

379  
N81  
No. 7486

STATUS DETERMINANTS FOR PROFESSIONAL SPORTS  
AND PROFESSIONAL ATHLETES

THESIS

Presented to the Graduate Council of the  
University of North Texas in Partial  
Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

By

Fern V. Kaye

Denton, Texas

May, 1998

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The purposes of the investigation were to determine if status of professional sports and professional athletes increases as male participation increases, if perceived status of 'athlete' increases with participation in sports that contain 'male' attributes, and if gender differences are related to status indicators. Sixty-eight students were administered a status-determinants questionnaire. A one-way ANOVA (gender) and a 2 x 12 ANOVA (gender x sport) were employed to determine status ratings of sports. A 3 x 2 (increase/decrease/no change x gender) Chi square was employed to determine status of sports, perceived masculinity of males/femininity of females, and status of the athlete related to gender attributes of sports. Results revealed no significant differences between the sexes across all variables.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Sport serves various societal functions and assists in instilling in the individual cultural beliefs, mores, norms, rules and regulations, and subsequently leads to the integration of those individuals into the collective society (Stevenson & Nixon, 1987). It is through this socialization process that people learn what is expected of them and what is considered appropriate according to the society in which they live. Part of this process includes the recognition that there are different values and levels of importance accorded different actions, people, and things and passing these values on as part of social heritage (Tuchman, 1978). During the past several decades, sex roles have been one of the most apparent indicators of the rapid changes to social expectations and social conditions. This is because sex roles embody cultural and social values, and become guidelines for what constitutes appropriate appearance, interests, skills, behaviors, activities and self-concept for males and females. (Morawski, 1987; Rice & Coates, 1995; Signorielli, 1989; Waisberg, 1988).

With women entering the paid workforce, it would seem the traditional expectations of gender would change to accommodate the changing behaviors

and beliefs. Despite these changes, however, women entering the traditionally male domain did not gain the importance associated with the position formerly occupied by men, and did not receive the extrinsic rewards that men accrued in the same job (May, 1990).

Sport holds a unique place in U.S. society. Sport is a social institution in itself, thereby helping to create, perpetuate and instill beliefs that help integrate an individual into the larger society, and also provides a career path for the sports professional within the larger society. (Richardson, Albury, & Tandy, 1985).

Societal expectations of gender have a significant influence on perceived importance of a job and of the person who occupies that job. These same expectations affect sport (Eccles, 1991; Gill, 1994) because sport embodies the gender stereotyping associated with certain jobs, but also embodies the gender stereotyping associated with the appropriateness of certain skills, behaviors and activities. (Messner, 1988).

### Purposes of the Study

Previous research suggests that gender stereotyping influences perception of an activity and the person performing the activity, with activities associated with males, or embodying male traits, considered more important. Therefore, the purposes of the present study were to determine:

1. if the status of professional sports and professional athletes increases as male participation increases;
2. if the perceived status of 'athlete' for both males and females increases if they participate in sports that contain more of the generally agreed upon 'male' attributes; and
3. if gender differences are related to the status indicators.

### Hypotheses

Specifically, the research hypotheses examined were:

1. overall rating or status of sports will vary in direct relation to their perceived 'male' and 'female' attributes, with more male attributes present in higher rated sports;
2. status of all sports will vary in direct relation to the number of males participating, with an increase in male participation related to an increase in perceived status of the sport;
3. participation in sports will increase a male's masculinity; participation in sports will decrease or not change a woman's femininity; and
4. the perceived status of male and female as 'athlete' will increase in direct relation to the number of perceived 'male' attributes, with status as 'athlete' increasing in those sports perceived as having attributes generally associated more with males than with females.

### Definition of Terms

The following definitions were pertinent to the understanding of the present study:

1. Status: importance, value or worth; especially the importance to society (Boyle & McKay, 1995; Cassidy & Warren, 1991).
2. Sex: “the property or quality by which organisms are classified according to their reproductive functions” and “either of two divisions, designated male and female, of this classification.” (The American Heritage Dictionary, 1985).
3. Gender role: sociocultural factors that determine perception of appropriate male and female behavior. (Ignacio, 1989)
4. Man/Men: the gender role assigned to the male. (Duquin, 1994).
5. Woman/women: the gender role assigned to the female (Duquin, 1994).
6. Masculine: qualities attributed by society to the male (Bem, 1987; Morawski, 1987).
7. Feminine: qualities attributed by society to the female. (Bem, 1987; Morawski, 1987).

### Delimitations

The study was delimited to:

1. a sample of 75 volunteer participants from a large southwestern university, composed of 34 consenting male and 41 consenting female students

(appendix A, attached) from each of the disciplines of kinesiology, sociology and psychology;

2. a sample in which participants' gender-role was not assessed but which could confound perceptions of masculinity and femininity appropriateness; and

3. use of a questionnaire, administered one-time, to determine respondents perception of various status attributes related to athletes and sports (appendix B, attached).

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### Status and Gender-Roles

Prior research has shown that gender differences are more a social construct than a biological fact (Bem, 1987; Curry & Jiobu, 1984; Eccles & Harold, 1991; Gill, 1994; Morowski, 1987). Historically, however, the sex of an individual has been associated with certain traits, characteristics and expectations. Thus, certain behaviors have been considered more appropriate for one sex than for the other (Duquin, 1994; Kalis, 1996). These assumptions about appropriate behavior have structured the roles that are expected of males and females and determine the status of males and females assigned to those roles (Bradley & Khor, 1993; Tuchman, 1978; West & Fenstermaker, 1995).

