significant relationship between gender and career stage of the coach and the career needs.

### Job Satisfaction

Research question 5a and 5b were focused on determining head coaches' job satisfaction. For the three-item scale on the survey, 790 responses were provided. It is important to note that one item was reverse coded during data analysis. *Research question 5a* investigated coaches' overall satisfaction level. Analyzing the item "All in

all, I am satisfied with my job”, results indicated coaches were satisfied with their jobs ( $M = 5.97$ ;  $SD = 1.16$ ). *Research question 5b* looked at coaches’ job satisfaction levels as it relates to gender. When analyzing job satisfaction as it relates to gender, male coaches ( $M = 5.98$ ;  $SD = 1.14$ ) and female coaches ( $M = 5.96$ ;  $SD = 1.19$ ) were both very satisfied with their jobs. The job satisfaction item “In general, I don’t like my job” was reverse coded (R). Job satisfaction is further explained in Figure 3.

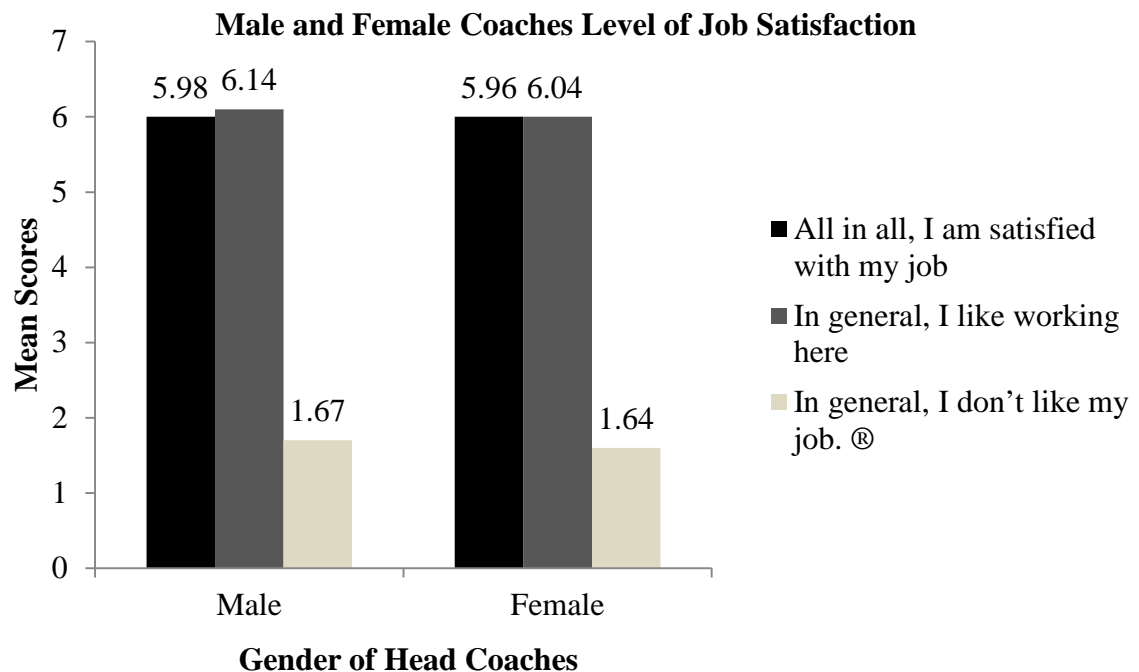


Figure 3. Mean scores for male and female coaches' level of job satisfaction.

### Work and Family Conflict

Research question 6a and 6b wanted to further understand the level of conflict head coaches’ experience. Descriptive statistics indicate head coaches experience work-family conflict ( $M = 3.06$ ;  $SD = 1.11$ ), addressing *research question 6a*. Results indicate

head coaches' level of family-work conflict ( $M = 1.99$ ;  $SD = .97$ ) to be minimal, answering *research question 6b*. The larger the mean numbers indicates a higher level of conflict coaches' experience. The mean numbers indicate coaches experience a higher level of work-family than family-work conflict. Figure 4 is an illustration of male and female coaches' work-family and family-work conflict levels.

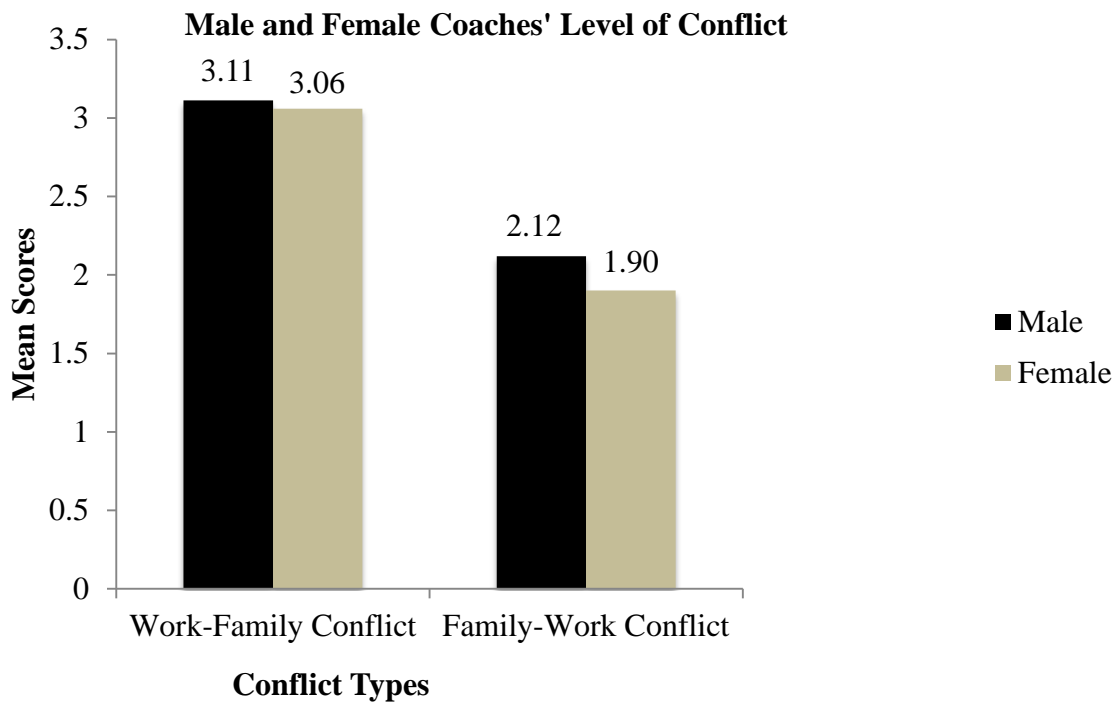


Figure 4. Mean scores for male and female coaches' level of conflict.

## Gender

In an effort to answer research questions 7a and 7b, which examined the overall effect gender had on the level of work-family conflict and family-work conflict of college coaches, another MANOVA was conducted. Results proved a significant multivariate

main effect of gender ( $\Lambda = .989$ ,  $F = 4.009$ ,  $df = 2, 735$ ,  $p = .019$ ), with a small to medium effect size ( $\eta_p^2 = .011$ ) and adequate power (.717). Table 4.9 shows the multivariate effect for gender and career stage.

Results of the univariate ANOVA are listed in Table 4.10. Specifically, work-family conflict,  $F(1,736) = .280$ ,  $p = .597$  and family-work conflict  $F(1,736) = 6.647$ ,  $p = .010$ . The mean difference (0.225,  $SE = .087$ ) between male and female coaches' level of family-work conflict was significant ( $p = .010$ ). These results suggest that gender has an effect on coaches' level of family-work conflict.

Table 4.9

*Multivariate Tests for Work and Family Conflict Among College Head Coaches*

Effect	$\Lambda$	$F$	df1	df2	$p$
Gender	.989	4.009 <sup>b</sup>	2.000	735.000	.019*
Career Stage	.980	3.651 <sup>b</sup>	4.000	1470.00	.006*
Gender x Career Stage	.990	1.770 <sup>b</sup>	4.000	1470.00	.132

*Note.* \* indicates significance at the .05 level.

Table 4.10

*ANOVA Results for Conflict Levels Among Male and Female Head Coaches*

Conflict Variable	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	$F$	$p$
Work-Family Conflict	.341	1	.341	.280	.597
Family-Work Conflict	5.995	1	5.995	6.647	.010*

*Note.* \* indicates significance at the .01 level.

