

APOLOGETIC BEHAVIOR AND ITS RELATIONSHIP
WITH SEXUAL ORIENTATION AND
SITUATIONAL CONTEXT

By

ANNE PATRICIA WEESE

Bachelor of Arts in Psychology
University of Notre Dame
Notre Dame, Indiana
2005

Master of Science in Educational Psychology
Oklahoma State University
Stillwater, OK
2008

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APOLOGETIC BEHAVIOR AND ITS RELATIONSHIP
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AND SITUATIONAL CONTEXT

Dissertation Approved:

Dr. Julie Dorton-Clark

Dissertation Advisor

Dr. Don Boswell

Dissertation Chair

Dr. Barbara Carlozzi

Dr. Julie Koch

Dr. David Thomas

Outside Committee Member

Name: ANNE WEESE

Date of Degree: DECEMBER, 2012

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Abstract: The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between sexual orientation and situational context with regard to the prevalence of apologetic behaviors. The sample of current division I female student athletes completed a demographic form and the Apologetic Behavior Questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of open-ended questions which generated qualitative data and a likert-scale survey which generated quantitative data. Qualitative data were analyzed using open, axial, categorical coding and quantitative data were analyzed using a mixed-design ANOVA with subsequent post-hoc analyses. **Findings and Conclusions:** Qualitative analyses resulted in theme codes for each open-ended question. The codes identified for negative stereotypes included Sexuality (common theme), Masculinity/Femininity (common theme), Body (somewhat common), Personality, and Comparisons to Men. Themes for the positive stereotypes included Body (common theme), Personality (common theme), Skills, Intelligence, and Comparisons to Men. Participants were asked to discuss the ways in which their coaches and teammates communicate their views of homosexuality in sports. The most common response was that coaches and teammates do not discuss the issue. Other responses indicated that coaches and teammates are either accepting or not accepting. Some of the responses contained contradictory views; that coaches and teammates communicate both negative and positive views of homosexuality in sports. No significant relationship was found between sexual orientation and situational context. However, heterosexual participants indicated that they engage in more apologetic behaviors in all situations than did their non-heterosexual counterparts. Significant main effects were found between the three situations. Overall, participants reported that they engage in apologetic behaviors more often when in public than when around coaches or teammates. Athletes also did not significantly differ in the amount of apologetic behavior they engage in depending on sport type.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Since the passing of Title IX in 1972, the participation of women in sports has increased by 800% (Adams, Schmitke & Franklin, 2005).

The passage of Title IX has unquestionably impacted gender equality in the institution of sport and created numerous opportunities for women. And although more and more girls and women now energetically participate in sports, hegemonic definitions of femininity and athleticism continue to constrict the participation and representation of women (George, 2005; p. 318).

Therefore, while men and women are beginning to reach equality based on numbers of participants, hegemonic views of femininity and masculinity hinder the ways in which women participate in and experience sports.

The personal struggles and uncomfortable experiences that women athletes encounter can be seen on a regular basis. For example, one week after winning the 800 meter race in the world track championships in 2008, Caster Semenya, from South Africa, was forced to undergo a gender test (Chase, 2008). Following the gender test, Semenya took an eleven month rest from competitive racing. Since her return, she has suffered insults, backlash and media attention (Callow, 2010). One month after the gender test, Semenya appeared on the cover of “You” magazine with her hair down, adorned with jewelry, wearing a dress and make-up. It appears to the public that Semenya not only was forced to undergo a humiliating gender test, but felt pressured to prove her female-ness to the world by appearing more feminine on the cover of a popular magazine. Another star athlete criticized as being a man because of her success as an athlete is Babe Didrikson (Schwartz, n.d.). Didrikson, who single-handedly won a team gold

medal at the 1932 Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) championships, excelled at many sports but eventually dominated the golf arena later in life. Rumors began spreading of Didrikson's gender as well as her sexual orientation. Would these questions have been raised if Didrikson was not athletic or not as successful in her athletic endeavors?

One would perhaps think that social acceptability of women athletes, whether heterosexual or not, would have improved since 1932 when Didrikson performed. However, it appears as though society is not as far advanced as one would hope; ask Sheryl Swoopes. Sheryl Swoopes, the first woman athlete to have her own line of athletic shoe, felt the need to keep her sexual orientation a secret for over seven years while competing in competitive and professional basketball (Rieken, 2007). Swoopes reported that she felt as though she was living a lie by pretending to be heterosexual and denying her relationship with her life partner, who is a woman. There have also been stories of young women athletes transferring to other schools due to their level of discomfort with and around lesbian teammates (Figel, 1986). As quoted in Figel's interview with Pennsylvania State head women's basketball coach Rene Portland, Portland states, "I will not have it in my program" (p.2). The "it" that Portland is referring to is lesbianism. Coincidentally, in 2006, one of Portland's players filed a federal discrimination suit against the coach (Finder & Lash, 2006). The player, Jennifer Harris, reported that Portland frequently interrogated her about her behavior and sexual orientation and pressured her to dress more feminine and stop wearing her hair in cornrows. Jennifer Harris was eventually released from the team which sparked the lawsuit. Portland later resigned. What would happen if other athletes admitted to being gay or lesbian? Would that make them less successful as people, athletes, and members of society? What kind of pressures do women athletes feel to conform to traditional gender roles that society has created for them? Do women athletes fear repercussions

if they do not dress or behave in ways that society or individuals in positions of power, such as coaches, fans, or administrators, expect them to? What behaviors do women athletes engage in to “compensate” for their athleticism?

Apologetic Behavior

“Apologetic behavior” or “apologetic defenses” first appeared in the literature in the early 1970s, shortly after the implementation of Title IX (Rohrbaugh, 1979). Rohrbaugh (1979) claims that women athletes engage in overly feminine behavior because they know that other people are more likely to view them as masculine. Felshin (1974) has been credited with the term feminine “apologetic” and describes it as the implementation of overly feminine behaviors and attitudes which act as an overcompensation to the masculine behavior on the field of play. He posits that these apologetic behaviors suggest to others that the woman athlete appears, is, and wants to be feminine. “Because women cannot be excluded from sport and have chosen not to reject sport, apologetics develop to account for their sport involvement in the face of its social unacceptability” (Felshin, 1974, p. 36). Felshin offered examples of apologetics such as denying the importance of sport in one’s life, increasing the importance of appearance, attractiveness, marrying and raising a family. It is one mechanism that women athletes use in order to attempt to cope with the “cultural contradiction of female athleticism” (Malcom, 2003, p. 1401). Festle (1996) argued that women athletes no longer feminize their performance but continue to engage in apologetic behavior outside their sport setting mainly by feminizing their appearance and maintaining a heterosexual image. The bulk of the research related to apologetic behavior has been conducted qualitatively through interviews. As is evident by the following remark from a participant in one such study, stereotypes are strongly perceived by women athletes: “I think you

immediately get labeled just because you play football, just because you play you are gay and you've got to be, and you are this big butch hulking around" (Caudwell, 2003, p.377).

Hegemony has been defined as the social, cultural, ideological, or economic influence exerted by a dominant group over American culture as a whole. *Heterosexual hegemony*, which indicates that in American society the accepted sexual orientation is heterosexuality, influences the ways in which female athletes view themselves as well as other athletes. The fear of being a "lesbian" or "butch" has been found to result in behavior modification. Through a qualitative study, Adams, Schmitke & Franklin (2005) found that every single one of the 24 participants reported that they feel the need to prove that they are feminine *and* athletic. The participants, who were mixed in their identification of hetero- and homosexual, admitted to manipulating their hair, makeup, degree of sexuality, and participation in extracurricular activities in order to appear more feminine. If, however, the athletes do not engage in this manipulation of behavior and appearance and fit within the masculine hegemony, they are seen as deviants (Kolnes, 1995). In other words, women athletes are given the paradoxical message that it is acceptable for them to be athletic as long as they also appear heterosexually feminine.

The media have been one avenue in which this heterosexual feminine ideal has been reinforced. Media do this by manipulation of women athletes in terms of position, dress, appearance, context, and by focusing on women athletes and their relationship with men (Knight & Guiliano, 2003). Gender constructs have been supported, strengthened and maintained through the media (Shugart, 2003) and gender inequalities reinforced (Buysse & Embser-Herbert, 2004).

As a result of this paradox, women athletes have been found to view non-athletes as normal and themselves as somehow abnormal especially in regard to social attention, dating,

musculature, and clothing. Women athletes have also indicated that it is less important for femininity to be maintained while competing in their perspective sports (Krane, Choi, Baird, Aimar, & Kauer, 2004). Messner (2007) explains this paradox as reproductive and resistant agencies working simultaneously in everyday life. Reproductive agencies are those that are consistent with traditional views of gender roles and resistant agencies are those that disrupt such traditional views. Specific examples of such paradoxes in action are tall athletes not wearing shoes with heels on them so as not to be taller than men (Burton, 1998) and women bodybuilders with breast implants, dyed blond hair and cosmetic surgery done for the purpose of appearing more feminine. Other, more indirect, examples of these paradoxes are the increasing number of male coaches in female sports or the dominant play of men during co-ed sporting competition, i.e. cutting in front of women to make plays, “hogging” the ball, etc. (Lowe, 1998; Messner, 2007). This seems to suggest that it is okay for women to participate in sports as long as men dominate. So, how do these apologetic behaviors and hegemonic view of heterosexuality and masculinity affect women athletes?

Recently, a quantitative means for measuring the prevalence of apologetic behaviors has been developed (Davis-Delano, Pollock, Vose, 2009). Davis-Delano et al found that fifty percent of the female participants engaged in at least a substantial amount of apologetic behavior by either utilizing a few apologetic behaviors often or many different types of apologetic behaviors less often. When analyzed by sport type, these researchers found that softball players engaged in the most apologetic behaviors followed by basketball and soccer players. Additionally, five apologetic behaviors were found to be the most common: spending time with males when not in the sport setting, appearing more feminine, apologizing for the use of

aggression or force, avoiding contact with women outside of the sport setting, and increased attention to (either by talking about or being seen with) a boyfriend (Davis-Delano et al, 2009).

The apologetic behavior of feeling pressure to appear more feminine out of fear of being labeled as a lesbian could perhaps influence the dropout rates of young women athletes or cause unnecessary tension and stress in the lives of those athletes who continue to participate in sports throughout their lives (Anthrop & Allison as cited in Allison, 1991). Women who drop out of sports participation could miss out on the cognitive, affective and physical benefits such as building interpersonal relationships, learning cooperation, motor skill development, moral development, and pro-social behaviors, to name a few (Cohen, 2001). More androgynous women athletes have shown lower dropout rates than more feminine athletes during adolescence. The identity development during adolescence partnered with the conflict of being an athlete and female is perhaps too difficult for adolescent females to handle (Guillet, Sarrazin, & Fontayne, 2000). During college, personal identity development has shown to be in the formative stages and college students have been found to become less conservative and traditional in their views (D'Augelli, 1992). Perhaps it is due to this identity development that women athletes at the collegiate level are found to have a decrease in the need to act more feminine as their tolerance for homosexuality increases (McKinney & McAndrew, 2000). Some researchers do not agree on the prevalence of, motivational factors behind, or effects that result from apologetic behaviors. For example, Malcom believes that the behaviors engaged in by her adolescent participants were not due to fear of stereotyping but in an attempt to appear more mature (Malcom, 2003).