The role of the male is historically one of independence, power, status, and importance (Baxter & Kane, 1995; Rice & Coates, 1995; Stevenson & Nixon, 1987). Conversely, the female role has been one of dependence and subservience (Dowling, 1981), with the power or status of the woman gained through her relationship to a male (Baxter & Kane, 1995). Therefore, a woman gained importance through the social status, business relationships, or socioeconomic

class of her husband or father. With males in power in most cultures, it seems plausible they would take actions necessary to preserve this patriarchy and prohibit to women access in the arenas that might threaten the status quo. (Duquin, 1994; Schacht, 1996). Further, this social practice would effectively ensure the continued inequitable status of men and women.

While there are many definitions of status, a useful one for the purpose of this discussion is to consider status a construct of “importance to society.” A review of the literature indicates that traditionally women had little or no importance beyond what was considered their biological duty of bearing children and their societal role of wife, mother, and helpmate (Bradley & Khor, 1993; Signorielli, 1987). This concept of the biological defining the social roles that are predicated on biological traits effectively prevents women from changing their status.

Bradley & Khor (1993) suggested that status is “composed of three dimensions -- economic, political, and social”(p. 349). The economic dimension consists of those actions and institutions involved with making and selling goods and services; the political dimension can be thought of as representing power; and the social dimension represents the gender-role that is defined and approved by society. Based on these delineations, it is understandable that women have traditionally had little status. Men have controlled the economic environment. They have held positions which have more responsibility and require more

education and skills, and thus demand higher wages. Traditionally, the sole source of power a woman had was input into household decisions. Socially, a woman was restricted to those activities and personal associations that were considered appropriate; and access to such opportunities as education, visiting with friends, travel, or recreation, was limited by what the man in her life allowed her to do and what society at large viewed as acceptable (Bradley & Khor, 1993).

### Gender-Stereotypes and the Media

Research conducted by Signorielli (1989) indicates media, specifically television, perpetuates traditional and stereotypical gender roles and reinforces the viewer's tendency to adopt more sexist views. This research indicates televised portrayals differ from reality, in that there are significantly fewer images of professional women than there are professional women in the workplace. The ratio of women to men in the professions is approximately one-to-one, yet of the total number of professionals portrayed on television, approximately 25 percent are of women. (Signorielli, 1989). Portrayals show males to be more powerful, employed outside the home, and working in high prestige and traditionally male occupations such as medicine, law and other "higher status jobs" (p. 352). The image presented is that men work outside the home, while women should stay at home. Further, the subtle message which is conveyed is that work is really a male domain.

The print media also perpetuates rigid stereotypes, from the stories that are printed and the ways in which males and females are portrayed to the words which are used to characterize the subjects of the stories. Even words which should have no inherent sexual characteristics, such as the term 'adult', have certain qualities which are assumed to belong more to one sex than to another. Even in generalized discussions there is implied sexism. For example, prefacing a title with 'woman', as in 'a woman doctor', implies the norm is male. Similarly, the use of naming conventions for sports teams was examined by Eitzen & Zinn (1989) who noted that the use of prefixes such as 'lady', or suffixes such as 'ette' added to a noun to feminize it, further implies the norm is male. These practices suggest that for women to participate in activities or enter professions which are stereotyped as 'male', distinctions have to be drawn to emphasize they are not the regular or 'normal' participants and that somehow the profession or activity is different because of the gender of the participant.

The print media further provides distinctions between males and females based on pictorial representations. (Ferree & Hall, 1990). Consistently, throughout various magazines and newspapers, professional men were portrayed as successful, powerful decision makers with high status, while women who gained success within their field were portrayed according to their stereotyped societal role, rather than their professional role (Duncan, 1990; Ferree & Hall,

1990; Luebke, 1989). The implication is that a man does not have to assume qualities different from those that define him as a man to be successful. In contrast, photographic images seem to suggest that in spite of professional accomplishments, the real status of a woman has not been undermined by her professional status.

In addition to the disparity between how professional men and women are portrayed, sharp differences were also noted in published photographs of athletes. For example, female athletes were often shown with their husband and children, or dressed in street clothes, rather than their athletic attire. Males were pictorially portrayed in the context of an athlete. Duncan's (1990) research into the media portrayal of Olympic athletes indicated that male athletic achievement was not portrayed as incongruous to the role of male, while female athletic portrayal was minimized in favor of images that emphasized stereotypical feminine attributes, such as in a 'cheesecake' pose. The assumption appears to be that an athlete is incongruous with a woman's gender-role.

The use of certain words and photographic images conveys the importance of the subject (Henley, 1989; Luebke, 1989). Males are portrayed with strong images. Descriptors that are used emphasize aggression, leadership, decision making and power, which are considered masculine qualities (Bem, 1987; Ignico, 1989). When a person is portrayed as a helper or assistant, or when athletic

achievements or career position are portrayed as secondary to the social role accorded the person, the disparity affects the status of that person and her/his achievement. As Molotch (1978) noted, the portrayal of women in the media is that of “fantasy-role players, and not as people who do things in the world” and when women do appear “it is from a man’s perspective of what is interesting” (p.185).

#### Gender-Stereotypes and Economics

Economically, women still earn less than their male counterparts (U.S. Department of the Census, 1990). Research has shown that historically men were considered the main wage earners more deserving of higher salaries because they were considered to be more capable (May, 1990). Additionally, because males held certain positions, those positions were considered more important than positions held by women and were subsequently paid more. Even when women occupy the same profession as men, they are paid less. Research (Acker, 1990; Boyle, 1995) indicates this is due to the perception that women are not really doing the same job as men. Traditional stereotypes hold that women and men are unequal and men are superior. Even though jobs may appear equal, the job held by a woman is perceived as less important and subsequently pays less.