## Career Stage

Research questions 8a and 8b investigated the effect a coaches' career stage had on their level of conflict. Results indicate a significant multivariate main effect of career stage ( $\Lambda = .980$ ,  $F = 3.651$ ,  $df = 4, 1470$ ,  $p = .006$ ), with a small to medium effect size ( $\eta_p^2 = .010$ ) and strong power (.881).

*Research question 8a* examined coaches' level of work-family conflict in regards to career stage. Further, univariate post hoc tests (ANOVA) revealed that the differences were statistically significant at specific career stages. The ANOVA revealed that work-family conflict does differ based on career stage,  $F(2,736) = 3.802$ ,  $p = .023$ . The same results were found for family-work conflict  $F(2,736) = 6.812$ ,  $p = .001$  (Table 4.11). Additionally, a post hoc pairwise comparison test illustrates which groups were significantly different. However, the mean difference (0.50,  $SE = 0.127$ ) in work-family conflict levels of coaches between the early and mid-career stage was not significant at the  $\alpha = .05$  level ( $p = .697$ ). The mean difference (0.308,  $SE = .141$ ) between early and late career stage was significant ( $p = .029$ ). There was also a significant difference ( $p = .011$ ) in coaches' level of work-family conflict between the mid and late career groups with a mean difference of .258 ( $SE = .102$ ). Findings indicate those coaches in early and mid-career experience higher levels of work-family conflict compared to those coaches in late career.

*Research question 8b* examined coaches' level of family-work conflict in regards to career stage. A post hoc pairwise comparison test revealed that the differences were statistically significant at specific career stages. The mean difference (0.148,  $SE = 0.110$ ) in family-work conflict levels of coaches between the early and mid-career stage was not



significant at the  $\alpha = .05$  level ( $p = .178$ ). In contrast, the mean difference (0.408,  $SE = .121$ ) between early and late career stage was significant ( $p = .001$ ). There was a significant difference ( $p = .003$ ) in coaches' level of family-work conflict between the mid and late career groups with a mean difference of .260 ( $SE = .088$ ). Figure 5 is an illustration of the aforementioned results.

Table 4.11

*ANOVA Results for Conflict Levels Across Head Coaches' Career Stage*

Conflict Variable	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Work-Family Conflict	9.256	2	4.628	3.802	.023*
Family-Work Conflict	12.288	2	6.144	6.812	.001*

*Note.* \* indicates significance at the .05 level.

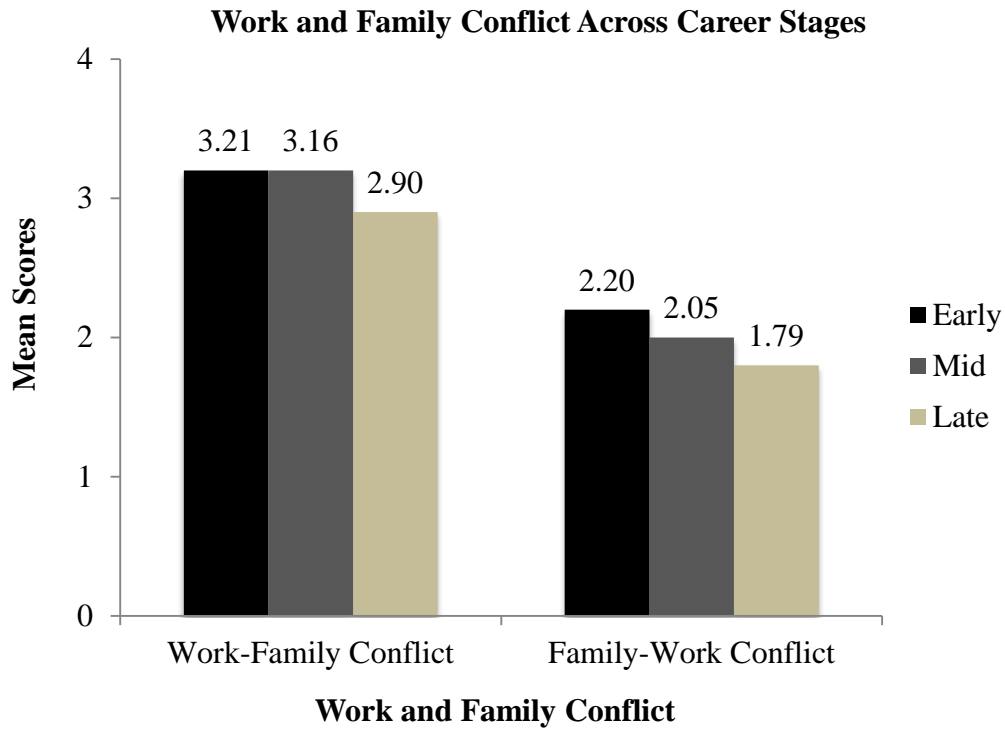


Figure 5. Mean scores for coaches' level of conflict across career stages.

### Obstacles and Opportunities in Coaching

*Research question 9* was concerned with uncovering the primary obstacles coaches face in their career. Coaches had the opportunity to choose from a list of obstacles, and if the obstacle was not listed, coaches could write in the obstacles they experience in the coaching profession. Frequencies were used to find the top three obstacles. Recruiting, in-season demands, and coping with stress were found to be the top three obstacles D-I head coaches' face in their career. The results are listed in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12

*Top Three Obstacles Coaches Face in Career*

Obstacles	<i>n</i>
Recruiting	453
In-Season Demands	345
Coping with Stress	294
Pressures to Win	240
Travel	224
Work-Family Conflict	217
Household Responsibilities	99
Physical Condition	59
Sex Discrimination	54
Cannot Relocate	42
Traveling Spouse	23

*Research question 10* asked coaches to choose the top three opportunities they had to develop their career. After examining the frequencies, networking, mentoring, and training opportunities emerged as the top three opportunities coaches had to develop and grow their career. Table 4.13 is an illustration of the frequencies from data analysis.

Table 4.13

*Top Three Opportunities for Coaches' Development*

Opportunities	<i>n</i>
Networking	529
Mentoring	504
Training Opportunities	347
Spouse willing to Relocate	318
Organizational Support	201
Spouse did not work	112

## **Summary**

The results of the data indicated that coaches' have a great need for challenge in their career. There was a significant difference found between male and female coaches' need for balance, with male coaches expressing a greater need for balance than female coaches. Authenticity was a significant career need for those coaches in early career compared to those coaches in mid and late career. Job satisfaction results suggested coaches were highly satisfied with their jobs. Work-family conflict was expressed as an issue for coaches. However, male coaches experienced a higher degree of family-work conflict than female coaches. Additionally, results were significant for those coaches in early and mid-career experiencing a higher degree of conflict than coaches in late career. Lastly, recruiting, in-season demands, and coping with stress were found to be the top three obstacles D-I head coaches' face in their career while networking, mentoring, and training opportunities emerged as the top three opportunities coaches had to develop their career.

## **Chapter 5: Discussion**

The following chapter is presented in seven sections. The first section discusses the results related to the career needs of college coaches. Section two explores the job satisfaction of coaches. Work and family conflict are discussed in section three. Section four focuses on the obstacles and opportunities coaches encounter in their career. Section five offers implications of findings. Limitations of the research and future areas of study are discussed in section six. Lastly, a conclusion is found in section seven.