In 1974, Felshin predicted that by the twenty-first century, the male-dominated world of sports would have been liberated by women. She stated that by challenging the male-domination of sports, women and men would be able to co-exist and do so equally. Women athletes were

encouraged by Felshin to follow their interests, without apology, and do so to the best of their abilities. How far has the sport world come since then? How are the experiences of women athletes different today than they were over thirty years ago?

Stereotypes of Women Athletes

The evolution of men into roles traditionally reserved for women and women into fields dominated by men has appeared to transform gender roles into more neutral or androgynous domains. However, the women who participate in sports, especially “opposite sex” sports, continue to be viewed negatively and stereotypically (Hoines, Weathington, & Cotrell, 2008). Hoines et al. found that women athletes participating in softball, basketball and soccer were thought of as more masculine, less respectable and less likeable than women participating in other more “sex-appropriate” sports of figure skating, track and tennis (2008). Additionally, a study conducted with high school students found that female athletes participating in “sex-appropriate” sports, in this case volleyball and tennis, were rated as more attractive than those athletes in “sex-inappropriate” sports such as football and wrestling (Kane, 1987). For example, the mean overall attractiveness rating of a volleyball player was 4.88. The mean overall rating for the same woman who was a football player was 2.97. Therefore, just by knowing the sport played, the raters’ views of the female athlete were changed. Interestingly, Kane found that male raters scored the women athletes as less attractive overall than female raters. Kane noted a relationship between these results and the fact that as of 1987, women athletes had only been successfully marketable in tennis and golf which were considered “sex-appropriate” sports.

Interestingly, adolescent girls have been a popular participant pool to researchers in the past. In 1974, Harris and Ramsey investigated the views that adolescent girls held of athletes based on gender, race, aggression, competitiveness, ability, coordination level, talent, potential

for Olympic status, potential to perform professionally, happiness, potential for marital bliss, and overall sociability. No significant main effects were found. However, overall, the athletes identified as sprinters and swimmers rated high on all categories except for potential for marital bliss. Golfers, on the other hand, rated low on all categories except for the potential for marital bliss. These results seem to indicate, at least in 1974, status as athlete made little difference among the perceptions of adolescent females. In 1988, Kane targeted adolescent females and males and their perceptions of status of female athletes. Kane hypothesized that athletes participating in “sex-appropriate” sports would receive higher status ratings than those who participate in “sex-inappropriate sports”. Results indicated that the participants wanted to be remembered least by athletic achievement. Male participants viewed athletes in “sex-appropriate” sports as more datable and more desirable as a friend than other athletes. Female participants also tended to choose female athletes in “sex-appropriate” sports as those individuals with whom they would most like to be friends.

In addition to the perceptions about female athletes noted above, women athletes have also traditionally been stereotyped as lesbian (Griffin, 1998). Griffin states, “While women athletes must constantly prove their heterosexuality, most people assume that male athletes are heterosexual unless they provide evidence that they are not” (p. 26). The sports arena has historically associated lesbianism to female athletes and this claim has been supported by female athletes themselves. Adams et al. conducted a study with high school female athletes to investigate their attitudes about femininity and their opinions of stereotypes of female athletes. As one participant reported, “If you are a female athlete and you are on an all-female team, a lot of people will automatically classify you as a lesbian” (Adams, Schmitke, Franklin, 2005; p. 22).

Another participant added, “It’s like everyday you hear, ‘You’re a dyke cause you play softball.’”(p. 22).

McKinney and McAndrew (2000) found that women athletes participating in team sports are more likely to be viewed as homosexual than women athletes participating in individual sports. The sports most associated with lesbianism were rugby and basketball and the least “gay” sports for female participants were figure skating and gymnastics. The researchers also found that women athletes were very aware that stereotypes do exist about them. Harris and Hall (1978) found that team sport members were also found to be more masculine than individual sport members. Colker and Widom (1980) found that women athletes’ psychological masculinity scores on the Personal Attributes Questionnaire did not increase over time as a result of participation in sport. When compared to non-athlete peers, female athletes had lower femininity scores, but the masculinity scores were not significantly different. These results indicate that the stereotypes of female athletes are not based on fact. Researchers interested in the general public’s view of women athletes in a small Iowa town found that the general public did not view women athletes as more masculine or less feminine than non-athletes (Hoferek & Hanick, 1985). Also, the individuals overwhelmingly indicated that they wanted their daughters to participate in basketball. The researchers cautioned the reader and stated that the results could be biased based on the long tradition of basketball success in that town.

Cahn (1996) credits the lesbian stigma to the threat that successful female athletes place on masculinity. He theorizes that society credits sports participation as masculine and then goes one step further in assuming that if a woman is a successful athlete, she is therefore masculine and has the same sexual preference as men. Cahn provided several examples of how the stigma is used in the sports arena such as universities negatively recruiting by accusing other programs

of being “lesbian”, coaches and administration over-emphasizing normalness in order to receive additional money, coaches and players ignoring the stigma for fear of reinforcing the stereotype, etc. Cahn suggests that society should “explore, defend, and appreciate the lesbian presence in sports” (p. 221).

Davis-Delano et al. (2009) found three common negative stereotypes reported by the participants who were women athletes at the collegiate level. These perceived stereotypes were that women athletes are masculine, female athletes are lesbians, and women athletes are “less than” men (i.e. slower, weaker, more emotional, more boring, and less tough than men athletes). Their results, acquired through open ended questions on their apologetic behavior questionnaire, were consistent with previous findings of women athletes. The researchers point out an interesting observation: “These stereotypes are all in relation to males: female athletes are seen as either inferior to males or as too much like males” (Davis-Delano, et al., p. 140). The researchers found less consensus regarding positive stereotypes of female athletes. Some of the responses included being in shape, being strong, being hard-working, and being smarter than male athletes.

Based on these more recent studies of stereotypes of female athletes, it is clear that stereotypes of female athletes do still exist and female athletes are very aware of them. The effects of performance based stereotypes have, in fact, been found to negatively impact the performance of female athletes (Chalabaev, Sarrazin, Stone, & Cury, 2008). The degree to which this awareness of masculine and lesbian stereotypes affects women athletes is still unknown.

Stereotypes of Lesbians

Researchers suggest that since women are given a lower social status than men and are considered the “out group”, they are “particularly vulnerable to stigmatization” (Sartore & Cunningham, 2009, p. 290). However, the inclusion of sexual orientation minority characters in popular television shows and movies might indicate a growing tolerance and acceptance of lesbians and the reduction of the stigmatization of women in general (Geiger, Harwood, & Hummert, 2006). Geiger et al. (2006) investigated current stereotypes of lesbians according to college students by trait generation and trait sorting done in two stages with two different groups of participants. The first set of participants was instructed to write down (generate) as many different traits about lesbians as they could think of. The second set of participants was instructed to organize (sort) the traits into different types of lesbians. The labels given to the positive subcategories were lipstick lesbian (e.g. attractive, sexy, normal, friendly), career-oriented feminist (e.g. vegetarian, natural, independent, courageous), soft-butch (e.g. athletic, powerful, feminist), and free-spirit (e.g. eccentric, mysterious, touchy, different). Negative subcategories were also generated and consisted of hypersexual (e.g. promiscuous, sex-crazy, and bisexual), sexually confused (e.g. shy, submissive, scared of men, insecure), sexually deviant (nasty, gross, immoral, abnormal, repulsive), and angry butch (aggressive, loud, bitchy, rude, ugly, butch, overweight). These examples are just a few of the terms that the participants used to describe different types of lesbians. Other stereotypes of lesbians that have been found include alcohol abuse (Baiocco, D’Alessio, & Laghi, 2010) and increased likelihood of domestic violence (Stevens, Korchmaros, & Miller, 2010).

In terms of lesbian athletes, however, the stereotype research varies. Knight and Guiliano (2003) investigated how male and female athletes are perceived by others based on their apparent sexuality. Ninety-one undergraduate students were asked to read a media article covering an

Olympic athlete and then answer questions related to how they viewed that athlete. After presenting a media article focusing on a clearly heterosexual athlete versus an athlete without a stated sexuality, participants viewed the heterosexual athlete more favorably. Specifically, these heterosexual athletes were viewed as more attractive, more respectable and more closely related to the participants' "ideal" version of what a man or woman is "supposed" to be. In their investigation of lesbian stigma about female athletes and the effects that those stigmas have on the athletes, Sartore and Cunningham (2009) found that women athletes experience increased burden, negative results associated with psychological wellbeing, physical wellbeing, and professional success, and the continued strengthening of the heteronormative societal beliefs.

Pat Griffin (1998) documents the experience she has had in regard to stereotypes of lesbian athletes during her many decades as both a basketball player and a coach. She stated that over time, the lesbian stigma changed from being focused on all women athletes to just those whose heterosexuality was not obvious. Griffin relates an increase in the stigma of lesbians as sexual deviants and predators to the increasing interest that parents began to take in their daughters' athletic careers and opportunities. There is a fear of lesbianism that permeates into the world of women's sports. Coaches, counselors, educators, and administrators are urged by Griffin to acknowledge the unique experiences of all athletes, especially those who identify as lesbian or bisexual or those who are questioning their sexuality.

Statement of the Problem

Previous research (McKinney & McAndrew, 2000; Davis-Delano et al., 2009) has shown that female athletes are very aware that stereotypes of female athletes exist. This information is helpful, but the results are 10 years old and slightly outdated. The current study not only sheds

light on the current perceptions of whether or not negative (or positive) stereotypes exist according to women athletes but also the extent to which behavior is altered as direct result of those perceived stereotypes. Perceptions of male athletes were not included in the current study. Historically, the literature seems to have focused on different types of sports. Little interest has been given to situational contexts. The current study directly examines the differences between the changes in athlete behavior across different situations: around coaches, around teammates, and in public.

Research Questions

The purpose of the current study is to examine the current stereotypes of female athletes as perceived by the athletes themselves. Another purpose is to examine the relationship between the prevalence of apologetic behaviors and sexual orientation and situation. The current study analyzes the prevalence of apologetic behaviors within different situational contexts (e.g. with coaches, in public, or around teammates) and between sexual orientation (heterosexual vs non-heterosexual). The questions addressed in this study were as follows:

1. What stereotypes (both positive and negative) are perceived to exist by female Division I athletes?
2. Is there a relationship between sexual orientation and situational context with regard to prevalence of apologetic behavior?