Fiscal productivity is highly related to power and influence and the labor

force has approximately equal percentages of men and women (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1990). Although Cassidy and Warren (1991) noted an increase in the proportion of women employed in occupations traditionally dominated by men, they also reported that women have fewer numbers in many of the higher-ranking, higher-salaried, and more powerful positions in professional and managerial occupations. When women are employed in these occupations, they tend to be located in lower-level specialties and positions. Frequently, they receive lower salaries than their male peers. When men occupy positions in which they are the minority, such as registered nurses, librarians and non-college teachers, they advance through the ranks more quickly than do women, occupy more of the top-level positions than do women, and their wages are higher than those of women. That men are accorded the higher job rank and higher salaries is a practice that appears to “reinforce traditional societal views as to who should be found in particular occupations and positions” (p. 194). Compared with men, women are under-represented in high status professions such as doctors, dentists, lawyers, judges, scientists, and college professors. Women are over-represented in lower status occupations such as nursing, pharmacy, counseling, recreation and occupational therapy (U.S. Department of the Census, 1990).

Results of an examination of the concept of status inconsistency conducted by Cassidy and Warren (1991) indicated that those persons whose occupations

were traditionally considered appropriate for their gender were more satisfied with their work than those persons in occupations that were not considered as appropriate for them to occupy. In general, satisfaction was highest in those occupations where men constituted the majority of the work force. Additionally, men earned higher average annual salaries than women and both men and women who were employed in male-dominated occupations were more likely to hold supervisory positions than those in female-dominated occupations. Thus, the investigators concluded that the type of occupation (male dominated or female-dominated) is a better predictor of work satisfaction than status consistency, with persons working in a male-dominated occupation reporting the highest degree of overall satisfaction. According to the researchers

an explanation for this finding is that men's professions are more prestigious and lucrative, while women's professions lack authority and autonomy.... the professions dominated by women have not always been considered full fledged professions (p. 201).

Male professions in the United States have acquired more prestige than female-dominated professions, which suggests that prestige is related to gender-role expectations.

If the skills required of a profession are seen more as a quality associated with the gender than with any learned skill or educational attainment, the value of the occupation may be lower than occupations seen as requiring special training and education. For example, occupations traditionally associated with women such as teaching or nursing require the attributes of “nurturing and helping” and are traditionally associated with the female role. According to Cassidy and Warren (1991), characteristics that are generally associated with high status male-dominated occupations appear to mirror stereotypical masculine attributes of rationality, assertiveness, independence, and nonemotionality rather than skill or training. Therefore it appears that masculine traits are more highly valued than feminine traits.

This view towards congruence between sex and gender-role is expressed in other literature as well. Acker (1990) suggested that organizational logic assumes there is congruity between responsibility, job complexity and hierarchical position. For example, a lower-level position occupied predominantly by women must have equally low levels of complexity and responsibility. Further, the concept of ‘job’ is gender stereotyped because it contains the gender-based division of labor and the separation between public and private arenas. The job assumes a particular gendered formulation of domestic life and social production. Research by Cassidy and Warren (1991) indicates that importance associated with the predominant

group of workers accrues to the occupation itself. Therefore, both males and females working in male-dominated occupations are more satisfied with their work than males and females who work in female-dominated occupations. Women who work in male-dominated occupations may view themselves and be viewed by others as upwardly mobile. Thus, this may enhance their job satisfaction.

Men employed in traditionally female occupations were the least satisfied, although it was unclear whether dissatisfaction was due to status inconsistency or societal view of the type of work they did. Womens' status was more related to male participation than to the occupation itself. Other research (Bradley & Khor, 1993) supports this finding as "male participation in child rearing enhanced the public status of women." (p. 369).

### Gender-Stereotypes and Sports

Sport has traditionally been associated with men (Greendorfer, 1987; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1987). If status is related more to male participation than to any inherent gendered definition of an occupation, it is of interest to examine what determines the status of a sport and of sports participants.

Gender stereotyping leads to different expectations for males and females, and thus a different set of behaviors that are considered acceptable. According to Richardson, Tandy, Albury (1985), "differential treatment can lead to discriminatory practices for males and females " (p. 65). Watching children at play

makes it clear that gender-roles are learned at an early age, and that children learn that certain activities are more appropriate for boys or for girls (Oglesby, 1984; Richardson et al, 1985). The belief that sport is a masculine domain has led to different and reduced athletic opportunities for women (Depauw, Bonace, & Karwas, 1991; Eccles & Harold, 1991), and differing perceptions about the female as athlete and the female as woman. This may be due to the perception that the qualities required to be successful in sport are masculine, and are therefore at odds with a woman's gender-role. This is not a difference perceived for males, where the qualities of being a male and qualities of being a male athlete are congruent.

Although attitudes about women's sport participation have changed to some extent (Miller Brewing Company, 1983, Snyder & Spreitzer, 1987), results of interviews with male athletes conducted by Messner (1990) concluded that "organized sports is a 'gendered institution' — an institution constructed by gender relations" ( p. 438) which mirror as well as help define societal stereotypes of femininity and masculinity. This attitude is also reflected in the results of a study of junior high, high school and college students (N=264) that indicate athletic participation was more important for males than for females (Vickers, Lashuk, & Taerum, 1980).

During development of the Physical Activity Stereotyping Index, Ignacio (1989) defined gender-specific characteristics of physical activity. These

characteristics were then used to categorize forty-five physical activities according to the degree each possessed female, male or gender-neutral characteristics. This Physical Activity Stereotyping Index was subsequently used by Ignacio and Mead (1990) to examine the attitudes of children towards various physical activity. Data indicate that activities considered masculine were considered more appropriate for boys, and activities considered feminine were considered more appropriate for girls. Boys classified physical activity according to gender-stereotype more than did girls. Further, all children tested from the southeast region of the United States significantly gender-stereotyped physical activity more than did those children from the Midwest. These findings support the work of Rice and Coates (1995) that a greater degree of gender-role stereotyping was found in people from the southern United States as compared to non-southerners. The difference in attitudes of individuals in southern and non-southern states lends support for the argument that activities are not inherently gendered, but rather become gendered due to societal assumptions.