### **Career Needs**

From the data analysis, the challenge career need ( $M = 3.74$ ;  $SD = .761$ ), which involves coaches' pursuit of autonomy, responsibility, and control while learning and growing (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005) had the highest mean score for coaches ( $n = 839$ ). Authenticity ( $M = 3.28$ ;  $SD = .815$ ) was the second career need that best described head coaches, followed by balance ( $M = 3.05$ ;  $SD = 1.02$ ). Results of a paired sample  $t$ -test was concluded there were statistically significant differences between the mean scores of authenticity ( $M = 3.28$ ;  $SD = .815$ ) and balance ( $M = 3.05$ ;  $SD = 1.02$ );  $t(838) = 5.937$ ,  $p < .001$ . Also, a statistically significant difference was found between the authenticity ( $M = 3.28$ ;  $SD = .815$ ) and challenge ( $M = 3.74$ ;  $SD = .761$ ) career need;  $t(838) = -15.150$ ,  $p < .001$ . Finally, there was a statistically significant difference between the balance ( $M = 3.05$ ;  $SD = 1.02$ ) and challenge ( $M = 3.74$ ;  $SD = .761$ ) career need;  $t(838) = -16.179$ ,  $p < .001$ . Therefore, findings suggest the challenge career need was most important to head

coaches working at the NCAA D-I level. The coaching profession is unique in nature and coaches are under constant pressure to perform and produce successful, winning teams (Brown, 2014). On the internet today, there are websites dedicated to predicting which D-I college coaches are on the hot seat for their jobs. Typically this list is created before a coach's season even begins and is maintained throughout the progression of their season (Brown, 2014). Likewise, Weaver (2010) stated "Each week, win or lose, fans weigh in on the contract status of the head coach. If the coach has a terrible season, the pressure builds to fire him. If he has a great season, the pressure is on to sign him to an extension, whatever the cost" (p. 18). The stakes are getting higher for coaches. Athletic directors argue head football and head men's basketball coaches are running multi-million-dollar organizations. As a result, coaches' salaries are on the rise (Weaver, 2010). With the intense pressure to produce successful teams, coaches may find the profession to be an everyday challenge, thus potentially explaining the challenge needs as most describing of D-I head coaches.

In Mainiero and Sullivan's (2005) extensive study investigating the career needs of employees across occupations, it was found that gender played a role in the career needs of employees. When investigating the effect gender had on coaches' career needs, results found a significant multivariate main effect of gender ( $\Lambda = .968$ ,  $F = 7.987$ ,  $df = 3$ ,  $734$ ,  $p < .001$ ). When examining where the difference lie, results of the post hoc ANOVA found the career parameter for authenticity,  $F(1,736) = .434$ ,  $p = .510$  and challenge,  $F(1,736) = 2.877$ ,  $p = .090$  were found to be non-significant, indicating gender had no effect on coaches' need for authenticity or challenge, answering *research question 2a* and *research question 2c*. The significant difference was found with the balance  $F(1,736) =$

20.434,  $p < .001$ . Male coaches ( $M = 3.17$ ;  $SD = 1.03$ ) had a higher need for the balance career need than female coaches ( $M = 2.84$ ;  $SD = .98$ ). In response to *research question 2b*, there is a significant difference between male and female coaches' need for balance, which is supported by the KCM literature (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005; Sullivan & Mainiero, 2007). For example, in Mainiero and Sullivan's (2005) study, women were found to desire a need for balance sooner than males. Much of the sports literature attributes the importance of balance to female personnel working in sport (see Bruening & Dixon, 2008; Dixon & Bruening, 2007). However, the results in this study are a unique finding, and supported by the recent literature focused on fathers working in sport (Graham & Dixon, 2014). In Graham and Dixon's (2014) article, a factor discussed that may impact the work-family interface for coaching fathers is sacrifice. It was suggested that the culture within sport breeds sacrifice as a means of commitment. Therefore, coaches may be deeply committed to their team while sacrificing time with their families, which correlates to work interfering with family. Thus, male coaches may have a strong need for balance during their career but little attention has been paid to this area.

When examining the results from the set of research questions involving the effect career stage had on the career needs of college coaches, authenticity was found to be the career need in which career stage had an effect, which answers *research question 3a*. The mean difference (0.341,  $SE = 0.092$ ) in career parameter of authenticity between the early and mid-career stage was significant ( $p < .001$ ) and the mean difference (0.281,  $SE = .102$ ) between early and late career stage was also significant ( $p = .006$ ). In other words, coaches' need for authenticity was determined significantly more important in early career ( $M = 3.50$ ;  $SD = .733$ ) compared to those coaches in mid-career ( $M = 3.19$ ;  $SD =$

.760) and late career ( $M = 3.25$ ;  $SD = .887$ ). However, when looking at any differences between coaches' in mid and late career groups, the mean difference was not significant. There were no significant results found between the career stage of the coach and their need for balance or challenge, which addressed *research questions 3b and 3c*.

Based on Lindstrom's (2011) career stage range, early career encompasses those coaches 20 to 34 years of age and data analysis uncovered 12.9% of the respondents ( $n = 108$ ) were in early career. Those individuals in mid-career ranged from the ages of 35-50 years, and results found 47.7% of the respondents ( $n = 401$ ) were in mid-career. Lastly, those in late career were older than 50 years of age and results found 27.7% of respondents ( $n = 233$ ) were in late career. In Sullivan and Mainiero's (2007) study, a *beta* career pattern was characterized by women placing an emphasis on challenge in early career, followed by balance as the key focus in mid-career, and authenticity taking priority in late career. Conversely, an *alpha* career pattern, primarily male-oriented, was characterized as challenge being central in early career, followed by authenticity in mid-career, and a focus for balance in late career. Thus, according to Sullivan and Mainiero (2007), regardless of gender, the authenticity career need was a priority for individuals in mid or late career. Results of this study suggest something different for college coaches, emphasizing coaches' need for authenticity in early career. Authenticity, defined as being true to oneself and making decisions that suit the self above others is more important for coaches in early career. This aligns with literature focused on the changing nature of workers and those individuals making career decisions that often lead individuals to looking for work compatible with their values (Cabrera, 2009).



Additionally, the occupation tenure for head coaches was ( $M = 14.5$  years;  $SD = 10.55$ ). According to Allen and Meyer (1993), there is no consensus determining the best variable to define career stage of employees (age, organizational tenure, position/occupational tenure). Also, Morrow and McElroy (1987) determined age to be the variable which explained more variation across work commitment, job satisfaction, and personality variables. For coaches, average tenure was close to 15 years, which indicates mid-career. According to this study, the younger workers, those in early career, place more emphasis on aligning their career and values than previous literature has implicated.

The last set of research questions involving the career needs of authenticity, balance, and challenge involved the effect of both gender and career stage on coaches' career needs. The results indicated a non-significant multivariate main effect of ( $\Lambda = .886$ ,  $F = .390$ ,  $df = 6, 1468$ ,  $p = .886$ ), gender and career stage on coaches' career needs, therefore addressing *research questions 4a, 4b, and 4c*. The KCM argues that women and men follow different career patterns and have different career needs during different stages of their career (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005). For intercollegiate head coaches, there was a difference in the career needs based on gender and based on the career stage. However, when linking these two factors together, there is not a significant difference.

### **Job Satisfaction**

*Research question 5a* investigated coaches' overall satisfaction level. Overall, results indicated coaches were satisfied with their jobs ( $M = 5.97$ ;  $SD = 1.16$ ). *Research question 5b* looked at coaches' job satisfaction levels as it relates to gender. When analyzing job satisfaction as it relates to gender, male coaches ( $M = 5.98$ ;  $SD = 1.14$ ) and

female coaches ( $M = 5.96$ ;  $SD = 1.19$ ) were both very satisfied with their jobs. The sports literature on job satisfaction is largely focused on keeping coaches in the profession. For instance, Sagas and Batista (2001) found as job satisfaction increased, a coach's intent to leave the profession decreased. Chelladurai and Ogasawara (2003) suggested the athletic departments focus on coaches' satisfaction with their jobs in an effort to keep them within the organization. Similarly, Sagas and Ashley (2001) examined job satisfaction in the coaching profession and stated the importance of studying job satisfaction to understand turnover in female coaches. With 35.5% of the sample representing female coaches, it is clear that despite the literature suggesting female coaches' struggle with balance and work-family conflict (see Bruening & Dixon, 2008; Dixon & Bruening, 2007; Dixon & Sagas, 2007), a variable found to push females out of the coaching profession, female coaches are satisfied with their jobs. Additionally, in this study there was not a significant difference in coaches' job satisfaction as it related to gender. Therefore, despite the declining trend of women working as intercollegiate coaches, job satisfaction of those surveyed was high. It is important to note that part of coaches' satisfaction levels could be a reflection of the athletic departments they work for. Regardless of the challenges of the profession, the time demands, and constant sacrifices made, the respondents reported loving what they do.