The results of this study are very beneficial to the field of counseling, especially those counselors working with or around athletes. This could include those employed in university counseling centers, private practice, school counseling, or performance work with athletes

directly. If counselors have an idea as to what stereotypes exist for their clients who are athletes, they can begin to explore how those clients are internalizing those stereotypes. Counselors can also explore with their clients ways in which female athletes attempt to compensate behaviorally and how gender identity is impacted. This study is also important because it is one of very few that quantitatively measures and examines apologetic behavior. Until 2009, when the Apologetic Behavior Questionnaire was developed, exploration of apologetic behaviors was done qualitatively using structured interviews and written accounts (Davis-Delano et al., 2009). Gaining a greater understanding of how stereotypes influence behavior can be a helpful tool in assisting young women athletes through their own identity formation.

CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY

Participants

Twenty-five Division I universities throughout the Midwest and eastern United States were contacted. Three of these universities agreed to participate (granted permission for researcher to recruit participants). Participants were 134 current female Division I athletes from a total sample of 206. Seventy-two participants were omitted due to partial completion. Participants ranged in age from 18 to 23. NCAA allows for what is known as a “red shirt” year, in which the player sits out to retain that year of eligibility to be used in the future. This policy may make it possible for an athlete to spend an extra year in collegiate athletics, which may influence the ages of the participants. Ten participants did not report their age (7.5%). Frequencies of ages were as follows: 18 years (22.4%, N=30), 19 years (26.1%, N=35), 20 years (21.6%, N=29), 21 years (17.9%, N=24), 22 years (3.0%, N=4), and 23 years (1.5%, N=2). One hundred twenty-six participants identified as heterosexual (94.0%) and eight participants identified as non-heterosexual (6.0%).

The majority of the participants were Caucasian/White (70.1%, N = 94). African-American and Mixed Race were the next most common responses (8.2%, N=11). Ten participants did not report ethnicity (7.5%). Five participants identified as Hispanic (3.7%), two identified as Other (1.5%), and one participant as Asian American (.7%).

Participants were asked to report how many years they have been participating in competitive sports. No parameters were set on how to define “competitive sports”; the participants were free to report as they saw fit. Responses ranged from one year to twenty years. Eleven participants did not offer a response to this question (8.2%). The frequencies were as follows: one to five years (6.7%, N=9), six to ten years (34.3%, N=46), eleven to fifteen years (43.2%, N=58), more than fifteen years (7.4%, N=10).

Participants identified their sport as follows: Track/Field/Cross Country (20.9%, N=28), Rowing/Crew (11.9%, N=16), Basketball (11.2%, N=15), Swimming/Diving (9.0%, N=12), Equestrian (9.0%, N=12), Soccer (7.5%, N=10), Fencing (6.0%, N=8), Volleyball (4.5%, N=6), Softball (3.7%, N=5), Tennis (3.7%, N=5), Lacrosse (.7%, N=1), Golf (.7%, N=1), and Multiple Sports (1.5%, N=2). Thirteen participants did not provide their sport information (9.7%).

Measures

Demographic Questionnaire. Participants were asked to complete a demographic information page which will include classification (freshman, sophomore, junior, senior), years of competitive sports participation, sport played, ethnicity, and sexual orientation.

Apologetic Behaviors Questionnaire. Apologetic behaviors were measured using the Apologetic Behaviors questionnaire developed by Davis-Delano et al. (2009). Davis-Delano et al. suggested after the completion of their 2009 study that socioeconomic status and sexual orientation be investigated in the future due to the impact that these factors may have on performance, accessibility to athletics, and the nature and formation of gender ideals. They also encouraged the use of a modified form of their questionnaire; participants were asked to state how often they engage in each apologetic behavior when around coaches, when in public, and when around

teammates. Therefore, the current study will focus on different situational contexts (i.e. when around coaches, when in public, and when around teammates) and sexual orientation (heterosexual vs non-heterosexual) as independent variables presented in the form of a modified version of the original questionnaire. Davis-Delano, et al. (2009) attempted to reach content validity by presenting the questionnaire to a panel of expert reviewers in the field of sport and gender. The reviewers offered feedback to the researchers who then modified the questionnaire appropriately. However, no validity data were provided. No reliability data were offered and e-mail communication with the original authors revealed that no measures were taken to determine reliability.

The survey consists of three parts (see Appendix C, page 67). The first includes two open-ended questions in which the participants are allowed to type responses freely based on known positive or negative stereotypes of female athletes. The results of this section allow for greater understanding of which stereotypes are perceived by the female athletes.

The second section of the questionnaire includes 11 five-point Likert-type scale questions. The responses range from *never* to *always*. Sample items include, “Because of stereotypes of female athletes, I try to look feminine (such as wearing make-up, wearing bows, or having long hair)”, and “Because of stereotypes of female athletes, I talk about, or try to be seen with, a boyfriend”. High scores indicate higher frequencies of the eleven types of apologetic behaviors. The survey has been modified to include different situations in which the participants would indicate the extent to which they engage in apologetic behaviors in these particular situations. The modifications included adding the phrases “when in public”, “when around my coach(es)” and “when around my teammates” to the end of each statement. This

modification of the original questionnaire allows the researcher to examine the prevalence of apologetic behaviors in different situations and increases the total number of items from eleven to thirty-three. Permission has been granted by the authors to modify the original apologetic questionnaire. Mean scores for each situation were calculated and those figures were used in the analyses.

The third part of the questionnaire includes open-ended questions and the opportunity to leave additional comments. The sample items in this section include, “If you **do** engage in the above behaviors, please explain why you do so. If you **do not** engage in the above behaviors, please explain why you do not do so”, and “Are there any other ways (other than those mentioned above) that **you or others** respond to stereotypes of female athletes?” In addition, questions have been added to assess for the ways in which coaches and teammates communicate their views of homosexuality in college sports. The results from this section allow the researcher to understand the motivation behind engaging in apologetic behaviors and whether or not those apologetic behaviors are a direct result of stereotypes. Understanding *why* an athlete behaves as she does sheds light on motivational factors as well as societal pressures.

Procedure

Inclusion requirements include membership on a Division I varsity athletic team that is officially recognized by the university (not including club teams). Blinde and Taub (1992) include varsity Division I women athletes in their research because of the athletes’ increased commitment to athletic participation as well as the importance that sport participation has on the women athletes’ identities. Davis-Delano et al (2009) included athletes from different sports and different NCAA Division levels (Division II and Division III). In order to create a sample that is

most representative of the target population, all of the participants in the current study are current Division I athletes. All athletes were included regardless of their scholarship status and contribution to the team (minutes played, points scored, etc.). In other words, even those athletes who do not receive an athletic scholarship or who receive very limited playing time are included in the current study. Davis-Delano et al. (2009) focused on specific areas of the country for participation. The current study increases generalizability by including participants from a wide geographical area. Participation in the study is voluntary and no reimbursement of any kind will be offered because doing so would be in violation of NCAA rules and regulations.

University IRB's were contacted and permission was granted by the following institutions: Oklahoma State University, the University of Notre Dame, and Kansas State University. Three mid-western universities denied permission. Efforts were made to contact and solicit participation from other universities. However, these efforts were unfruitful. IRB approved e-mail scripts were then sent to the appropriate contact in the athletic departments of the universities that granted permission. These scripts introduced the researcher, specified the participant criteria, and provided a brief overview of the project. This overview included purposes of the current research as well as participation instructions. Individuals either received the survey link from a member of their athletic department or from the researcher directly. Other participants were recruited via snowball sampling and word-of-mouth techniques.

Students participating in the study were informed that their participation was voluntary and anonymous. Informed consent was obtained before the participants began the questionnaire. The first page of the online survey included a consent to participate. Respondents indicated their willingness to participate by clicking the "next" button which allowed access to the survey.

Participants were asked to complete two questionnaires which included the modified apologetic behavior survey as well as a demographic information page. Every participant first completed the apologetic behavior questionnaire followed by the demographic survey. It was clearly stated that there were no foreseeable risks from participating. The online survey software called *SurveyMonkey* was used to administer the survey and record the responses. Total completion time for both questionnaires was estimated to be 20 minutes.

All information and survey results were kept in a password protected flash drive which remained locked in a filing cabinet in the locked office of the primary investigator when not in use. No identifying information was asked and the participants remained anonymous.

Participants were informed that their decision to participate had no consequences and that they had the option of withdrawing from the study at any time. The participants were also informed that no incentives were offered as to avoid violation of NCAA laws. Participants were given contact information for any follow up questions or concerns that may arise upon completion of the survey. Predictive Analytics Software (PASW) Statistics 18.0 was used to complete all statistical analyses.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

The purpose of the current study is to examine the current stereotypes of female athletes as perceived by the athletes themselves. Another purpose is to examine to what extent women athletes engage in apologetic behaviors and if they do so in different ways depending on situational context and sexual orientation. The current study will analyze the prevalence of apologetic behaviors within different situations and contexts (e.g. with coaches, in public, or around teammates). The qualitative results will be discussed first followed by the quantitative data.

Qualitative Results

Responses to the open-ended questions were analyzed using open, axial coding completed by two reviewers: one was the primary investigator and the other a Doctoral Intern. The Doctoral Intern was the reviewer who was independent of the study. For each open-ended question, the reviewers independently read them, categorized them, and labeled them. These labels were discussed by reviewers and agreed upon. The results were compared and the few minor discrepancies identified were discussed and their codes adjusted for mutual agreement between the reviewers. The results and accompanying groupings are offered as a way to better understand the perceived stereotypes and the ways in which views of homosexuality in athletics are communicated between teammates and by coaches. Themes identified will be briefly

provided and discussed. Consistent with previous research from the authors of the original survey, percentages were calculated. If 33 percent or more of the participants wrote responses that were included in a theme, that theme was labeled 'common'. If between 25 and 32 percent of participants wrote responses that were included in a particular theme, that theme was labeled 'somewhat common' (Davis-Delano, et al, 2009).

The next two sections answer the first research question: What stereotypes (both positive and negative) are perceived to exist by female Division I athletes?

Negative Stereotypes

Participants were given the opportunity to list perceived negative stereotypes of female athletes. Of the 134 responses, one "no" was omitted from the analysis. Six main themes were identified: Sexuality, Masculinity/Femininity, Intelligence, Body, Personality, and Comparisons to men. Each will be discussed in turn.

The first common theme that will be discussed is Sexuality (45%, N=60). These responses included a variety of conflicting messages. A majority of the responses indicated that a perceived stereotype is that women athletes are lesbian or gay. Some sports were identified in particular, such as "Softball players are lesbian", and "All women basketball players are gay". Some interesting responses indicated an opposing view; that women athletes are promiscuous. "They sleep around" was one response, and another individual wrote, "Slut, whore" when asked to share her perceived stereotypes of women athletes. A particularly interesting response stated, "I'm expected to fuck all the basketball players or be a lesbian." This statement seems to indicate a pressure from her particular peer group; if she does not engage in sexual activities with particular male athletes at her university, then she will be labeled as a lesbian. The societal

implications of this view are alarming. These results are consistent with findings currently under review which investigate societal views of lesbian soldiers (Dorton, currently under review).