Societal assumptions about masculine and feminine sex roles traditionally associate the masculine role with independence, strength, assertiveness, and stubbornness while the feminine role has been associated with dependence, weakness, passivity, and understanding (Bem, 1987; Dowling, 1981; Ignacio, 1989;). Die and Holt (1989) used Broverman's Short Form of the Sex-Role

Questionnaire to study perceptions of gender stereotyped and non gender-stereotyped characteristics. The researchers noted that

athletic involvement has been the prerogative of the male and a male-dominated phenomenon. Society has nurtured an environment that expressed an incompatibility between the stereotypical view of females.... and the psychological and physical demands of the competitive work of athletics. In fact, sex-role stereotypes, in general, have traditionally portrayed the female as biologically, physically, and psychologically limited: antithetical qualities for competitive athletics (p.135).

They found no indications in the literature to indicate negative associations toward female athletes and their athletic participation. Further, female participation in more masculine sports did not stigmatized them socially. Specifically, the data indicated that females were seen as significantly different from males, male athletes, and female athletes and that they possess more of the female-valued characteristics and behaviors than did the other three groups. Male athletes were perceived as significantly different from females athletes and possess fewer female-valued characteristics and behaviors (e.g., expressive, tactful, neat, empathetic) than female athletes. There were no differences found on male-valued characteristics between females and female athletes and males and males athletes. They were seen as having the same amount of stereotypical masculine behaviors.

Males, in general, and female athletes were viewed the same on female valued items, male athletes having fewer female-valued characteristics than female athletes. Females and female athletes were perceived as similar to both males and male athletes on socially desirable and male-valued items. This suggests that those qualities traditionally considered more appropriate for males than females, have become generalized so that they are more associated with the requirements of the activity than with the gender of the participant. It further suggests that those qualities traditionally considered appropriate only for males may be perceived as good qualities, in general, for any person to possess regardless of gender. Women are now being seen as having many of the characteristics stereotypically associated with males. However, there is no corresponding shift towards female valued characteristics. The female athlete, who is seen as adopting stereotypical masculine behaviors, is also seen as shedding some of the female-valued characteristics. Female athletes are seen as having the same amount of socially desirable behaviors as females, males, and male athletes. In spite of these results, the earnings of professional women athletes have not reached parity with their male counterparts (Kahn, 1991). This suggests that women have yet to achieve the status of male athletes and subsequently do not receive the earnings associated with higher status occupations.

Andre and Holland (1995) did not view sport as inherently gendered, and

therefore used sport characteristics such as team sport, body contact sport, and individual competition to define their sport categories into aggressive and less aggressive sport. High school students (N=376), completed a questionnaire of 22 bipolar items used to develop a masculinity and femininity score for each student, and they completed a 26 item questionnaire about how appropriate various activities were for women. Results indicated that male athletes reported higher masculinity scores than male nonathletes, and female athletes reported higher masculinity scores than did female nonathletes. Further, as a group, male athletes reported more traditional attitudes toward women than did male nonathletes. There were no significant differences between female athletes and nonathletes in their attitude toward women participants in activity. The type of sport was not related to masculinity or attitudes toward women. The results suggested that socialization of females is less rigid in attitude towards women when compared to male attitude. "Sport participation may have a stronger socializing effect on male athletes than on female athletes" (p. 251).

### Summary

A review of the literature on gender-role stereotypes and the effects of gender stereotyping on status of males and females was conducted. Studies show that gender-stereotyping has become less of a factor than it once was for women entering traditional male occupations or participating in traditional male activities

(Cassidy & Warren, 1991; Ferree & Hall, 1990). In particular, attitudes are changing toward the appropriateness of physical activities for women and the social perception about female athletes (Andre & Holland, 1995; Die & Holt, 1989; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1987).

Prior research indicates that work-related occupations, including sports, that have more perceived masculine characteristics than feminine are considered to have higher status and have higher salaries than occupations that contain more feminine characteristics (Bradley & Khor, 1993; Cassidy & Warren, 1991). Further, occupations or activities that have more males than females are rated higher in status, with commensurately higher salaries than those occupations predominated by females (Acker, 1990).

Any person who possesses traditional masculine attributes will have higher status in traditional male occupations, because the characteristics and traits exhibited by the person are seen as congruent with the requirements of the occupation (Die & Holt, 1989). Also, occupations predominated by males have more status because stereotypically, males and what they do, are considered to have more status than females. Although status and salary still remains lower for both males and females in traditionally female occupations, males in those occupations have higher status and higher salaries than do females.

There have been studies to determine the gender marking of certain

characteristics, traits and activities (Bem, 1987; Duncan, 1990; Ignico, 1989), and studies to determine the status of certain occupations and the people occupying those positions (Cassidy & Warren, 1991). However, there is a paucity of research that specifically determines if there is an increase or decrease in the status of a sport based on whether males or females participate. Further, although there are studies which indicate male characteristics and traits are highly valued for all people (Die & Holt, 1989), there is a limited body of literature that specifies which attributes determine the status of a sport or the affect of those attributes on sports when gender roles are considered.