### **Work and Family Conflict**

Research question 6a and 6b wanted to further understand the level of conflict head coaches' experience. Descriptive statistics indicate head coaches experience work-family conflict ( $M = 3.06$ ;  $SD = 1.11$ ), addressing *research question 6a*. There is a plethora of literature studying the work-family construct in the coaching profession (e.g.,

Bruening & Dixon, 2007; Dixon & Bruening, 2005, 2007; Dixon & Sagas, 2007; Ryan & Sagas, 2009). There is consistency in the literature in regards to coaches' struggle to manage work and family constructs. The results of this study support previous research indicating in the coaching profession, work does interfere with the family construct. For intercollegiate coaches at the D-I level, this is no exception. For the family-work conflict construct, results indicate head coaches' level of family-work conflict ( $M = 1.99$ ;  $SD = .97$ ) to be minimal, answering *research question 6b*. The mean number indicates coaches' do not experience high levels of family-work conflict. From the aforementioned literature, much of the focus is on the work-to-family relationship (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

When examining the effect of gender on work and family conflict, results were significant for multivariate main effect of gender ( $\Lambda = .989$ ,  $F = 4.009$ ,  $df = 2, 735$ ,  $p = .019$ ). However, when examining the differences, work-family conflict levels for male coaches ( $M = 3.05$ ;  $SD = 1.12$ ) and female coaches ( $M = 3.08$ ;  $SD = 1.09$ ) were not significantly different. For family-work conflict, there was a significant difference,  $F(1,736) = 6.647$ ,  $p = .010$ , between male coaches ( $M = 2.03$ ;  $SD = 1.0$ ) and female coaches ( $M = 1.91$ ;  $SD = .90$ ). Most literature has defined family as "two or more individuals occupying interdependent roles with the purpose of accomplishing shared goals" (Eby et al., 2005, p. 126). Of the respondents, 44.6% had at least one child living in the home. While much of the sport management literature has focused on coaching mothers and their struggle with work and family conflict, these results suggest male coaches also struggle with conflict. Support for these results are found in Graham and Dixon's (2014) article focused on the work and family interface as it relates to coaching

fathers. In the article, the authors posited the coaching subculture as a place where fathers face strong demands from both family and work (Graham & Dixon, 2014). On the contrary, when studying employees of a global high-tech company, it was found that working fathers reported lower levels of family-work conflict than working mothers (Hill, Martinson, Hawkins, & Ferris, 2003). These contradictions warrant further study which is discussed in the recommendations for future directions of research section.

*Research question 8a* examined coaches' level of work-family conflict in regards to career stage. Differences revealed were statistically significant at specific career stages ( $F(2,736) = 3.802, p = .023$ ). Work-family conflict levels of coaches between the early and mid-career stage was not significant. However, work-family conflict levels between early ( $M = 3.15; SD = 1.09$ ) and late career stage ( $M = 2.87; SD = 1.14$ ) was significant ( $p = .029$ ). There was a significant difference in coaches' level of work-family conflict between the mid ( $M = 3.15; SD = 1.09$ ) and late career groups ( $M = 2.87; SD = 1.14$ ). Findings indicate those coaches in early and mid-career experience higher levels of work-family conflict than those coaches in late career, suggesting coaches in late career (age 50+) may not have as many family responsibilities compared to younger coaches. In Dixon and Bruening's (2005) investigation of work-family in sport, the authors studied the construct from an individual, structural, and social perspective. Family structure was discussed as an aspect in work-family conflict. Specifically "differences in family structure relate to differences in work-family conflict. Probably the most important aspect of this is the presence of children in the family, especially young children" (Dixon & Bruening, 2005, p. 235). The average age at which women in the U.S. have their first

child is 25.2 (Onderko, 2010). Thus, those individuals in early and mid-career may have young children living in the home compared to those coaches in late career.

*Research question 8b* examined coaches' level of family-work conflict in regards to career stage. Differences revealed were statistically significant at specific career stages for family-work conflict  $F(2,736) = 6.812, p = .001$ . Family-work conflict levels of coaches between the early and mid-career stage was not significant. However, there was a significant difference ( $p = .001$ ) between coaches' family-work conflict levels between the early career ( $M = 2.11; SD = 1.00$ ) and late career stage ( $M = 1.77; SD = .81$ ). Also, there was a significant difference ( $p = .003$ ) in coaches' level of family-work conflict between those coaches in mid-career ( $M = 2.09; SD = 1.02$ ) and those in late careers ( $M = 1.77; SD = .81$ ). Results are similar to the work-family conflict findings, suggesting those coaches in early and mid-career experience higher levels of family-work conflict than those coaches late in their career. According to Netemeyer et al. (1996), family-work conflict "occurs when the general demands of time devoted to, and strain created by family interfere with performing work-related responsibilities" (p.401). Frye and Breugh (2004) found childcare responsibilities and supervisor support were related to family-work conflict. Close to half of the head coaches surveyed for this study had children under the age of 18 living at home. It has been found employees with children report greater levels of family-work conflict (Carlson, 1999). Thus, family structure contributed to coaches' level of family-work conflict (Dixon & Bruening, 2005), most commonly expected with coaches' in early and mid-career, where children living in the home is more likely.

## **Obstacles and Opportunities**

*Research question 9* was concerned with uncovering the primary obstacles coaches face in their career. The top three obstacles coaches' face in the career are recruiting, in-season demands, and coping with stress. It is no surprise recruiting is the top obstacles coaches face in their career. Most coaches travel year-round to find the most talented high school athletes to improve their program (Crabtree, 2015). According to Florida State University's football recruiting coordinator, "Any good head coach understands the importance of recruiting and how talent can help you overcome a lot of different things. There's a tremendous amount of quality coaches in college football today, but the best ones are the ones that know that getting talent in recruiting translates to wins on Saturdays" (Crabtree, 2015, para. 5). In D-I college athletics, there is competition for recruits across all sports, forcing coaching to beat the pavement and work tirelessly to improve their talent pool. The next two obstacles, in-season demands and coping with stress are no surprise once reading sport management literature on coaching. The demands of the profession, from the long hours (working nights and weekends) and constant travel (Knoppers, 1992) provide constant challenges to coaches. Research examining stress and burnout of college baseball and softball coaches found those coaches dealing with coaching issues reported higher perceived stress. Also, those coaches' with greater social support satisfaction perceived lower stress levels (Kelley, 1994). This is important to consider when examining the obstacles coaches face.

*Research question 10* asked coaches to choose the top three opportunities they had to develop their career. Networking, mentoring, and training opportunities emerged as the top three opportunities coaches had to develop and grow their career. Halgin

studied the movement of NCAA D-I head basketball coaches between the years of 2001-2007, particularly exploring the importance of networking on coaches' future job opportunities. It was found that "coaches who were well-connected were more likely to find jobs after being fired" (as cited in Hayashi, 2009, para. 5). In this instance, and common in the coaching profession, the different connections coaches have to others in their "family" may be directly related to the job opportunities available for those coaches (Hayashi, 2009). Therefore, in the coaching profession, coaches expanding their network and utilizing their connections for career development is deemed critical and most important.

Mentoring is defined as "a dynamic, reciprocal relationship in a work environment between an advanced career incumbent (mentor) and a beginner (protégé) aimed at promoting the career development of both" (Healy & Welchert, 1990, p. 17). Coaches in this study believed mentoring was a critical opportunity to develop their career, and as Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, and Lima (2004) found, those individuals in a mentored group gained career benefits (e.g., satisfaction, compensation, promotions) compared to those in nonmentored groups. Although the aforementioned study was not investigating college coaching, it demonstrates the importance of mentoring to employees. D-I college head coaches are in favor of mentoring for career development. Finally, training opportunities were also found to important for coaches' career development. Typically, each sport has a national convention specifically for coaches. For example, the American Football Coaches Association (AFCA) holds a national conference for football coaches. During this week, coaches hear from guest speakers, attend presentations, and have a chance to attend numerous educational programs offered

within the conference (AFCA, 2015). Attending conferences and taking advantage of educational opportunities may help coaches develop their careers.

### **Implications for Practitioners**

This study attempted to further understand the career needs of intercollegiate head coaches working at the NCAA D-I level. Also, a primary motivation for this study was to understand why women are underrepresented in the coaching profession. Results of the study were quite surprising and extend the sport management literature. Findings indicated D-I college head coaches have a great need for challenge in their careers.