The next common theme discussed is Masculinity/Femininity (46.6%, N=62). Also included in this theme were statements reflecting larger gender norms and expectations of what is appropriate behavior of women and men. Typical responses included in this theme are that women athletes are “masculine”, “manly”, “tomboy”, or “not feminine”. It is important to note the inclusion of the label “butch” in this theme code. Reviewers debated on whether or not this word was included as an indication of sexuality or as a reference to masculinity. An agreement was reached to include the term “butch” as a reference to masculinity unless specifically indicated in the response. One participant seemed to reflect a larger societal norm about gender norms and expectations. She wrote, “Females shouldn’t play sports they should be housewives.” Also included in this theme were indications of behaviors such as “... tend to act a lot like guys” and “Girls who wear dressy, feminine clothes are not thought of as serious athletes.”

Intelligence level was also a popular perceived stereotype of the participants. However, at 24%, it just missed the ‘somewhat common’ label (N=32). Included in this theme were statements that indicate amount of effort directed to coursework such as “We are lazy in school.” and “... we are not academically smart and we all have the same ‘easy’ majors.” Other, more outright statements, included, “stupid”, “dumb”, “not smart”, and “only got into college because of Title IX...”. The last statement seems to indicate that this participant believes the stereotype exists that athletes are not “smart enough” to attend college without the athletic scholarship; that without Title IX and the athletic scholarship, these women would not be suitable for higher education.

In the 'Body' theme, responses were included that mentioned physical stature, attractiveness, size, strength, and focus on health and/or eating behaviors. This theme was somewhat common at 27.8% (N=37). Examples of responses include the following: "The women are overly muscular, or manly looking", "buff", "guys don't like female athletes because they are too muscular", "they're ugly", and "have eating disorders". As you will see in the next section, participants viewed physical fitness and musculature in a positive light. This suggests that mixed messages, or paradoxes, exist about the bodies of female athletes.

Personality characteristics were another theme found in the responses (23.3%, N=31). These included such labels such as "elitist", "stuck-up", "intimidating", "condescending", "dramatic", "controlling", "aggressive", and "over-controlling", among others. Without follow-up questions, it is unclear from whom these stereotypes may originate. Reviewers wondered to one another, "Who do these athletes think view them as "intimidating" or "dramatic?" Another question which arose was, "Do these stereotypes exist for women in general or are they specific to women athletes?" Additional research is necessary to answer these questions and others that might arise from the responses generated from this study.

Finally, other responses were grouped together in the 'Comparisons to Men' (16.5%, N=22) theme. These responses ranged from importance level, to level of competition, entertainment value, etc. A few examples include: "less important than men", "aren't as good as males", "people (guy athletes) say our sport isn't as difficult as ['a' omitted by author] theirs", "women's sports aren't real sports", and "females are not as good of athletes as males". One response stated, "considered to be playing in a man's world". This statement seems to directly imply the idea of masculine hegemony discussed in the literature review.

Only one instance included a perceived stereotype of the differences between ethnic groups and athletic talent. This participant wrote, “African American athletes are always better” (capitalization added by author). This topic, ethnic stereotypes in athletics, is not addressed in the current study.

Positive Stereotypes

This category was much more difficult to analyze based on the responses given by the participants. One of the reasons is that the responses were left open to a variety of interpretations. It was difficult to determine whether the perceived stereotypes indicated personality characteristics, skills, behaviors, or societal labels. Reviewers discussed these issues and an agreement was made on which code to apply to each response. The responses were grouped into six major themes: ‘Body’, ‘Personality’, ‘Skills’, ‘Intelligence’, ‘Comparisons to Men’, and ‘Social Status’. It is important to briefly discuss that five participants were unaware of positive stereotypes of women athletes. “Not sure...”, “They’re none really that I know of”, and “so much harder to pinpoint positives” were all offered as responses to this open-ended questions. Although responses such as these were not the norm, it of concern that these participants were unaware of possible positive stereotypes.

The ‘Body’ theme was common (67.4%, N=87) and contained phrases used to describe the physical stature of women athletes. It is interesting to note that these same judgments about the bodies of women athletes were considered to be a main negative stereotype. Examples included in this theme are, “fit”, “strong”, “healthy”, “attractive”, and “beautiful”. In no cases were muscles referred to as a positive stereotype. This seems to be the main difference between positive and negative stereotypes. Instead, fitness level and attraction were included which may

indicate that muscles are specifically seen to be a more masculine characteristic and therefore negative in nature.

'Personality Characteristics' was a common theme (49.6%, N=64) and included in the positive stereotype perceptions. Reviewers agreed that phrases such as "leadership" were included while "leaders" were not. "Leaders", in this case, were viewed as social status labels and therefore included in a different theme. Most common responses included, "confident", "motivated", "driven", and "out-going". After reviewing these responses, reviewers wondered if women in general are not seen by society in such a light. If these positive perceived stereotypes are in fact true, are innate personality characteristics such as the ones listed above a predictor of success?

A less popular theme is 'Skills' (9.3%, N=12). "Ability to multi-task", and "organized" are examples of perceived stereotypes based on the skills that women athletes have developed. These phrases were included in a separate skills section and not personality factors because they were considered to be characteristics that could be learned and practiced. These responses were rare but were considered to be important enough to warrant their own theme.

Another less frequent theme includes phrases alluding to intelligence and academic performance (3.1%, N=4). One participant included "get good grades" in her list of perceived positive stereotypes. "Intelligent" and "smart" were also included. An interesting observation is that some participants believed that women athletes were negatively stereotyped as not intelligent. Some participants also believed that a stereotype exists that women athletes would not have been awarded scholarships if it weren't for their athletic talent.

Just as with perceived negative stereotypes, perceived positive stereotypes included comparisons to male counterparts (6.2%, N=8). Often, the responses did not explicitly state that

the comparison was to male athletes; the comparison was assumed. In other instances, the comparison to male athletes was direct. One participant wrote, “more balanced, flexible than male athletes”. Another response was, “just as great an athlete as anyone else”, and yet another, “While there may be positive stereotypes of athletes, there are none in specific about female athletes”. This response clearly draws a distinction between athletes in general and female athletes. Although no positive stereotypes were named in this response, it is clear that a comparison was made between female and male athletes.

Finally, there were many responses that contained an element of social status (19.4%, N=25). These responses referenced ways in which women athletes are seen in social settings. These themes included phrases such as “popular”, “fun”, “leaders”, and “respected”. One participant responded, “can relate well to guys, are fun to be around because they can play sports”. Other participants wrote, “good role models for younger girls”, “cool, outgoing, fun”, and “I’m expected to be good in bed”. The last statement reflects behavioral expectations that are perceived by women athletes.

Many interesting distinctions were noticed in the responses regarding perceived stereotypes of women athletes. The most notable observation was the number of contradictions indicated in the responses. Women athletes perceive both positive and negative stereotypes regarding their bodies, their personality characteristics, and their intelligence level. This author is curious to understand how these contradictions affect the ego strength, confidence, performance, and identity development of these young women.

How Coaches Communicate Thoughts

Participants were given the opportunity to include their perceptions of how their coaches’ thoughts and beliefs about homosexuality in athletics are communicated. A total of 99

participants offered feedback; three of those responses were “N/A” and are not included in the discussion. Three main themes were identified and unanimously agreed upon by reviewers. They are: Open/Accepting, Not Discussed, and Negative.

It is important to note that the vast majority of the responses were given the common theme code of ‘Not Discussed’ (76.8%, N=76). Without the opportunity to follow-up with the participants, it is difficult to determine whether or not these participants approve of this communication tactic. In addition, it is impossible to determine whether or not this tactic is contributing to or detracting from the experience and the behavior of the participants. Typical responses included in this theme code will be offered and discussed. “It has never really been a topic of conversation”, “They don’t really talk about it”, “They don’t say anything”, and “Topic has never been discussed in any way, shape or form” seem to indicate an overt effort at avoiding the topic. Other responses, such as, “The issue is not brought up, we focus on more important things” and “They don’t talk about it, they’re there to make the team better, it doesn’t matter to them the sexual preference of the team members” seem to suggest that these coaches do not discuss the topic because it is not an important issue. It is impossible to determine the meaning behind these responses; only inferences can be made. Most important to this study is that the topic is largely avoided, regardless of the reason.

‘Open/Accepting’ was another theme found in the responses (14.1%, N=14). These statements indicate overt efforts from coaches to create accepting, inclusive environments within the team. One participant who identified as lesbian wrote, “My assistant coach talks with me outside of soccer about personal issues and things involving being gay. She is a great support system and role model.” Another participant responded, “Our lesbian athletes are treated the same as everyone else”, and another, “I don’t think they would mind, as long as they work hard”.

Most of the responses did not directly answer *how* their coaches communicate their beliefs. They tended to instead reflect their perceptions of their coaches' personal beliefs. It might be beneficial for further research to investigate the ways in which coaches deliver their beliefs on non-heterosexism in athletics such as non-verbally, verbally, with team rules, etc.

A less common response involved negative views of homosexuality, including team rules (6.1%, N=6). Some of the responses were not explicitly negative, but did not seem to imply avoidance or acceptance of homosexuality. Examples include, "...our coach has always made a rule that there can be no dating among our teammates", "my assistant did, she said we needed to be careful about what we say in case someone hasn't come out yet", and "...coaches tend to recruit players who favor their view (or the university's view) on sexual orientation. Usually not outright, but it is understood". It is unknown how these seemingly mixed messages may impact these athletes. Further research may investigate what issues are addressed in team rules and recruitment strategies and how they impact athlete satisfaction.

How Teammates Communicate Thoughts

Four main themes were identified out of the responses to the question as to how the teammates of the athletes communicate their views about homosexuality in sports. Ninety-nine responses were given. Of those, two "N/A" answers were omitted from the analysis. The remaining responses were categorized into four main areas: Accepting, Not Talked About, Negative, and Contradiction. These categories will be discussed.

The most popular theme was 'Not Talked About' (42.3%, N=41; common theme), which is congruent with the results from previous open-ended question regarding messages from coaches. "We have not discussed this topic", "never mentioned", and "it's not prevalent here so we don't really talk about it" are examples of responses in this category. One interesting

response included in this theme is “we really don’t, it doesn’t come up very often, only about a certain sport”. This seems contradictory; it seems as though the topic of lesbian athletes is in fact discussed, just not the athletes who participate in this particular athlete’s sport. Without follow-up questions, it is impossible to know for sure the extent to which this participant’s teammates discuss lesbian athletes.