## CHAPTER III

### METHOD

#### Participants

Seventy-five participants, (34 male and 41 female college students) from each of the disciplines of kinesiology, psychology and sociology, enrolled during spring semester 1997 at a large Southwestern university completed a questionnaire. All students were volunteers, solicited from approximately fifty classes taught in the three disciplines. Specifically, 6 students were psychology majors, 11 were sociology and social work majors, and 39 were kinesiology majors. Of the remaining twelve participants, there was one from each of the following disciplines: biology, engineering, art, child development, information systems, special education, and business; and 2 from health promotion. Two participants indicated they were undecided as to a major and one participant did not respond to the question. Participants ranged in age from 18 through 50 years, with mean age equal 24 years, 10 months. Results from only 68 participants were analyzed due to incomplete questionnaire data. Gender and racial composition of the resulting sample approximated the University population (Office of the Registrar, 1997) as follows: fifty-four percent of the participants were female and

forty-six percent male, with eighty-eight percent White, 4.5 percent Black, 3.5 percent Hispanic, and 3.5 percent Asian/Pacific Islander.

Twenty seven participants currently participate in organized sports, with 16 electing team sports, five electing individual sports, and six indicating they participate in both team and individual sports. The majority of participants (57 percent) do not anticipate a career in sports.

### Instruments

One instrument, a questionnaire entitled “Status Determinants for Professional Sports and Professional Athletes”, was used in the study. The questionnaire contains two sections: 1) demographic questions used to provide descriptive data, and 2) attribute questions, used to assess the participants perceptions of the status of professional sports and the professional athlete. The questionnaire required selection of one of three responses to all but one question. That question had participants rate the status of a sport by assigning a numerical value to each of twelve listed sports. These sports were selected based on professional sports opportunities for males and females (although gender opportunities differ across sports), and based on previous literature. The questionnaire that was used is an instrument developed by the principal investigator. It includes ‘masculine’ and ‘feminine’ attributes associated with gender and with sport that were consistently replicated in the literature (Bem,

1987; Duncan, 1990; Ignico & Mead, 1990 ). While these attributes have been validated (Bem, 1987; Ignico, 1989) and reflect commonly held societal perceptions of masculinity and femininity, the organization and presentation of these items is unique to the present study. The questionnaire was administered once, although a pilot test using men and women was conducted to assess 1) ease of questionnaire administration; 2) general understanding of the questions and possible choices contained in the questionnaire, and 3) approximate time to administer the questionnaire.

### Design

Four main categories were analyzed: 1) ranking of different sports according to their perceived status; 2) the effect on the status of sports based on increase or decrease in male/ female participation; 3) the effect on the perceived masculinity/femininity of an athlete based on participation in sports that have certain (gender-stereotyped) attributes, and 4) the effect on status as athlete based on participation in sports that have certain (gender-stereotyped) attributes.

A one-way ANOVA (gender) was conducted separately for each of the 12 sports to ascertain rating and status. Also, a 2 x 12 (gender x sport) ANOVA was conducted separately for each of the 12 sports. Status ratings on question 7 of the questionnaire served as the dependent measure. The Alpha level was set at .01.

The sports were classified into masculine/feminine/gender neutral categories

predicated upon societal perceptions of masculinity and femininity, and attributes associated with gender and sport ( Ignacio, 1989; Ignacio & Mead, 1990).

A 3 ( increase/decrease/no change) x 2 (gender) Chi-square analysis was employed to determine the status of sport and gender participation, perceived masculinity/femininity of the athlete, and status of athlete related to gender attributes of sports. For example, an independent Chi-square analysis was conducted for category 2 to determine effect (increase/decrease/no change) if more males and more females participated, for each of the 12 sports. Further, Chi-square analysis was conducted independently on each of the fourteen attributes associated with increase/decrease/no change to masculinity or femininity. For category 2, status-of-sport ratings on questions 8 and 9 of the questionnaire served as the dependent measure; for category 3, masculinity and femininity ratings on questions 10 and 11 of the questionnaire served as the dependent measure; and for category 4, status-as-athlete ratings on question 12 of the questionnaire served as the dependent measure.

### Procedure

The questionnaire was administered to participants in an academic classroom setting during spring term, 1997. Participants were given a brief introduction to the study, and they were informed that the study consisted of a single-phase questionnaire that solicited their opinions on the status of certain

sports and certain attributes that affect the status of sports and athletes. All participants signed informed consent forms before they participated in the study. Participants were assured that results would remain confidential and would be reported only in aggregate form.

Students were assigned to groups based on convenience of day and time. No limit was imposed for completion of the questionnaire, although most participants needed approximately 20 minutes.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### Results

This chapter presents the results and discussion of the data analysis. To ascertain the status determinants for professional sports, the status rating of sports was examined using a one-way ANOVA (gender). Further, a 2 x 12 (gender x sport) ANOVA was conducted separately for each of the 12 sports and the Alpha level was set at .01 to account for possible Type I errors. A summary of the results of the ANOVA is found in Appendix C, table 1.

Results indicated no statistically significant differences between males and females in the rating of status for each sport. Table 2 (Appendix D) provides a summary of these ratings and associated ranking of each of the twelve sports. Specifically, results fail to support the hypotheses that sports traditionally associated with males, or sports that are characterized as requiring or possessing more 'masculine' factors, were consistently ranked higher than those sports which were traditionally associated with females or with 'feminine' attributes. Further, there were no significant differences between males and females in the status ratings they assigned to the various sports.