According to Mainiero and Sullivan (2008), challenge is defined as engaging in activities that permit the individual to demonstrate responsibility, control, and autonomy while learning and growing. Coaches have the responsibility of leading and managing athletes while also trying to improve from year to year. Challenge as a career need, regardless of gender of the coach seems fitting for the profession and administrators must provide coaches the opportunities for autonomy and growth. This could include supporting coaches' endeavors to take their team abroad or providing training resources for coaches.

For male coaches, the balance career need was deemed most important. Considering the majority of research has focused on female coaches' work-life balance, it is important for administrators and policy makers to understand that male coaches value balance and steps should be taken to ensure male coaches have resources to help maintain balance. This could include flex programs where coaches can work from home a few days a week or on-site daycare to alleviate some of the challenges for coaches to balance work and other aspect of life. Authenticity, defined as being true to oneself and making decisions that suit the self above others is more important for coaches in early career was



found to be important for coaches in early career. Currently, the landscape of the workplace is changing. Young employees make decision about work as it relates to their lives. In other words, individuals in Generation Y (born after 1980) are the children of the retiring Baby Boomers. This generation has a “willingness to work hard and set goals to achieve the lifestyle they want. They also share many of the common values of patriotism and family” (American Management Association, 2014, para. 10). It is critical athletic administrators understand young coaches’ desire and need for their work to align with their values. Athletic administrators could provide coaches the time to give to other interests or offer workshops focused on finding greater purpose in work (Sullivan & Mainiero, 2008). Although the KCM suggested authenticity was more important to employees later in life, in the coaching profession, results imply the younger coaches value authenticity and this cannot be ignored. Further exploration should investigate coaches’ longevity in the career, occupational tenure, as it relates to the KCM.

Overall, coaches were highly satisfied with their jobs. Therefore, regardless of the challenges of the profession, coaches enjoy their job. This is a positive finding for athletic departments and should be celebrated. Coaches experience work-family conflict but reported minimal conflict between family and work. Administrators must take steps to alleviate the challenge for coaches to maintain a coaching schedule while also managing time with their family. It is important that athletic departments support coaches’ lives outside of the office. Literature has found using family-friendly policy and providing supervisor support has helped employees with work-family conflict (Frye & Breaugh, 2004). Therefore, athletic departments maintaining a family-friendly work environment where coaches can welcome their families would be a good start. Male head coaches

seemed to experience higher levels of family-work conflict than female coaches. It is important attention be paid to male coaches and their management of conflict levels between family and work. Graham and Dixon (2014) were on the right track examining coaching fathers' and conflict. Of the respondents, 64.5% were male. The majority of coaches at the collegiate level are men (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012), so it is important to study male coaches' careers as well as females.

When coaches were asked the top three obstacles of the coaching career, recruiting, in-season demands, and coping with stress were found to be those top three obstacles. Recruiting is a year-round process for coaches and is very time demanding. The NCAA regulates the amount of time coaches can recruit. Currently, the NCAA breaks down the recruiting calendar into four periods: contact, evaluation, quiet, and dead periods. The contact period is when coaches can make in-person visits with prospective student-athletes at any location. The evaluation period is a time when coaches cannot have off-campus contact with recruits (no home visits). However, coaches can go to a prospective student-athletes' school and recruits can make visits to campus. Quiet period is when coaches cannot have any contact with prospects off-campus. However, visits are still permitted. Lastly, the dead period for coaches is the most restrictive where coaches cannot have any in-person contact with prospective student-athletes (Elliott, 2014). For most coaches' working at the NCAA D-I level, three to four dead periods are in the recruiting calendar. Thus, roughly nine months out of the year coaches can recruit, and this number is on the low end. It is recommended the NCAA slow down the recruiting process and increase the number of dead periods. If coaches are constantly beating the recruiting trail to keep up with the schools down the road, it is not shock recruiting

ranked the number one obstacle for coaches. Policy makers at the NCAA office could make adjustments to the recruiting calendar which may potentially alleviate some of the time demands presented from recruiting while also keeping an even playing field. In-season demands may always present a challenge to coaches because there is constant travel and preparing for competition. However, to assist coaches in managing in-season demands, it may be beneficial for athletic departments to provide each team with a manager to help alleviate some of the demands presented to coaches.

Coaches' emphasized coping with stress was a prevalent obstacle in the coaching profession. Taylor (1992) examined the stress coaches' face in the profession. In his scholarly work, he created a five-step process to help coaches manage their stress. It is recommended athletic departments have individuals to help facilitate this five-step process (Table 5.1).

Table 5.1

*Five-Step Process to Help Coaches Manage Their Stress*

Step	Focus	Action
First	Perceptions of coaching	Assist coaches in understanding their perceptions, beliefs, and motivations for coaching.
Second	Identification of primary stressors	Clarify to coaches their most significant source of stress.
Third	Identification of symptomatology	Allow for the specification of the manner in which the stress is manifested in the coach.
Fourth	Development of coping skills	Provide a structure within which coaches may cope effectively with stressors.
Fifth	Building support systems	Describe how a broad-based social support system may contribute to the effective management of stress.

*Note.* Adapted from Taylor, J. (1992). Coaches are people too: An applied model of stress management for sports coaches. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 4(1), 27-50.

Networking, mentoring, and training opportunities emerged as the top three opportunities coaches had to develop and grow their career. Most sports have their own convention. This is a place where coaches come together and socialize, learn from one another, present on specific topics of interest, and engage about the rules and regulations, and possible changes. A coaches' convention is also a great environment for both networking and mentoring. Athletic departments should support their coaches' by financially supporting their attendance at their sports' coaches' convention. Opportunities for coaches to network, build mentoring relationships, and learn from others in the profession are important and should be supported.

Finally, this study sought out to further understand reasons to the steady decline of females coaching at the collegiate level. For NCAA D-I, only 38.6% of coaches are females (Lapchick et al., 2012). Previous research attributed work-family conflict and work-life balance as reasons why women leave coaching (Dixon & Bruening, 2007). However, results from this study found female coaches are highly satisfied with their jobs and experience less conflict than those of their male counterparts. Therefore, other reasons attribute to this steady decline. Mainiero and Sullivan (2005) offered women tend to leave their jobs before reaching the pinnacle of their careers due to lack of advancement opportunities. Female coaches may be hindered by this as well. Athletic departments must make it a priority to hire women coaches and provide an environment that support women's careers.

### **Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research**

This study explored D-I college head coaches. However, it is unknown if the results represent those head coaches working at the D-II or D-III level. Therefore,

generalizability was found to be a limitation of this study. It is recommended scholars further explore the careers of college coaches at the D-II and D-III level. Also, mixed methodology was not used for this study. The research design was deemed a limitation. While quantitative research attempts to quantify relationships between variables and uses objective, hard data (Golafshani, 2003) to help the researcher familiarize him/herself with the problem or concept to be studied, qualitative research offers an in-depth understanding of an issue, perceptions, or behavior (Creswell, 2013). The career needs of college coaches should be studied from a qualitative perspective as well, in the form of interviews or focus-groups. Obtaining in-depth information on coaches' career needs may expand the current study.

This was the first study to utilize the KCM in a sports context. This study used Lindstrom's (2011) career stages for grouping. However, coaches could be in the industry for years as an assistant coach and receive a head coaching job when they are in late career (according to age). Future study should consider creating an original career stage measure utilizing both age and occupational tenure. Combining the two measures may also take in account generational differences between head coaches. Analyzing coaches career needs across sports (revenue versus non-revenue) or the Power Five conferences (i.e., Atlantic Coast Conference, Big Ten, Big 12, Southeastern Conference, and Pac-12) versus other NCAA D-I conference would add to the research and may shed light on potential differences between coaches career needs based on level of competition.

Although this study adds to the minimal literature on male coaches and supports further study of male coaches' experiences in the profession, future research should also explore the resources offered to help coaches with the obstacles of the profession. It

would be worthy to investigate the obstacles coaches face across gender and career stage to determine if there are any differences. This information may help administrators when implementing resources to assist coaches in the management of the obstacles of the career. If all coaches do not face the same obstacles, it is important to understand where differences may exist. Investigating the resources available to coaches to assist in stress management may advance the literature and provide tools for coaches to apply to their everyday lives. Coaches reported training opportunities as a resource used to develop their careers. It is recommended future study investigate specific training opportunities available for coaches to help develop their careers. Lastly, determining other reasons that may attribute to the steady decline of female coaches in the profession is needed in order to provide female coaches the resources they need to enter in, stay, and succeed in the profession.