The second theme that will be discussed is ‘Accepting’ (30.9%, N=30; somewhat common). Also included in this theme were those responses that indicated clear communication in a manner that is neutral in nature. That is, no negative judgment was indicated. Examples of these responses include “very open and accepting, we talk openly, just like we do about boys”, “we are very open about it, it is so common anymore”, “they are very accepting”, and “we could care less”. One participant referred to herself in her response. She wrote, “My teammates were very kind and loving to me and others that they knew were gay or questioning”. Other responses, such as, “No one cares. If you play well, we want you on the team” seem to indicate that the most important factor is sport performance, not sexual orientation. These responses are encouraging when considering the environment that these athletes compete in.

Seventeen of the 97 (17.2%) responses were negative in nature and received the ‘Negative’ theme code. These responses indicated a negative, judgmental, or hostile team environment toward lesbian athletes. One participant offered a response based on spiritual or religious beliefs. She wrote, “We think it’s immoral and said athletes will go to hell...” Other responses coded as Negative were “they think it would be weird to have one on the team”, “several of my teammates would feel uncomfortable with the idea of having a lesbian teammate”, “they don’t like the idea too much”, and “...derogatory against homosexuals”. It was impossible to read responses such as these and be curious about the experiences of lesbians

on these teams. It also sheds a bright light on why some women athletes may engage in apologetic behaviors: to avoid being discriminated against.

The final theme addressed is the 'Contradiction' category. Six of the 97 (6.1%) responses were included in this category. These responses were interesting because they contained extremely contradictory views in the same response. One participant responded, "Most people make fun of the lesbians and try to ask lots of questions but for the most part everyone is pretty comfortable with it." Another wrote, "negatively, but accepting at the same time". Yet another participant noted, "The majority of my heterosexual teammates seem to wish that the others were not lesbians, but all of my teammates are very accepting of one another, especially when the girls are honest about their homosexuality. Lesbians who play on opposing teams however, are strongly criticized." It is difficult to understand the experiences of the participants whose responses were included in this category. The contradictions seem to indicate confusion and/or ignorance about the significance of the messages and beliefs held by teammates.

Quantitative Results

Assumptions

For the current study, four assumptions needed to be met. They are Independence, Normality, Homogeneity of Variance, and Homogeneity of Covariance (Symmetry and Sphericity). Independence and Normality were met based on the design of the study. Scores were unrelated allowing for randomization and scores were symmetrical around the mean. Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices was used to test the null hypothesis that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal across groups. The assumption was met because the significance value of .333 was greater than .001. However, Mauchly's Test of

Sphericity indicated that the assumption of sphericity has been violated (chi-square = 32.934, $p=.000$). Since the assumption was not met, there is a risk of an increase in Type-I error. This indicates a positive bias of the F-statistic, rendering it invalid. A correction was made to the degrees of freedom so a critical F-value could be obtained. This correction was made by using the Huynh-Feldt epsilon. The Huynh-Feldt correction was suggested because the estimated epsilon is greater than 0.75 (Keppel & Wickens, 2004).

Relationship between Situation and Sexual Orientation

Is there a relationship between sexual orientation and situational context with regard to prevalence of apologetic behavior?

A 3x2 Mixed-Design ANOVA was conducted to determine the extent to which situation (within subjects; in public, around coaches, and around teammates) and sexual orientation (between subjects; heterosexual and non-heterosexual) affect the prevalence of apologetic behavior. The dependent variable is the mean score of the quantitative section of the Apologetic Behavior questionnaire. Mean scores for the “when in public”, “when around my coach(es)”, and “when around my teammates” items were calculated and used for analyses. According to the results using the Huynh-Feldt correction for degrees of freedom, a main effect of situation $F(1.68, 221.74) = 14.71, p<.001$, partial eta squared = .10. This indicates a medium effect size. This means that 10% of the variance in the scores is accounted for by situational context. This significant effect was not qualified by sexual orientation, $F(1.68, 221.74)=2.36, p = .11$, partial eta squared = .02. In addition, no main effects of sexual orientation were found $F(1,132) = 2.93, p = 0.09$.

Post-hoc analyses were conducted to determine the significant differences found in situation. The Public scores were significantly higher than Coach scores with a mean difference of .288, $p < .001$ and Team scores with a mean difference of .219, $p < .001$. There were no significant differences found between Team and Coach scores ($p = .128$). This indicates that athletes engaged in apologetic behaviors more often when in public than when around teammates or coaches.

Descriptive Statistics were generated for the responses (see Table 2 in Appendix B). Although the differences were not significant, heterosexual participants indicated engaging in apologetic behaviors more frequently on each situational level than did their non-heterosexual counterparts. For the public situational context, the mean for the scores offered by heterosexual participants was 2.21 (SD = 0.73) as opposed to a mean of 1.72 (SD = .58) for non-heterosexual participants. The mean scores for heterosexuals in the Coach situation was 1.80 (SD = .58), which the non-heterosexual mean score for the Coach situation was 1.55 (SD = .56). Finally, the mean heterosexual scores for Team was 1.95 (SD = .64) and the non-heterosexual mean score was 1.53 (SD = .60). Although the scores were not significantly different, it is interesting to note that for each situational context, heterosexual mean scores were greater than the non-heterosexual mean scores. This suggests the need for additional studies to investigate the use of apologetic behavior in public situations.

Other analyses were conducted as well. This researcher was curious to see if the type of sport engaged in affected the reported prevalence of apologetic behaviors. No significant differences were found between sport $F(24.05, 221.99) = 1.10, p = .344$. Possible explanations will be discussed in the next section. Internal consistency was measured in the current study

because the original questionnaire had been modified. Cronbach's alpha for the Apologetic Behavior questionnaire was .917, indicating a high level of internal consistency. In addition, analyses indicated that removing items would only reduce the level of internal consistency.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

Summary of Results

Responses to open-ended questions provided information about the perceived negative and positive stereotypes of female athletes from the perspective of the athletes themselves. Common themes identified in the negative stereotype responses included phrases related to the sexuality of female athletes and references to masculinity. That is, female athletes are viewed as either lesbian or hyper-sexualized and more masculine than other females. The 'Body' theme was somewhat common and contained messages that focused on the physical stature of the female athletes; big, muscular, and manly were included in this theme. Common positive stereotype themes included 'Body' and 'Personality'. These responses included responses regarding fitness level and personality characteristics such as confidence and leadership qualities.

The overwhelmingly majority of responses to the questions asking how teammates and coaches communicate their views of lesbians in college sports referenced a refrain from discussing the issue. Much less often, participants indicated that coaches and teammates were either accepting of the issue or not accepting. These responses indicate that in the sporting environment, the discussion of homosexuality is avoided. These results may contribute to the use of apologetic behavior; if it is not discussed at all, athletes may fear repercussions and therefore engage more often in apologetic behaviors.

Overall main effects of situation were identified through the analyses. According to the data, participants seem to engage in apologetic behaviors significantly more often when in public than when around their coaches or their teammates. Since the stereotypes identified by the participants seem to indicate a societal acceptance of heterosexual hegemony, these results are not surprising. Also, it seems to be more acceptable to engage in more aggressive behavior around coaches and teammates when that personality factor is seen as valuable to success on the playing field. However, based on the number of negative messages received by coaches as well as the percentage of coaches who avoid discussing sexual orientation issues with their teams, it is worth investigating whether or not athletes engage in apologetic behaviors when around coaches and *not* competing.

No significant differences were found in the responses between the participants who identified as heterosexual and non-heterosexual, although across each situational context, heterosexual participants' mean scores were higher. It is worth noting that only six percent of the sample identified as non-heterosexual ($N = 8$). Results from a survey conducted in 2011 found that 4.6 percent of women in the United States between the ages of 18-44 identified as non-heterosexual (U.S. Department of Health and Human Sciences, 2011). In addition, 12.7 percent of this population reported that they have engaged in sexual behavior with another woman. The percentage of current female athletes who identify as non-heterosexual is not known. Therefore, it is difficult to discern whether or not the six percent of participants who identify as non-heterosexual is consistent with the larger population. A survey found that 23 of the 12,602 athletes competing at the 2012 London Olympic Games openly identified as non-heterosexual (Buzinski, 2012). This represented less than one percent of the total number of athletes competing in the Olympic Games.

Implications for Practice

The results of the current study are valuable for counselors and psychologists who work with female athletes at the collegiate level. The results shed light on perceived stereotypes which can negatively affect mood and behavior. It also builds awareness of the pressures that these athletes may face on a daily basis, both during sport performance and outside of their sport. It is clear from the results that athletes do in fact perceive negative stereotypes and do change their behavior accordingly. This information can help professionals initiate discussion about the ways in which societal pressures impact the current functioning of athletes.

Therapists can help women athletes process the ways in which they internalize perceived stereotypes and cope with the pressure and stress of performing in an environment with such strong heterosexual hegemonic views. For non-heterosexual athletes, they could be benefited by examining the messages they receive from society: that because of their sport participation, they believe they are viewed as masculine, lesbian, and a variety of other labels identified in the current study. They can also be assisted in the ways in which these athletes may attempt to “prove” their heterosexuality, as we have seen in the qualitative data. For non-heterosexual athletes, therapists can offer a safe, supportive environment in which to explore their sexuality. As these athletes are developing their own identities during college, therapists can assist them in making sense of the paradoxical messages they receive as well as the way in which these messages impact their self-esteem, and confidence.

Another very beneficial result of these results can occur on a more administrative level. It is important that athletic administrators and coaches become aware of the messages their athletes receive and the ways in which these impact (both negatively and positively) the experiences of these athletes. Training programs can be developed to teach coaches and

administrators about the importance of creating an affirming, accepting, and safe environment. The NCAA may also use results such as these to implement broader policies and procedures to protect women athletes.

Limitations

The current study has many limitations that are important to discuss. The self-report nature of the surveys may encourage biased responses. Efforts were made to encourage honest and un-biased responses such as the use of an anonymous online survey. However, it is impossible to determine the extent to which the participants answered in an honest manner. A very important limitation is the sample size of the study. The target sample was 252 participants. Due to recruitment difficulties, a much smaller sample size was obtained for the current analyses. In an ideal situation, 252 participants would have been gathered. In addition, it would have been ideal to have more balance between the amount of participants who identified as heterosexual and non-heterosexual.

Another limitation is that it is hard to determine the extent to which the participants fully understood the survey questions. If the survey was delivered in person, these questions could be answered (although the survey items clearly stated that the behaviors were engaged in because of perceived stereotypes of female athletes).

The demographic and Apologetic Behavior questionnaire (open and closed-ended questions) were not counterbalanced. Therefore, an order effect may have occurred which may have skewed the responses. In the future, randomization of the order may help counteract the possible bias that the order of the survey could produce. Small cell sizes were also a huge limitation ($n = 6$ non-heterosexual participants) and may affected the significance and also the

generalizability and accuracy of the results. Finally, the use of snowball sampling is not considered random sampling and may negatively impact the generalizability of the results.