A 3 x 2 Chi-square analysis (increase/decrease/not change x gender) was employed for status of sport and gender participation, perceived masculinity/femininity of the athlete, and status of athlete related to gender attributes of sports. The Alpha level was established at .01. No significant differences were found between males and females in any of their responses. The perceived effect on the status of a sport due to increase or decrease in male and female athletic participation was consistent between genders. However, further inspection of responses based on post-hoc Chi-square analysis of differences between effect on status due to increase of males/increase of females in each of 12 sports indicated variance in 2 sports. Respondents believed the status of basketball would increase with increased female participation; the status of baseball would decrease with increased female participation. Overall, these results reflect stereotypical beliefs about gender-appropriate sports participation. Perception of the effect on male masculinity and female femininity was consistent between genders, as was the effect of attributes such as physical contact, power, strength in throwing or hitting, and grace or elegance in skills, on the status of an athlete. For example, traits commonly associated with females (i.e., grace) were seen to decrease a male's masculinity; traits commonly associated with males (i.e., strength and power) were seen to decrease a female's femininity.

### Discussion of Results

Four hypotheses were tested in the present research. Possible explanation for the findings are discussed.

Hypotheses 1: Status of a sport would vary in direct relation to the perceived 'male' and 'female' attributes, with more male attributes present in the higher rated sports. Results indicated that the highest rated sports did contain traditionally masculine elements. However, sports which contained traditionally female, or gender neutral attributes were rated higher in status than some sports that contain traditionally masculine elements. Therefore, although the higher rated sports of basketball, baseball, and golf contain a high quantity of masculine elements, so do the lower rated sports of martial arts and marathon running. The findings do not indicate that the status of a sport will vary in direct relation to the perceived 'male' and 'female' attributes. Factors not considered in this study that may contribute to participants' ratings are media influence (Signorielli, 1989), availability of the sport, amount of monetary remuneration in the form of salary (May, 1990) or endorsements, or perhaps the number of athletes who choose to participate in the sport. Another aspect to be considered is that although sport may generally be considered a masculine activity regardless of the quantity of perceived 'masculine' or 'feminine' attributes the sport possesses (Snyder & Spreitzer, 1987), it is not automatically afforded a higher status. For example,

based on the definition of status as “importance to society” used in this study, it is clear that gendered participation alone does not determine the status of a sport. Indeed, prior research indicated that sport is traditionally viewed as a male domain (Greendorfer, 1987) and that males traditionally have had more status associated with what they do (Cassidy & Warren, 1991). Yet, this study indicates that male participation does not automatically determine that a sport will be perceived as having high status.

Hypothesis 2: Status of all sports will vary in direct relation to quantity of males participating, with an increase in male participation related to an increase in perceived status of the sport. Examination of responses to the three choices, or the individual cells of the Chi square, indicate the majority of students believed that an increase in male participation would not change the status of sport (Appendix E, table 3.) Similarly, a majority of students believed that an increase in female participation would not change the status of sport, with the exception of soccer, golf and basketball. For these three sports, the majority of students believed that status would increase with increased female participation (Appendix E, table 4.) Thus, it appears that some degree of athletic participation by both genders helps determine the status of a sport, rather than the status being linked to increased participation by one sex only. To better understand these findings, data were

compressed and a post-hoc analysis conducted using a 3 (increase/decrease/no change) x 2 (more males participate/more females participate) Chi-square to measure the difference in effect on each sport if more males and if more females participated . While overall results were consistent with the original findings, results were significant for two sports. Respondents believed that the status of baseball would decrease if more females participated and that status of basketball would increase if more females participated (table 5).

Hypothesis 3: Participation in sports will increase a male's masculinity, participation in sports will decrease or not change a woman's femininity . Results indicated no significant differences between males and females in their beliefs as to which factors increased, decreased or did not change a male's masculinity or a female's femininity. Analysis of Chi-square data indicate that more of the attributes were judged by participants to increase a male's masculinity than to increase a female's femininity. Because no gender differences were found between the responses of the two groups, data were compressed and percentages calculated to determine the degree to which total respondents believed the attributes increased, decreased or did not change a male's masculinity or female's femininity. Tables 6 and 7 in Appendix E provide percentage data. These results are consistent with prior research that fosters traditional belief that sports should, and does, embody specific masculine and feminine qualities (Messner, 1988.)

In contrast, it is of interest to note those attributes that decreased a male's masculinity were attributes most commonly defined as feminine, such as grace or elegance, and those attributes that decreased a female's femininity were attributes more traditionally associated with the male, such as strength or power. Results across the 14 attributes appear to reflect what are considered traditional beliefs towards gender-appropriate attributes.

Hypothesis 4: The perceived status of males and female as 'athlete' will increase in direct relation to the number of perceived male attributes, with status as athlete increasing for those sports perceived as having attributes associated more with males than with females. Results indicated no significant differences between male respondents and female respondents to perception of status. Tables 8 and 9 in Appendix E provide percentage data on whether participants believed certain attributes would increase, decrease or not change the status of an athlete. Because there were no significant gender differences, data were compressed for these tables. It is informative to compare the percentages expressed about attributes that affect masculinity and femininity with those expressed about male and female status for the athlete. For example, the same group of respondents who believed certain attributes would decrease a female's femininity also indicated those attributes would increase the status of a female athlete. Further inspection of the tables for males reflects the high consistency between those traits that increase

a male's masculinity and those that increase a male's status as athlete. These results would seem to indicate a perception that masculine traits are sports-appropriate and appropriate for the athlete, regardless of whether that athlete is male or female. These percentages seem to reflect previous research and literature that alludes to a societal belief that sports are perceived more as a male than a female activity (Richardson, et al., 1985.) However, because these same traits increase a female's status as athlete, results support the belief that these traits are not considered inappropriate for the female when they are displayed in an arena that requires such attributes.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purposes of the present study were to ascertain if the status of professional sports and professional athletes increases as male participation increases; if the perceived status of 'athlete' for both males and females increases if they participate in sports that contain more of the generally agreed upon 'male' attributes; and if gender differences are related to the status indicators. This chapter presents a summary of the study's procedures, findings, conclusions, and recommendations for future research.