### **Conclusion**

This study utilized the KCM to examine the career needs of college coaches working at the NCAA D-I level. Also, coaches' satisfaction and conflict levels were analyzed in an attempt to obtain a clearer picture of the coaching profession as a whole. The results of the study highlighted some important areas. The KCM was created with women in mind, suggesting as women transition in life, their career needs change. Overall, D-I coaches have a great need for challenge in their career. Thus, regardless of gender, coaches felt the challenge career need best described them. However, male coaches emphasized their need for balance more than their female counterpart. This is an interesting finding, as much of the coaching literature focuses on female coaches' need for balance (Dixon & Bruening, 2007), and with the gender gap present in college

athletics, it has been suggested female coaches leave the profession for family reasons (Sagas & Batista, 2001). Therefore, although this study sought to understand why there is a gender gap in the college coaching profession, it was discovered that male coaches have a desire for balance and questions should be asked to further understand this need.

Authenticity was the career need that Mainiero and Sullivan (2005) suggested was most important to women and men in late career. This study found authenticity was most important to coaches in early career. Literature shows young employees make decision about work as it relates to their lives (Hall, 1996) and could explain the need for authenticity for coaches in early career. The nature of college athletics and coaching may promote the challenge need compared to other professions. Additionally, individuals are redefining the meaning of career as it relates to other areas of life (Hall, 1996) which may promote the authenticity need. Thus, employers can reshape what it means to get work done and provide appropriate avenues for coaches to meet their career needs at different stages in life. Further research should use the KCM to examine coaches from a generational perspective to extend the findings.

Results also suggested coaches were highly satisfied with their jobs. Despite both male and female coaches experiencing work-family conflict, they still remained satisfied with their jobs. It is important to note male coaches' experienced higher levels of family-work conflict than female coaches. While there is a disparity in the number of female coaches in college athletics, male coaches are presented similar challenges as females and should not be overlooked. Graham and Dixon's (2014) study should be extended.

Finally, the obstacles coaches face on a regular basis due to the profession should be addressed and the actions mentioned in the implications section of this paper should be

taken to alleviate these obstacles. This study was an opportunity to understand the coaching profession and if shortening the recruiting calendar can alleviate that particular obstacle, careful consideration should be made. Additionally, coaches' high need for challenge may come with their desire to learn and develop. Providing coaches the opportunities to network and engage in fulfilling mentorships and training activities may provide coaches a supportive and fulfilling experience.



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***Appendix A: ABC's Model of Kaleidoscope Careers for Women***

### Early Career



### Mid-Career



### Late Career



***Appendix B: Informed Consent Form for Participants***

## INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPANTS

The Ohio State University  
College of Education and Human Ecology  
Informed Consent

Title: Kaleidoscope careers: Exploring the career needs of intercollegiate head coaches

Principal Investigator: Donna Pastore, Ph.D.  
Student Principal Investigator: Shaina Ervin, Ph.D. Student

### I. Purpose:

You are invited to participate in an Ohio State University research study. The purpose of the study is to further understand the careers of college head coaches by exploring intercollegiate head coaches' career needs. Participation will require 10-15 minutes of your time today for the survey.

### II. Procedures:

If you decide to participate, you will click NEXT to access the online questionnaire. The questionnaire takes approximately 10-15 minutes to complete.

### III. Risks:

In this study, you will not have any more risks than you would in a normal day of life.

### IV. Benefits:

Participation in this study may not benefit you personally. For your participation in this study, \$1 will be donated for each survey collected, up to \$300.00 to Big Brothers Big Sisters of America charity. Overall, we hope to gain information about intercollegiate head coaches' career needs.

### V. Voluntary Participation and Withdrawal:

Participation in research is voluntary. You do not have to be in this study. If you decide to be in the study and change your mind, you have the right to drop out at any time. You may skip questions or stop participating at any time. Whatever you decide, you will not lose any benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

VI. Confidentiality:

We will keep your records private to the extent allowed by law. The researchers, Donna Pastore and Shaina Ervin, will have access to the information you provide. Information may also be shared with those who make sure the study is done correctly (Ohio State Institutional Review Board, the Office for Human Research Protection (OHRP)). The information you provide will be stored in locked and password- and firewall-protected computers. The key (code sheet) will be stored separately from the data to protect privacy and will be destroyed at completion of the data entry. Your name and other facts that might point to you will not appear when we present this study or publish its results. The findings will be summarized and reported in group form. We will work to make sure that no one sees your survey responses without approval. But, because we are using the Internet, there is a chance that someone could access your online responses without permission. In some cases, this information could be used to identify you.

VII. Contact Persons:

Contact Donna Pastore or Shaina Ervin at (614) 247-8400 or [pastore.3@osu.edu](mailto:pastore.3@osu.edu) if you have questions, concerns, or complaints about this study. You can also call if think you have been harmed by the study. You may contact Ms. Sandra Meadows in the Office of Responsible Research Practices at 1-800-678-6251 if you want to talk to someone who is not part of the study team. You can talk about questions, concerns, or suggestions about the study.

VIII. Copy of Consent Form to Subject:

You may print a copy of this consent form to keep.

If you are willing to volunteer for this research, please continue with the survey. You are consenting that you are 18 years or older. Press "NEXT"

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## ***Appendix C: Survey Instrument***



Please read each of the following statements and indicate how well it describes you as you are right now.

	Does not describe me at all	Describes me somewhat	Describes me often	Describes me considerably	Describes me very well
I hope to find a greater purpose to my life that suits who I am	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Nothing matters more to me right now than balancing work with my family responsibilities.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have discovered that crises in life offer perspectives in ways that daily living does not.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I continually look for new challenges in everything I do.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I constantly arrange my work around my family needs.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I hunger for greater spiritual growth in my life.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I want to have an impact and leave my signature on what I	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

<p>accomplish in life.</p> <p>If necessary, I would give up my work to settle problematic family issues or concerns.</p> <p>My work is meaningless if I cannot take the time to be with my family.</p> <p>Most people would describe me as being very goal-directed.</p> <p>I view setbacks not as "problems" to be overcome but as "challenges" that require solutions.</p> <p>Achieving balance between work and family is life's holy grail.</p> <p>I thrive on work challenges and turn work problems into opportunities for change.</p> <p>If I could follow my</p>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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dream right now, I would. Added work responsibilities don't worry me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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Please read each of the following statements and indicate how well it describes your level of job satisfaction.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
All in all, I am satisfied with my job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In general, I do not like my job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In general, I like working here.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please read each of the following statements and choose how well you agree with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Family-related strains interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my family or spouse/partner.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work-related activities.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate the conference in which you currently coach.

- ☐ American Athletic Conference
- ☐ American East Conference
- ☐ Atlantic Coast Conference
- ☐ Atlantic Sun Conference
- ☐ Atlantic 10 Conference
- ☐ Big East Conference
- ☐ Big Sky Conference
- ☐ Big South Conference
- ☐ Big Ten Conference
- ☐ Big West Conference
- ☐ Big 12 Conference
- ☐ Colonial Athletic Association
- ☐ Conference USA
- ☐ Division I FBS Independents
- ☐ Division I FCS Independents
- ☐ Division I Independents
- ☐ Horizon League
- ☐ Ivy League
- ☐ Metro Atlantic Athletic Conference
- ☐ Mid-American Conference
- ☐ Mid-Eastern Athletic Conference
- ☐ Missouri Valley Football Conference
- ☐ Mountain Pacific Sports Federation
- ☐ Mountain West Conference
- ☐ Northeast Conference
- ☐ Ohio Valley Conference
- ☐ Pacific-12 Conference
- ☐ Patriot League
- ☐ Pioneer Football League
- ☐ Southern Conference
- ☐ Southeastern Conference
- ☐ Southland Conference
- ☐ Southwestern Athletic Conference
- ☐ Sun Belt Conference
- ☐ The Summit League
- ☐ West Coast Conference
- ☐ Western Atlantic Conference
- ☐ Other please write in response \_\_\_\_\_

Please indicate the number of years you have been in the workforce since the age of 21.

Please indicate how long you have been a head coach (number of years).

Have you ever been employed as an assistant coach?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

Please indicate the number of years you served as an assistant coach.