Throughout the entire recruitment procedure, many barriers were encountered. The response rate from the initial universities contacted was extremely low. At one major Midwest university, full IRB approval was obtained. The next step was to gain permission from the athletic department itself. This process consisted of a lengthy application process with full disclosure of purpose, methods, research questions, and survey sample. After this process was completed, no answer was obtained from this athletic department. After dozens of follow-up phone messages and e-mails, still no response was offered. This may shed some light on the ways in which athletic departments may be protecting their student athletes from outside researchers. Another Midwest university outrightly denied access to their student-athletes. Situations such as these are discouraging for researchers who wish to investigate the experiences of current student athletes. As a result, it seems difficult to not only fully understand the needs of these female student athletes but improve the conditions for said athletes. It is important for researchers to be persistent in their efforts to recruit current collegiate athletes in their investigations.

Future Research

It would be very beneficial for future research to continue to use the Apologetic Behavior survey to quantitatively collect data. This would allow for researchers to quickly and more easily gather data and further the understanding of the use of these behaviors. In addition, it would be helpful if future researchers to make it a priority to gather more responses from non-heterosexual participants to gather a more generalizable understanding of the experiences of these athletes. Davis-Delano et al.(2009) suggested for additional research to focus on factors

such as SES and sexual orientation. While the current research focused on sexual orientation differences, SES was not addressed and remains a possible area of future research.

The current study examined the use of apologetic behaviors in different situational contexts. Further research can replicate the current study to see if consistent results are generated. Other interesting factors could include gender and sexual orientation of coach(es), messages received during the recruiting process, and the use of apologetic behaviors of *former* female athletes. It is hypothesized by the current researcher that former athletes may more accurately report their sexual orientation because they no longer fear negative repercussions. Future research may also include a measure of gender roles and explore the relationship between gender roles and apologetic behaviors.

In order to produce a baseline with which to compare the prevalence of apologetic behavior with female athletes, it may be important to measure the extent to which women in general engage in the behaviors included in the questionnaire. For example, “Do women in general engage in the behaviors included in the questionnaire regardless of perceived stereotypes?” In addition, it may be helpful to analyze each item of the questionnaire separately because they contain a wide range of different types of behaviors (wearing make-up is a much different type of behavior than showing physical aggression or talking about lesbians). Finally, it would be interesting to determine the extent to which male athletes engage in apologetic behavior.

Summary

This study examined the relationship between sexual orientation and situation with regard to apologetic behavior. Significant main effects of situation were found with apologetic behavior implemented more often in public settings than when around a coach or with teammates. While

heterosexual mean scores were higher than non-heterosexual mean scores on each situation, they were not significant. Also, no significant differences were found between the sports participated in. The protective nature of collegiate sports programs proved difficult in the recruitment process which may have negatively impacted the current results.

Future researchers are encouraged to use the Apologetic Behavior survey developed by Davis-Delano et al. They are also encouraged to investigate the relationship between SES, gender of coach, and sexual orientation of coach on the implementation of apologetic behavior. Any research focused on the current experience of female college athletes can be very beneficial in creating and implementing more accepting and positive sport atmosphere.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A:

Review of the Literature

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Women Athletes Throughout History

The personal struggles and uncomfortable experiences that women athletes are forced to encounter can be seen on a daily basis. For example, one week after winning the 800 meter race in the world track championships in 2008, Caster Semenya, from South Africa, was forced to undergo a gender test (Chase, 2008). Following the gender test, Semenya took an eleven month rest from competitive racing. Since her return, she has had to suffer insults, backlash and media attention (Callow, 2010). One month after the gender test, Semenya appeared on the cover of “You” magazine with her hair down, adorned with jewelry, wearing a dress and make-up. It appears to the public that Semenya not only was forced to undergo a humiliating gender test, but felt pressured to prove her female-ness to the world by appearing more feminine on the cover of a popular magazine. Another star athlete criticized as being a man because of her success as an athlete is Babe Didrikson (Schwartz, n.d.). Didrikson, who single-handedly won a team gold medal at the 1932 AAU championships, excelled at many sports but eventually dominated the golf arena later in life. Rumors began spreading of Didrikson’s gender as well as her sexual orientation. Would these questions been raised if Didrikson was not athletic or not as successful in her athletic endeavors? No one can be sure.

One would perhaps think that social acceptability of women athletes, whether heterosexual or not, would have improved since 1932 when Didrikson performed. However, it appears as though society is not as far advanced as one would hope; ask Sheryl Swoopes. Sheryl Swoopes, the first woman athlete to have her own line of athletic shoe, felt the need to keep her

sexual orientation a secret for over seven years while competing in competitive and professional basketball (Rieken, 2007). Swoopes reported that she felt as though she was living a lie by pretending to be heterosexual and deny her relationship with her life partner, who is a woman. There have also been stories of young women athletes transferring to other schools due to their level of discomfort with and around lesbian teammates (Figel, 1986). As quoted in Figel's interview with Pennsylvania State head women's basketball coach Rene Portland, Portland states, "I will not have it in my program" (p.2). The "it" that Portland is referring to is lesbianism. Coincidentally, in 2006, one of Portland's players filed a federal discrimination suit against the coach (Finder & Lash, 2006). The player, Jennifer Harris, reported that Portland frequently interrogated her about her behavior and sexual orientation and pressured her to dress more feminine and stop wearing her hair in cornrows. Jennifer Harris was eventually released from the team which sparked the lawsuit. Portland later resigned. These few examples do not even begin to scratch the surface of the types of tense and uncomfortable situations women athletes and other women involved in athletics face on a daily basis.

Title IX

In 1972, perhaps the most significant event occurred to propel the participation of women in sport by the passing of Title IX. This law affects higher education and institutions who receive funding from the federal government and deals with the equality of women and men. Title IX deals with all aspects of higher education including access to college, athletics, funding, and scholarships, but is often popularly associated with college athletics. Since the passing of Title IX, millions of women athletes found opportunities to compete in college and elite sport that would not have had the chance to previously. Women participation in sport has increased

800% from 1972 to 2005 (Adams, Schmitke, & Franklin, 2005). Since the 1970s, feminists have been trying to find ways to increase women participation in sports and for those athletes to have the same rights and benefits as men. They believe that participation in sport can contest the stereotype of women as passive, weak, and soft and challenge the hegemony of male power and control. Although the passing of Title IX represents the journey of women to equality and physical autonomy, it is also seen as a major threat to the “ideological basis of male domination (p. 32)” (Messner, 2007).

Hegemonic Masculinity

Messner (2007) argues that while the number of women participating in sports has increased, society still distinguishes males and females in terms of ability and physical stature, and that the media is determined to portray women athletes in ways that are consistent with more traditional gender roles. Hegemony has been defined as the social, cultural, ideological, or economic influence exerted by a dominant group over American culture as a whole.

Heterosexual hegemony, which indicates that in American society the accepted sexual orientation is heterosexuality, influences the ways in which female athletes view themselves as well as other athletes. The fear of being a “lesbian” or “butch” has been found to result in behavior modification (Anderson, 2002).

Sport has traditionally been a means by which men are socialized and taught to act in a way that is socially acceptable (McKinney & McAndrew, 2000). However, efforts of the male athletes to appear more socially acceptable do not always have positive results (Coad, D. 2008). Coad argues that male athletes at times become so obsessed and wrapped up in “jock culture” (p.

7) that they become sexually promiscuous, antisocial, dangerous, and engage in behaviors that are at times mentally and physically unhealthy.

Women, on the other hand, have been traditionally discouraged from participating in sports, especially sports other than gymnastics and figure skating. McKinney and McAndrew sought to understand the ways in which athletes and non-athletes perceive sexuality as well as whether or not stereotypes still exist and if views about homosexuality impact these stereotypes. The authors predicted that the degree to which a particular sport is dominated by males would correlate with viewing women participants in these sports as lesbian. Out of the 91 undergraduate participants, 47% of them were athletes. A 2x2 Analysis of Variance and t-tests indicated that athletes were more negative in their views toward homosexuality than non-athletes and men more negative than women. The authors also found that male athletes were the least tolerant of homosexuality and that stereotypes do in fact still exist. Female athletes and male non-athletes were the groups that most believed that stereotypes exist. Further, male athletes reported that they were less comfortable with a gay teammate than female athletes and thought that they would receive more backlash from others if they were an openly gay male athlete. Finally, results indicate that the more tolerant a female is of homosexuality, the less likely she will feel the need to act in a more feminine way in order to be perceived as heterosexual (fewer apologetic behaviors).

Messner (2007) argues that within the past decade gender has been viewed as “a multilayered social process that is not simply part of the personality structure of individuals, but also a fundamental aspect of everyday group interactions, institutions, and the cultural symbols that swirl around us (p. 3)”. He also posits that individuals use what is referred to as “agency” in

order to create social meanings. He states that the agencies can be reproductive, or assist in keeping those previously formed cultural symbols alive by acting in ways that are consistent with them, or resistant, when actions are not consistent and result in “changing existing gender relations (p.3).” Relevant to the current study is when reproductive and resistant agencies occur together; forming a sort of conflict of identities. He gives examples such as the growing number of women athletes parallel the growing number of male coaches in the field, or female athletes who are very muscular compensating in other ways to appear more feminine (i.e. applying make-up, getting breast implants, etc.). These examples seem to be overcompensation for the image of women athletes as strong and dominant athletic figures.

Gender norms established by society are threatened by the increased participation in sport and sport behaviors of women athletes. In order to protect these societal norms, women athletes are devalued and stigmatized (Blinde & Taub, 1992). In a qualitative study conducted with 24 women college athletes in a variety of sports, stereotypes of women athletes were examined as well as how those stereotypes affect the women. 17 of the 24 participants brought up the topic of women athletes being labeled as lesbians, without prompting. Therefore, the authors followed up with questions regarding who provides this label, why the athletes think they are labeled in such a way, how the label affects the athletes, and the degree to which the label is discussed between women athletes.

Blinde and Taub (1992) found that the majority of the participants believed that the label of lesbian was common toward women athletes and they attempted to show distance from lesbianism in a variety of ways. Some participants showed distance from lesbians by using in- and out-group language such as “we” and “they”; some showed distance by stating they had

boyfriends or that they were straight. This seems to suggest that although the athletes mostly agreed that the label is common, they still actively sought to prove that they themselves were heterosexual and did not fit the label given to them. To answer the question of why women athletes are given the label, participants stated that the label is given because there are lesbians who participate in sports and many are labeled that way through association. Participants also stated that applying the label is a way to strengthen the societal gender norms and discredit women athletes. Other participants believed that the label was created after a lesbian individual “came out” to the public and the others are grouped with that individual. Still other participants believed that the label is applied because some women athletes “ask for the label” by the way they dress and behave (p. 526). The authors believe that women athletes are falsely accused of being lesbian because their increased participation in sport is threatening male sport, because women lack power and are unable to challenge these false accusations, and that the stereotype has been easily adopted because women athletes contradict the hegemonic masculinity that the majority of society seems to be so comfortable with.