#### Summary of Procedures

The participants were 68 graduate and undergraduate students, from the disciplines of Kinesiology, Psychology, and Sociology. A questionnaire was administered to determine respondents perceptions of various status attributes related to athletes and sports. Specifically, the questionnaire was used to obtain demographic information and belief about the attributes that help determine a status of a professional sport, increase or decrease masculinity/femininity, and increase or decrease status as athlete. Seventy-five students volunteered to complete the

questionnaire, although 7 questionnaires contained unusable data. One student invented, and subsequently answered, questions other than those that were on the questionnaire. One student wrote that all sports had the same status because it was not fair for someone other than the athletes to determine the status of a sport. Another student added, then rated, a few additional sports. Other students did not provide complete answers to the one or two questions they chose to answer. Therefore, responses to only 68 questionnaires could be analyzed for this study. The instrument used to assess status was entitled “Status Determinants for Professional Sports and Professional Athletes.”

### Summary of Findings

A one-way ANOVA (gender) and a 2 x 12 ANOVA (gender x sport) were used to analyze perceived status ratings of sports for each of 12 different sports. Alpha was established at the .01 level. The data analysis yielded the following findings:

1. The hypothesis that overall rating or status of sports will vary in direct relation to their perceived ‘male’ and ‘female’ attributes, with more male attributes present in higher rated sports was not supported. Male attributes, alone, do not determine the status of a sport.

Chi square analyses were employed for status of sport and gender participation, perceived masculinity/femininity of the athlete, and status of athlete related to gender attributes of sports.

2. The hypothesis that status of all sports will vary in direct relation to the number of males participating, with an increase in male participation related to an increase in perceived status of the sport was not clearly supported because an increase in female participation also increased the perceived status of a sport. Post-hoc analysis also indicated that status is related to the degree of overall participation rather than an increase in exclusively male participation.

3. The hypotheses that participation in sports will increase a male's masculinity but participation in sports will decrease or not change a female's femininity was not supported, although results indicated that participation in most sport increases a males masculinity. However, participation in only certain types of sports that have attributes such as physical contact, power, or strength in throwing or hitting skills will decrease a female's femininity. For both sexes participation in activities traditionally associated with the opposite sex either decreased or did not change one's masculinity/femininity. This seems to indicate that increase or decrease in masculinity/femininity is related to whether an attribute is perceived to be gender-appropriate.

4. The hypotheses that the perceived status of male and female as 'athlete' will increase in direct relation to the number of perceived 'male' attributes, with status as 'athlete' increasing in those sport perceived as having attributes generally associated more with males than with females was not statistically supported. However, when data were compressed and percentages examined, results indicate that status of both male and female athletes increases with participation in a sport that contains those attributes generally associated with males.

### Conclusions

Males and females are similar in their perceptions of the status of 12 selected sports and the status of 'athlete' based on increased participation rates of males or females in sports that contain generally agreed upon 'male' attributes. Thus, gender stereotyping in sports is limited.

These conclusions should be interpreted with an awareness that validity might have been compromised because only one subjectively scored questionnaire was used to measure status, and only gender-associated elements were used to help determine status. With these cautions in mind, several recommendations are made for further research.

### Recommendations for Further Research

Admittedly, this study provided only preliminary information about what constitutes status of a sport and factors that help determine the status of an athlete.

Therefore, the following recommendations for further research are provided:

1. Explore the effects of other factors that may influence the status of a sport or athlete, such as remuneration, publicity, travel and non-monetary, material compensation.

2. Conduct replication studies that compare the responses of athletes with responses of non-athletes.

3. Conduct studies on the effect on status of athletes who participate only in those sports considered gender-appropriate.

**APPENDIX A**  
**INFORMED CONSENT FORM**

**STATUS DETERMINANTS FOR PROFESSIONAL SPORTS  
AND PROFESSIONAL ATHLETES**

University of North Texas  
Toulouse School of Graduate Studies

**Consent to Participate in a Research Study**

You have been asked to participate in a research study which will examine the importance of certain attributes in determining status of professional sports and professional athletes. This study consists of your completing the 'Status Determinants for Professional Sports and Professional Athletes' questionnaire, on a single occasion. The written survey consists of six personal demographic questions, and six questions about the status of sports and athletes. For some questions, you place a mark next to the item that indicates your choice. For some questions, you provide a written response.

I hereby consent to participate in Ms. Fern Kaye's study of "Status Determinants for Professional Sports and Professional Athletes". I have been assured there are no 'right' or 'wrong' answers, and no answer is better or worse than any other. I have been informed the information provided by me to the experimenter is confidential, and I will in no way be referred to by name in any subsequent publications or presentations of the research. Although there are no risks involved in participating in this research study, I understand I am free to withdraw my consent to participate at any stage of this study and my grades or academic status will in no way be affected.

If I have any question or problem that arises in connection with my participation in this study, I should contact Ms. Fern Kaye, the principal investigator, at (972) 835-8061.

I, \_\_\_\_\_, have read the above and have decided to participate in this study as described above. My signature also indicates I understand the content of this consent form. A copy of this form will be provided to me.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature of Participant

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
Fern V. Kaye  
*Principal Investigator*

\_\_\_\_\_  
Peggy A. Richardson, Ph.D.  
*Regents Professor of Kinesiology  
Department of Kinesiology, Health Promotion  
& Recreation*

**APPENDIX B**  
**STATUS DETERMINANTS FOR PROFESSIONAL SPORTS**  
**AND PROFESSIONAL ATHLETES**  
**QUESTIONNAIRE**

## STATUS DETERMINANTS FOR PROFESSIONAL SPORTS AND PROFESSIONAL ATHLETES

### QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire contains a total of 12 questions. Six questions are about yourself; the other questions relate to status and professional sports and professional athletes. There are no 'right' or 'wrong' answers, so responses should be based on your opinion or perception of a situation as it exists -- not what you think it should be, or wish it would be.