- ☐ 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ Other, please write in your response. \_\_\_\_\_

Please indicate the gender of the team (s) you currently coach.

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female
- ☐ Co-ed

Please indicate the sport (s) you currently coach. Check all that apply. If you select other, please write in the sport.

- ☐ Men's Baseball
- ☐ Men's Basketball
- ☐ Women's Basketball
- ☐ Men's Bowling
- ☐ Women's Bowling
- ☐ Men's Cross Country
- ☐ Women's Cross Country
- ☐ Fencing
- ☐ Football
- ☐ Men's Field Hockey
- ☐ Women's Field Hockey
- ☐ Men's Golf
- ☐ Women's Golf
- ☐ Men's Ice Hockey
- ☐ Women's Ice Hockey
- ☐ Men's Lacrosse
- ☐ Women's Lacrosse
- ☐ Rifle
- ☐ Men's Rugby
- ☐ Men's Soccer
- ☐ Women's Soccer
- ☐ Softball
- ☐ Men's Swimming/Diving
- ☐ Women's Swimming/Diving
- ☐ Men's Tennis
- ☐ Women's Tennis
- ☐ Men's Indoor Track and Field
- ☐ Women's Indoor Track and Field
- ☐ Men's Outdoor Track and Field
- ☐ Women's Outdoor Track and Field
- ☐ Men's Volleyball
- ☐ Women's Volleyball
- ☐ Wrestling
- ☐ Other, please write in your response. \_\_\_\_\_



Please select which time of year is considered In Season. Then please write the average number of hours you work per week In Season. If you coach more than one sport, please indicate the number of hours per week you work in each season.

- ☐ Fall \_\_\_\_\_
- ☐ Winter \_\_\_\_\_
- ☐ Spring \_\_\_\_\_
- ☐ Summer \_\_\_\_\_

Please select which time of year is considered Off Season. Then please write in the average number of hours you work per week during the Off Season.

- ☐ Fall \_\_\_\_\_
- ☐ Winter \_\_\_\_\_
- ☐ Spring \_\_\_\_\_
- ☐ Summer \_\_\_\_\_

Compared to the other coaches at your university/college, how would you rate your performance?

- ☐ Poor
- ☐ Below Average
- ☐ Average
- ☐ Above Average
- ☐ Outstanding

Compared to other coaches of the same sport at different universities/colleges, how would you rate your performance?

- ☐ Poor
- ☐ Below Average
- ☐ Average
- ☐ Above Average
- ☐ Outstanding

Please indicate your previous season's (main competition season) conference standings.

\_\_\_\_\_ Place in conference  
\_\_\_\_\_ Number of teams in conference

Which of the following statement BEST reflects your career plans?

- ☐ I hope to work with many universities/colleges over my career
- ☐ I want to stay at the organization I am at
- ☐ I strive to be a head coach at a larger Division I institution
- ☐ I want to be a head coach at the Division II level
- ☐ I want to be a head coach at the Division III level
- ☐ I intend on leaving the coaching profession
- ☐ I want to be an assistant coach at Division I or II level
- ☐ I want to be a coach for a professional or non-university team
- ☐ Other, please write in your response. \_\_\_\_\_

How many universities have you worked at?

- ☐ 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ Other, please write in your response. \_\_\_\_\_

How many times have you taken a career timeout from coaching? A career timeout is considered a period of time (i.e., a month or a number of years) in which you took a break from coaching.

- ☐ 0
- ☐ 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ Other, please write in your response. \_\_\_\_\_

Which of the following statements BEST reflects why you have taken a time out in your career as a head coach? If you have taken more than one career timeout, please indicate the reason for your latest career timeout. A career timeout is considered a period of time (i.e., a month or a number of years) in which you took a break from coaching.

- ☐ My own health issues
- ☐ Health issues of my spouse/partner or child
- ☐ To care for elderly relatives
- ☐ To have children
- ☐ Job loss
- ☐ To focus on myself
- ☐ Start a business
- ☐ To further my education
- ☐ I have not taken a career timeout
- ☐ Other, please write in your response. \_\_\_\_\_

Choose the TOP THREE obstacles you have faced during your career as a head coach. Please type in 1, 2, and 3 into your top three choices, with 1 being the biggest obstacle.

- \_\_\_\_\_ Travel
- \_\_\_\_\_ Household responsibilities
- \_\_\_\_\_ Sex discrimination
- \_\_\_\_\_ Pressures to win
- \_\_\_\_\_ In-season demands
- \_\_\_\_\_ Recruiting
- \_\_\_\_\_ Can't relocate
- \_\_\_\_\_ Traveling spouse
- \_\_\_\_\_ Physical condition
- \_\_\_\_\_ Work-family conflict
- \_\_\_\_\_ Coping with stress
- \_\_\_\_\_ Other, please write in your response.

List the TOP THREE factors that has helped develop your career. Please type in 1, 2, and 3 into your top three choices, with 1 being the most significant factor.

- \_\_\_\_\_ My spouse did not work
- \_\_\_\_\_ Mentoring
- \_\_\_\_\_ Organizational support (i.e., childcare, flextime)
- \_\_\_\_\_ Training opportunities
- \_\_\_\_\_ Networking
- \_\_\_\_\_ Spouse was willing to relocate
- \_\_\_\_\_ Other, please write in your response.

Which of the following does your current athletic department provide as organizational support? Please check all that apply.

- ☐ Work-life balance programs
- ☐ Mentoring opportunities
- ☐ Guest speakers on work-life management/career development
- ☐ Employee appreciation events
- ☐ On-site childcare
- ☐ Flexible working hours
- ☐ Work from home
- ☐ Unlimited sick leave
- ☐ None
- ☐ Other, please write in your response. \_\_\_\_\_

Gender:

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female

Ethnicity/Race:

- ☐ African American/Black
- ☐ American Indian or Alaskan Native
- ☐ Asian
- ☐ Caucasian/White
- ☐ Hispanic or Latino
- ☐ Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
- ☐ Multiple ethnic/racial background
- ☐ Other

Age:

Marital/Household Status:

- ☐ Single
- ☐ Married
- ☐ Committed relationship
- ☐ Divorced
- ☐ Widowed

Number of children in household under the age of 18:

Is your spouse/partner a coach?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

Do you have childcare responsibilities?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

How many hours per week do you spend on childcare responsibilities relative to work time?

Do you have eldercare responsibilities?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

How many hours per week do you spend on eldercare responsibilities relative to work time?

Approximately, how much is your yearly salary?

- ☐ lower than 20,000
- ☐ 20,001-40,000
- ☐ 40,001-60,000
- ☐ 60,001-80,000
- ☐ 80,001-100,000
- ☐ 100,001-150,000
- ☐ 150,001-200,000
- ☐ 200,001-250,000
- ☐ 250,001-300,000
- ☐ 300,001-400,000
- ☐ 400,001-500,000
- ☐ 500,001-1,000,000
- ☐ 1,000,001-2,000,000
- ☐ 2,000,001-3,000,000
- ☐ more than 3,000,000

Who is the primary financial provider in your household?

- ☐ I am
- ☐ My spouse/partner
- ☐ My spouse/partner and I contribute equally
- ☐ My parents
- ☐ Other, please write in your response. \_\_\_\_\_

According to Acosta and Carpenter (2012), there is a declining trend in the representation of women as head coaches at the intercollegiate level. Currently, roughly 42.9% of women coach female sports at the college level, and over the past 12 years, over 2,000 new coaching jobs were created in women's athletics. Nearly two-thirds were filled by men. Why do you think women are underrepresented as intercollegiate head coaches?

Please use this space to provide any additional comments you may have.

***Appendix D: Letter to Panel of Experts***

[DATE]

Dear Colleague,

The enclosed survey addresses the career needs and career trajectory of intercollegiate head coaches. Understanding the coaching profession for both men and women and the obstacles and opportunities presented to coaches during the career may be pertinent to the recruitment and retention of coaches, particular female coaches. Because of your experience in athletics, intercollegiate athletics, and/or research, we are asking you serve as an expert panel member and assist in reviewing and enhancing the validity of the instrument. Specifically, we would like you to review the items and instructions and comment on: 1) the clarity of the questions; 2) the content of the questions; 3) the clarity of the instructions; and 4) the appropriateness of the order in which the questions were presented. Please feel free to comment and make changes to the survey that you deem appropriate.