Female athletes contradict society’s view of feminine and their sexuality is questioned by simply participating in sports (Roper & Halloren, 2007). On the other hand, males are validated as masculine by participating in sport. Females and gay males participating in sport both feel the need to prove their heterosexuality and to play the socially accepted role of heterosexual. Roper and Halloren hypothesized that male athletes would have more negative attitudes toward lesbian and gay men than female athletes, that there would be more negative attitudes among team sports, and that more contact would correlate with more positive attitudes toward lesbians and gay men. Results indicate that there is a significant difference toward attitudes toward lesbians

and gay men for gender and contact. Also, men had more negative ($t=-10.35$, $df=369$, $p<.001$) attitudes toward gay men than females and were more negative ($t=-4.76$, $df=369$, $p<.001$) toward lesbians than female athletes were. The authors found no difference between the scores of individual versus team sports. Authors also found more positive attitudes as amount of contact increased. Perhaps the most important lesson from this research study occurred before the data was collected. Seven of the ten colleges who were asked to participate declined and many indicated that they were doing so to avoid increasing the homophobic nature of the perspective athletic departments. These responses indicate a tendency to ignore sensitive issues rather than confront and change them. Similar concerns will be offered for discussion in the current study as well.

In 2000, Guillet, Sarrazin, and Fontayne used survival analysis, which they defined as, “a powerful set of data analysis tools that are particularly useful in understanding behavioral processes that unfold over time (p. 420)”, to analyze if, when, and why 336 French adolescent females left their handball team over three consecutive years. Specifically, the researchers investigated if the reason for leaving dealt with the participant’s gender role. The participants were first given a questionnaire during the middle of one season then at the beginning of the next three. The results of the analysis indicate the rate at which players survive from year to year. Researchers found that more androgynous players survived throughout the three years than the more feminine players. For the feminine players, they were most likely to drop-out toward the beginning of the study. After 498 days, there was more drop-out with the androgynous participants than with either masculine or feminine. At the final measurement, the androgynous participants had the lowest drop-off. The authors suggest that adolescents are very vulnerable

and beginning to develop their identities and those who have rigid feminine ideas of sex-roles are likely to leave environments which are considered to be more masculine. These results may indicate that at an early age, gender roles in sport are powerful agents in shaping the ways in which young girls identify with sport and with peers.

Apologetic Behaviors

In the 1970s, a new term called “apologetic defense” was created by Felshin (1974) and represented the desire of the female athlete to maintain femininity. Felshin posited that this apologetic was an attempt to reduce the amount of emotional distress the women athlete experienced due to their participation in the predominantly male world of sport. During this time, apologetic defenses included maintaining feminine dress or making sure that participation in the sport was not a priority in the women’s lives. These behaviors were adopted so that the women of this time could participate in sport but also protect their identity and image as a woman. Felshin also maintains that these apologetic defenses are forced upon the woman by society due to her participation in an arena that has been dominated by men in the past.

Using this idea of apologetic defense, Del Rey (1977) compared basketball and softball players to swimmers and tennis players and hypothesized that individual sport participants would be more liberal in their view of women gender role than team sport participants. Further, they hypothesized that individual sport participants would also experience less anxiety and distress and use fewer apologetic defenses than team sport participants. The Attitudes Toward Women Scale was used to measure the participants views of the gender role of women. At a .08 level of probability, team sport participants had more traditional views than did individual sport participants (tennis and swimming) regarding women’s roles. Tennis participants had the most

liberal views of women's roles. The results show that there is some difference between the types of sport and views of traditional gender roles. Del Rey very powerfully ends with this comment, "It (apologetics in women's athletics) exists only as long [as] a society continues to support the stereotyped view of acceptable female behavior which is in conflict with the requirements for sport participation. Hopefully we will see the demise of apologetics as stereotypic behavior loses support (p. 222-223)".

An interesting result of the Blinde and Taub article was the ways in which women athletes managed this stigma of being a lesbian. The authors found three main techniques: concealment, deflection and normalization. The athletes used concealment by withholding information about themselves, manipulating themselves physically or behaviorally so they did not come across as lesbian (i.e. growing long hair, wearing makeup, being promiscuous with men, etc.), avoiding contact with women, and at times talking about the stigma so often that it became clear that they did not fit the lesbian label. The participants also reported that the label is often applied to them by male athletes and male and female non-athletes. The participants also felt team sports that required more strength, aggression, and physical contact were most likely those that were given the label. Deflection was used by increasing the importance of the other roles in the women's lives such as social roles or academic roles in an attempt to "deflect" the importance of sports. Normalization was less prevalent because it requires a degree of confrontation about the stigma. A majority of the participants indicated that they were angered by the stigma and that they have become more self-aware and vulnerable as a result of it.

A 2005 study by Adams et al. used 24 qualitative interviews of 13-21 year old females to examine heteronormativity and how the participants experience it, even in middle school. The

authors found that all participants indicated their familiarity with heteronormativity and that they were explicitly aware of the need to balance their role as athlete and female. The participants engaged in the following behaviors as apologetic defenses: wearing long hair, wearing ribbons in their hair, applying makeup, positioning oneself in the public's view with a boyfriend, and participating in other extracurricular activities such as homecoming and pageants. The participants indicated that they felt pressured to engage in these activities by their parents, coaches (who were predominantly male), and their coaches wives. By engaging in these behaviors, the participants were aware that they were not only proving that they were feminine, they were proving that they were heterosexual. A majority of the participants also indicated a desire to find a balance between being too masculine and being too feminine, and preferred the term "tomboy" in describing themselves. The authors also found that there are benefits from this identity struggle. Participants were physically and mentally empowered and developed strength and sense of self. Participants were also found to have increased confidence, self-esteem, and assertiveness.

Sport and Identity

Sport is viewed by some sociologists as a key part of social and cultural life as well as a very important vehicle for economic and ethical growth (MacClancy, 1996). In 1996, sport and leisure were the third leading industry in the world and only trailed automobiles and oil.

MacClancy writes that sport is not something that reflects society's values but helps to create and express meanings in an ever-changing way.

Patterns in the literature emerged regarding the dual identities that women athletes experiencing when trying to balance being an athlete with being a woman. The authors were

interested in discovering how female college athletes view being both an athlete and female and if they think the two are compatible or a paradox. The authors attempted to understand this qualitatively by conducting semi-structured interviews with 14 college female athletes; 7 gymnasts and 7 softball players. 5 common themes were found from analysis of the qualitative data. The first theme, perceptions of gender constructions, deals with descriptions of behaviors and appearances that depict the typical feminine ideal. Appearances included clothing, body types, makeup, and hairstyles, to name a few. The next theme, resisting traditional definitions of femininity, included times in which the participants voiced unease or dissatisfaction over traditional gender role definitions. The third theme, perceptions on gender appropriate sport, dealt with sports have a more appropriate gender. In other words, male sports were mostly considered contact sports which required more aggression and strength. Many participants voiced discomfort with women playing certain sports such as rugby, wrestling, or body building. Interestingly, body structure such as height was also discussed as a masculine characteristic of a female athlete. There were mixed opinions about sports that were considered to be feminine but the majority mentioned volleyball, swimming, and gymnastics as being more appropriate for females and basketball, softball, and soccer to be more masculine sports. New visions of women athletes, the fourth theme, dealt with the differences that the participants found in the current world of sports and how it seems to be more accepting than before. Some of these trends include more acceptance of weight training for females to build muscle, height increases, participation in some of the traditionally masculine sports discussed previously, and overall increased power. Every participant mentioned being proud of their bodies and their strength. However, there was still a sense of struggle with the paradox: “Although she also understood that looking powerful was not a socially accepted norm, she recognized that developing strength would help her team

win games ...”. Almost every participant also discussed their practiced ability to appear more feminine when they think that it is necessary, which is the fifth theme referred to as selective femininity. The gymnasts noted the importance of looking feminine during competition as their ratings might depend on it while the softball players seemed to agree that it is less important for them to appear feminine while competing. In both sports, femininity during practice was not important. Although image and appearance can be changed based on environment, most of the participants noted that in general, female athletes dress more comfortably than female non-athletes in college. One athlete indicated that getting dressed up, doing her hair, and putting on make-up meant that she was being a “real girl” (p. 52).

In general, incompatibilities were found, acknowledged and discussed between being female and being an athlete. These women found strategies to deal with the paradox such as being able to manipulate their appearance and image and accepting and being proud of their strength and power. According to the extensive research summarized above, this paradox seems to have many powerful effects on women athletes. The current study will address the ways in which women change or alter their behavior in an attempt to counteract the stereotypes that society’s heterosexual hegemonic views have placed on women athletes.

APPENDIX B:

TABLES

Table 1

Sample Demographics

Characteristics	N	Percentage
Sexual Orientation		
Heterosexual	126	94.0
Non-Heterosexual	8	6.0
Age		
No Response	10	7.5
18 years	20	22.4
19 years	35	26.1
20 years	29	21.6
21 years	24	17.9
22 years	4	3.0
23 years	2	1.5
Ethnicity		
Caucasian	94	70.1
African American	11	8.2
Mixed	11	8.2
No Response	10	7.5
Hispanic	5	3.7
Other	2	1.5
Asian American	1	0.7
Sport		
Track/Field/CxC	28	20.9
Rowing/Crew	16	11.9
Basketball	15	11.2
No Response	13	9.7
Equestrian	12	9.0
Swimming/Diving	12	9.0
Soccer	10	7.5
Fencing	8	6.0
Volleyball	8	6.0
Softball	5	3.7
Tennis	5	3.7
Multiple	2	1.5
Golf	1	0.7
Lacrosse	1	0.7
Years of Competition		
No Response	11	8.2
1-5 years	9	6.7
6-10 years	46	34.3
11-15 years	58	43.2
15+ years	10	7.4

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics Sexual Orientation x Situational Context

	PUBLIC		COACH		TEAMMATES	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Heterosexual	2.21	0.73	1.80	0.58	1.95	0.64
Non-Heterosexual	1.72	0.58	1.55	0.56	1.53	0.60

Table 3

Tests of Effects

Source	SS	df	Mean Sq	F	Sig	Partial
<i>Within</i>						
Situation	1.364	1.680	0.812	14.707	0.000**	0.100
Sit x Sex	0.219	1.680	0.130	2.359	0.106	0.018
Error	12.241	221.744	0.055			
<i>Between</i>						
Sex Orient	1.68	1.00	3.441	2.926	0.09	0.022
Error	155.263	132	1.176			

Note: Values reflect Huynh-Feldt corrections. Significant main effects of situation found $F(1.68, 221.74) = 14.71, p < 0.001$. Differences between sexual orientation responses were not significant.

APPENDIX C:

RESEARCH STUDY MATERIALS

INFORMED CONSENT

Consent Form

Project Title: Apologetic Behavior and its Relationship with Sexual Orientation and Situational Context

Investigators: Anne P. Weese, M.S., Oklahoma State University, and Julie Dorton Clark, Ph.D., Oklahoma State University.

Purpose: This is a web-based survey research study involving apologetic behavior. The investigators are interested in understanding the prevalence of apologetic behaviors among Division I female college athletes.

You are being asked to participate by providing responses to the questionnaires in the study. The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between apologetic behavior and sexual orientation and situation.

Procedures: Proceeding with the web-based survey will imply your consent to participate in this study. If you agree to participate you will be asked to complete one (1) questionnaire in addition to demographic questions. The focus of this questionnaire ranges from behaviors, stereotypes, attitudes, beliefs, and situations. All of the information given in the questionnaires will be kept strictly confidential and will not be seen by anyone other than the researchers. The survey should not take you more than 15 minutes to complete.

The apologetic behavior questionnaire (Davis-Delano, Pollock & Vose, 2009) consists of 3 parts. The first part consists of two open-ended questions regarding stereotypes. The second part consists of 13 questions which require answers to Likert-type scaled questions ranging from "never" to "always" for the first 11 questions and "very comfortable" to "very uncomfortable" for the last three questions. The third part of the questionnaire consists of 5 open-ended follow-up questions.

Risks of Participation: There are no physiological, social, physical, or legal risks in participating in this study that are greater than those ordinarily encountered in everyday life. If there is anything stressful or discomfoting during your participation in this study, you may cease participation at any time.

Benefits: There is no specific benefit to individual participants except the satisfaction of contributing to the advancement of research focusing on female college athletes and possible insights gained while completing the questionnaires. Participation in this study would greatly benefit the field of sport psychology and counseling psychology



by obtaining a greater understanding of the experiences of Division I female athletes.

Incentives: No incentives will be offered in order to avoid committing NCAA violations.

Confidentiality: No identifying information will be collected on participants. No individual data will be reported. All information received from participants will be stored in a secure place. Data will be collected via the SurveyMonkey website. SurveyMonkey offers an enhanced security option which will allow for IP address information to be turned off. Therefore, there will be no way to track the individual participants based on IP address information. Only the researchers will have access to the data and the information will be saved for five years after publication of the results.

Contacts: Should you have any questions about this study or simply want to discuss your participation you may contact the researchers: Anne Weese, M.S. 785-614-4754 or Julie Dorton Clark, Ph.D., 405-744-2899. If you want to discuss or have questions regarding your rights as a participant, you may contact: Dr. Shelia Kennison, IRB Chair, 219 Cordell North, Stillwater, OK 74074, 405-744-337 or irb@okstate.edu.

Participant Rights: Your participation is voluntary and there is no penalty in refusing to participate at any time during the study.

Consent: I have been fully informed about the procedures involved in this study. I have read and fully understand the consent form. By clicking below I am indicating that I freely and voluntarily agree to participate in this study and acknowledge that I am at least 18 years of age or older.

O I am 18 years of age or older and I give my consent to participate in this research study.

Okla. State Univ. IRB
Approved <u>4/22/11</u>
Expires <u>4/21/12</u>
IRB # <u>ED-11-12</u>

RECRUITMENT SCRIPT

SCRIPT

On-line recruitment

(To be emailed to school officials who can grant access to student-athletes.)

Hello. My name is Anne Weese and I am conducting a research study exploring the use of apologetic behaviors by female college athletes. The overall goal of this project is to increase the knowledge of current stereotypes of female athletes as well as how these stereotypes influence behavior.

NATURE OF THE STUDY:

The study is quantitative and qualitative in nature, and will involve completion of an online survey. Participants will complete an informed consent form, a demographic questionnaire and an apologetic behavior questionnaire. Completion time is not expected to exceed 20 minutes.

CONFIDENTIALITY:

No identifying information will be collected on participants. No individual data will be reported. All information received from participants will be stored in a secure place. Only the researchers will have access to the questionnaires/information and the information will be saved five years after publication of the results. It is possible that the consent process and data collection will be observed by research oversight staff responsible for protecting the rights and wellbeing of participants.

COMPENSATION:

There will be no compensation for participation in this study. However, your participation in the current study will be valuable to increase the level of understanding of the experiences of college female athletes.

PARTICIPANT RIGHTS:

Your participation in this research is voluntary. There is no penalty for refusal to participate, and you are free to withdraw your consent and participation in this project at any time.

If you wish to grant permission to access the female athletes at your institution, please respond via email with your consent. Following the consent, an email will be sent to you which will include the website for the online survey. Thank you very much for your time and consideration.

Thank you!

Anne Weese, M.S.
Doctoral Candidate
Oklahoma State University
785-614-4754
anne.weese@okstate.edu

Julie Dorton Clark, PhD
Assistant Professor
Oklahoma State University
405-744-2899
julz.dorton@okstate.edu



APOLOGETIC BEHAVIOR QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire Part I

Thank you very much for participating in this questionnaire. The results of this research project will help us understand more about the experiences of female athletes.

Some of the questions on this survey may make you feel uncomfortable. You have the right not to answer any particular question, or to stop answering the survey at any time. If you have any comments about the survey itself, there is a place for you to write your comments at the end of the survey.

1. Name any negative stereotypes of female athletes that exist.

2. Name any positive stereotypes of female athletes that exist.

Questionnaire Part II

Female athletes who play some sports are stereotyped by many outsiders as masculine or as lesbians. Of course, female athletes have personalities that range from very feminine to very masculine, and everything in between. And, female athletes are mostly heterosexual, but also include bisexuals and lesbians. Research indicates that stereotypes by outsiders create lots of pressure on female athletes and can even result in discrimination. This questionnaire is designed to examine some possible ways that female athletes respond to these pressures.

1. Because of stereotypes of female athletes, I try to look feminine (such as wearing make-up, wearing bows, or having long hair)...

...while in public.

Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

...when around my coaches:

Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

...when around my teammates:

Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

2. Because of stereotypes of female athletes, I avoid being aggressive or using physical force...

... while in public.

Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

...when around my coaches:

Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

...when around my teammates:

Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

3. Because of stereotypes of female athletes, I apologize when I am aggressive or use physical force...

... while in public.

Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

...when around my coaches:

Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

...when around my teammates:

Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

4. Because of stereotypes of female athletes, I avoid talking about sport...

... in public.

Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

...when around my coaches:

Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

...when around my teammates:

Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

5. Because of stereotypes of female athletes, I avoid hanging out with other female athletes *in public* outside of the sport setting.

Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
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...when around my teammates:

Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

8. Because of stereotypes of female athletes, I don't play as hard as I can when I am competing against males in sports...

...when in public.

Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

...when around my coaches:

Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

...when around my teammates:

Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

9. Because of stereotypes of female athletes, I talk about, or try to be seen with, a boyfriend...

...while in public.

Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

...when around my coaches:

Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

...when around my teammates:

Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

10. Because of stereotypes of female athletes, I don't talk about lesbianism/bisexuality...

...in public.

Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

...when around my coaches:

Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

...when around my teammates:

Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

11. Because of stereotypes of female athletes, I criticize females who are not feminine or who are lesbian

...in public.

Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

...when around my coaches:

Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

...when around my teammates:

Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

Questionnaire Part III

1. If you **do** engage in the above behaviors, please explain why you do so. If you **do not** engage in the above behaviors, please explain why you do not do so.

2. Are there any other ways (other than those mentioned above) that **you or others** respond to stereotypes of female athletes?

3. How do(es) your coach(es) communicate their thoughts or feelings about lesbian athletes?

4. How do your teammates communicate their thoughts or feelings about lesbian athletes?

5. Please express any additional comments you have about this questionnaire.

DEMOGRAPHIC FORM

Directions: Please answer the following questions as they best apply to you.

1. Age: _____
2. Are you a female? Yes _____ No _____
3. Are you a current athlete competing at the NCAA Division I level? Yes _____ No _____
4. Classification: Freshman _____
 Sophomore _____
 Junior _____
 Senior _____
 Other _____
5. Current sport: _____
6. Sexual Orientation: Heterosexual _____
 Homosexual/Lesbian _____
 Bisexual _____
 Undecided _____
 Prefer not to say _____
7. Years of competitive sport participation: _____
8. Ethnicity: Caucasian/White _____
 African American/Black _____
 Hispanic American/Latino/a _____
 Asian American _____
 Mixed (please specify) _____

Other (please specify) _____

APPENDIX D:

IRB APPROVAL

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL

Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board

Date: Friday, April 22, 2011

IRB Application No ED1112

Proposal Title: Apologetic Behavior and its Relationship With Sexual Orientation and Situational Context

Reviewed and
Processed as: Exempt

Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

Protocol Expires: 4/21/2012

Principal
Investigator(s):

Anne Weese
4701 N. Washington, Apt 503
Stillwater, OK 74075

Julie Dorton Clark
421 Willard
Stillwater, OK 74078

The IRB application referenced above has been approved. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the rights and welfare of individuals who may be asked to participate in this study will be respected, and that the research will be conducted in a manner consistent with the IRB requirements as outlined in section 45 CFR 46.

The final versions of any printed recruitment, consent and assent documents bearing the IRB approval stamp are attached to this letter. These are the versions that must be used during the study.

The reviewer(s) had these comments:
Please forward documentation of approval from sampling sites as they are received.

As Principal Investigator, it is your responsibility to do the following:

1. Conduct this study exactly as it has been approved. Any modifications to the research protocol must be submitted with the appropriate signatures for IRB approval.
2. Submit a request for continuation if the study extends beyond the approval period of one calendar year. This continuation must receive IRB review and approval before the research can continue.
3. Report any adverse events to the IRB Chair promptly. Adverse events are those which are unanticipated and impact the subjects during the course of this research; and
4. Notify the IRB office in writing when your research project is complete.

Please note that approved protocols are subject to monitoring by the IRB and that the IRB office has the authority to inspect research records associated with this protocol at any time. If you have questions about the IRB procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact Beth McTernan in 219 Cordell North(phone: 405-744-5700, beth.mcternan@okstate.edu).

Sincerely,



Shelia Kennison, Chair
Institutional Review Board

VITA

Anne Patricia Weese

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: APOLOGETIC BEHAVIOR AND ITS RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SEXUAL ORIENTATION AND SITUATIONAL CONTEXT

Major Field: Educational Psychology

Biographical:

Education:

- Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy in Educational Psychology at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in December, 2012.
- Completed the requirements for the Master of Science in Educational Psychology at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in July, 2009.
- Completed the requirements for the Bachelor of Arts in Psychology at the University of Notre Dame, Notre Dame, Indiana, January, 2005.

Experience:

- Pre-doctoral Psychology Intern, Kansas State University Counseling Services (APA-Accredited Psychology Internship Program), Manhattan, Kansas, August 2011 to July, 2012.
- Intake Counselor, Oklahoma State University Student Counseling Center, Stillwater, Oklahoma, August 2009 to May 2011.
- Practicum Counselor, Oklahoma State University Student Counseling Center, Stillwater, Oklahoma, August 2008 to May 2009.
- Practicum Counselor, Payne County Youth Services, Stillwater, Oklahoma, June 2007 to July 2008.

Professional Memberships:

- Divisions 44 and 17: American Psychological Association; American Psychological Association of Graduate Students; Southwestern Psychological Association.