The survey will be sent to Division I head coaches. We request that you return the survey [DATE]. If you have any questions, please contact the researchers. Thank you for helping us with this important stage in our research.

Sincerely,

Shaina M. Ervin  
The Ohio State University  
315 W. 17<sup>th</sup> Avenue  
Columbus, OH 43210  
704.779.2104  
Ervin.137@osu.edu

Donna L. Pastore, Ph.D.  
The Ohio State University  
315 W. 17<sup>th</sup> Avenue, A262  
Columbus, OH 43210  
614.940.2058  
pastore.3@osu.edu



## Comments

Please review the survey and respond to the following statements in the space provided. Please feel free to include ways in which the survey can be improved.

The purpose of the study is: a) to determine if the career needs of authenticity, balance, and challenge, as proposed by the KCM describe head coaches career needs at the NCAA D-I level; b) to determine if there were differences in how well the career parameters described men and women D-I intercollegiate head coaches across the career stages; c) to determine how satisfied D-I head coaches are with their jobs; d) to determine if there were differences in male and female coaches' level of conflict across the career stages; and e) to develop a more precise understanding of the obstacles of the career and opportunities coaches encounter in their career.

1. Given the purposes of the study, do you think the information collected is needed?
2. Is the wording and terminology of the survey easily understood and clear?
3. Are the response choices appropriate?
4. Is the range of response choices appropriate?
5. Are the directions easy to follow?
6. Does the survey look neat and attractive?
7. Does the survey take too long to complete?
8. Please include any comments or suggestions relevant for improving the survey.

## ***Appendix E: Letter for Pilot Study***

[DATE]

Dear Coach,

I am a doctorate student at the Ohio State University in the Sport Management program. With the help of my advisor, Dr. Donna Pastore, I am currently working on my dissertation which focuses on investigating the career needs to intercollegiate head coaches. As a Division II head coach, we are asking you to participate in this pilot study to help establish validity and reliability of the enclosed survey. The survey addresses the career needs and the opportunities and obstacles coaches may have during their career. Gaining a better understanding of the coaching profession and the coaches themselves may athletic administration personnel resources to assist in fostering a work environment that supports coaches' needs at different stages in the career.

Because of your experience in as a head coach, we are asking for your participation in this study. Your input is critical to the study's success. **It is estimated the survey will take approximately 15 minutes to complete.**

[Survey Link: <https://www.....>]

There are no known physical or psychological risks associated with completing the survey. You may refuse to answer any questions and may withdraw from completing the survey at any time. By completing this survey, you consent to participate. No personally identifiable information will be associated with your responses in any published and reported results of this study.

For questions about your rights as a participant in this study or to discuss other study-related concerns or complaints with someone who is not part of the research team, you may contact Ms. Sandra Meadows in the Office of Responsible Research Practices at 1-800-678-6251.

It would be greatly appreciated if you would complete the survey by [DATE]. Feel free to contact either of us if you have any questions. Thank you very much for your assistance. Thank you for helping us with this important stage in our research.

Sincerely,

Shaina M. Ervin  
The Ohio State University  
315 W. 17<sup>th</sup> Avenue  
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704.779.2104  
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Donna L. Pastore, Ph.D.  
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***Appendix F: Kaleidoscope Career Model Scale***

## **Authenticity, Balance, and Challenge Scales (Sullivan et al., 2009)**

### **Authenticity**

- I hope to find a greater purpose to my life that suits who I am.
- I hunger for greater spiritual growth in my life.
- I have discovered that crises in life offer perspectives in ways that daily living does not.
- If I could follow my dream right now, I would.
- I want to have an impact and leave my signature on what I accomplish in life.

### **Balance**

- If necessary, I would give up my work to settle problematic family issues or concerns.
- I constantly arrange my work around my family needs.
- My work is meaningless if I cannot take the time to be with my family.
- Achieving balance between work and family is life's holy grail.
- Nothing matters more to me right now than balancing work with my family responsibilities.

### **Challenge**

- I continually look for new challenges in everything I do.
- I view setbacks not as “problems” to be overcome but as “challenges” that require solutions.
- Added work responsibilities don't worry me.
- Most people would describe me as being very goal-directed.
- I thrive on work challenges and turn work problems into opportunities for change.

### **. Response scale (1) does not describe me at all to (5) describes me very well**

- does not describe me at all. (1)
- describes me somewhat. (2)
- describes me often. (3)
- describes me considerably. (4)
- describes me very well. (5)

***Appendix G: Prenotification E-mail to Participants***

[DATE]

Dear Coach,

We are requesting your help with a study conducted in conjunction with The Ohio State University aimed at understanding the career needs of intercollegiate head coaches. Later this week, you will receive an e-mail inviting you to participate in the internet-based study by answering questions about your career as a head coach.

We thank you in advance for your participation. Providing us just 10-15 minutes of your time can help assist in the further understanding of coaches' career needs and may provide scholars and athletic administrators the resources to support and encourage intercollegiate head coaches at all stages of life.

Sincerely,

Shaina M. Ervin  
The Ohio State University  
315 W. 17<sup>th</sup> Avenue  
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pastore.3@osu.edu

***Appendix H: Invitation to Participate in the Study***



[DATE]

Dear Coach:

I am a student at The Ohio State University studying the careers of intercollegiate head coaches. Further understanding the coaching profession and why there women are underrepresented in the career has been a growing area of interest in sport. This study is being conducted as a requirement for my Doctor of Philosophy degree in Sport Management at The Ohio State University. I have worked extremely hard up to this point and I am eager to complete my degree, but need your assistance to complete the final stage of the study.

As a head coach in intercollegiate athletics, your background and experiences are of great importance to the successful completion of this study. We request your assistance by completing the survey: Exploring the Career Needs of Intercollegiate Head Coaches: A Kaleidoscope Perspective. This web-based survey has seven parts that will be used. Section I asks for responses to items related to your career needs. Section II asks for a response to three-items related to job satisfaction. Section III asks for responses to items related to work-family conflict and family-work conflict. Section IV asks for responses to items related to your current coaching position. Section V asks for responses to items related to your career trajectory. Section VI asks for demographic information. Section VII asks for a response to an open-ended question about women's underrepresentation in the coaching profession. It is estimated the survey will take approximately 15 minutes to complete.

[Survey Link: <https://www.....>]

There are no known physical or psychological risks associated with completing the survey. You may refuse to answer any questions and may withdraw from completing the survey at any time. By completing this survey, you consent to participate. No personally identifiable information will be associated with your responses in any published and reported results of this study. For your participation in this study, \$1 will be donated for each survey collected, up to \$300.00 to Big Brothers Big Sisters of America charity.

For questions about your rights as a participant in this study or to discuss other study-related concerns or complaints with someone who is not part of the research team, you may contact Ms. Sandra Meadows in the Office of Responsible Research Practices at 1-800-678-6251.

It would be greatly appreciated if you would complete the survey by [DATE].  
Feel free to contact either of us if you have any questions. Thank you very much for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Shaina M. Ervin  
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315 W. 17<sup>th</sup> Avenue  
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***Appendix I: Reminder E-mail***

[DATE]

Dear Coach,

The study aimed at understanding the career needs of intercollegiate head coaches is still open and in need of your response. Providing us just 10-15 minutes of your time can help assist in the further understanding of coaches' career needs and may provide scholars and athletic administrators the resources to support and encourage intercollegiate head coaches at all stages of life.

Sincerely,

Shaina M. Ervin  
The Ohio State University  
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***Appendix J: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Among Key Variables***

Table J1

*Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Among Key Variables*

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Authenticity	3.25	0.80								
2. Balance	3.04	1.02	.265**							
3. Challenge	3.74	0.76	.392**	.069						
4. Job Satisfaction	6.35	1.16	-.044	-.031	.144**					
5. Work-Family Conflict	3.07	1.11	.106**	.097**	-.046**	-.170**				
6. Family-Work Conflict	1.99	0.97	.097**	.282**	-.122**	-.187**	.583**			
7. Coaches' Gender			.027	-.161**	-.049	.014	.016	-.063		
8. Coaches' Career Stage			-.071	-.016	-.040	.075*	-.101**	-.136**	-.257**	

*Note: n = 742; \*p < .05; \*\*p < .01.*