For the purposes of this questionnaire,

- the term 'status' refers to *importance in United States society*, i.e., how important is a certain sport; how important is it that athletes possess certain qualities;
- the term 'masculinity' refers to *qualities attributed and expected by society of the male*; and
- the term 'femininity' refers to *qualities attributed and expected by society of the female*.

#### DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Please provide the following information about yourself.

1. Age: \_\_\_\_\_
2. Race/Ethnic Origin (circle one): Asian/Pacific Islander    Hispanic    Black (non-Hispanic)  
White (non-Hispanic)    Non-resident Alien (International)    Other
3. Sex (circle one): Male    Female
4. Do you currently participate as an athlete in organized sports (circle one): Yes    No  
 a. if you answered yes, how many times a week do you participate? \_\_\_\_\_  
 b. if you answered yes,  
 in what type of sport do you participate: (circle all that apply) Team    Individual
5. Do you anticipate a career in sports? (circle one): Yes    No
6. What is your major? \_\_\_\_\_

#### THE SPORT

Instructions for question 7.

Rate, on a scale of 1 - 7, the following professional sports according to their status. Use the scale below as a reference. You may think some sports have equal status, so not all values have to be used.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
no status			moderate status			most status

7. Rate the following professional sports, according to your opinion of their status:
 

a. basketball	_____	g. tennis	_____
b. softball	_____	h. gymnastics	_____
c. soccer	_____	i. drag car racing	_____
d. figure skating	_____	j. marathon running	_____
e. beach volleyball	_____	k. baseball	_____
f. golf	_____	l. martial arts	_____



Instructions for questions 10 and 11.

Mark an "X" on the line under the column that indicates your response. **Mark only one column for each item listed.**

#### MASCULINITY of MALES

10. When a **male** participates in a professional sport that involves the following, does his **masculinity** *increase, decrease, or not change?*

	Increase	Decrease	Not Change
a. physical contact	_____	_____	_____
b. primarily/exclusively male participants	_____	_____	_____
c. physical endurance	_____	_____	_____
d. grace or elegance	_____	_____	_____
e. hard or strenuous running or jumping	_____	_____	_____
f. power or strength in throwing or hitting	_____	_____	_____
g. primarily/exclusively female participants	_____	_____	_____
h. team-sport	_____	_____	_____
i. agility	_____	_____	_____
j. outcome based on objective scores	_____	_____	_____
k. attractive physical appearance	_____	_____	_____
l. individual sport	_____	_____	_____
m. no physical contact	_____	_____	_____
n. outcome based on subjective scores	_____	_____	_____

#### FEMININITY of FEMALES

11. When a **female** participates in a professional sport that involves the following, does her **femininity** *increase, decrease, or not change?*

	Increase	Decrease	Not Change
a. physical contact	_____	_____	_____
b. primarily/exclusively male participants	_____	_____	_____
c. physical endurance	_____	_____	_____
d. grace or elegance	_____	_____	_____
e. hard or strenuous running or jumping	_____	_____	_____
f. power or strength in throwing or hitting	_____	_____	_____
g. primarily/exclusively female participants	_____	_____	_____
h. team-sport	_____	_____	_____
i. agility	_____	_____	_____
j. outcome based on objective scores	_____	_____	_____
k. attractive physical appearance	_____	_____	_____
l. individual sport	_____	_____	_____
m. no physical contact	_____	_____	_____
n. outcome based on subjective scores	_____	_____	_____



APPENDIX C  
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE

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**Table 1. Results of 2 x 12 ANOVA on status of each of 12 sports**

**BASKETBALL**

Source	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	0.0565	1	0.0565	0.0013	7.04 *
Within Groups	27611.38	66	418.3542		

**SOFTBALL**

Source	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	0.4726	1	0.4726	0.0063	7.04 *
Within Groups	4923.292	66	74.5953		

**SOCCER**

Source	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	5.0243	1	5.0243	0.0311	7.04 *
Within Groups	10644.21	66	161.2759		

**FIGURE SKATING**

Source	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	8.9178	1	8.9178	0.0638	7.04 *
Within Groups	9214.553	66	139.6144		

**BEACH VOLLEYBALL**

Source	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	1.5705	1	1.5705	0.0225	7.04 *
Within Groups	4596.488	66	69.6437		

**GOLF**

Source	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	0.7885	1	0.7885	0.0037	7.04 *
Within Groups	13874.27	66	210.2162		

**TENNIS**

Source	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	5.7898	1	5.7898	0.0332	7.04 *
Within Groups	11478.33	66	173.9141		

**GYMNASTICS**

Source	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	18.6785	1	18.6785	0.1305	7.04 *
Within Groups	9442.071	66	143.0617		

**DRAG CAR RACING**

Source	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	6.3003	1	6.3003	0.0906	7.04 *
Within Groups	4585.979	66	69.4845		

**MARATHON RUNNING**

Source	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	14.2162	1	14.2162	0.1689	7.04 *
Within Groups	5555.004	66	84.1667		

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**BASEBALL**


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Source	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	0.3282	1	0.3282	0.0007	7.04 *
Within Groups	29100.73	66	440.9202		

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**MARTIAL ARTS**


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Source	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	3.0407	1	3.0407	0.0692	7.04 *
Within Groups	2896.65	66	43.8886		

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\*  $p < .01$

**APPENDIX D**  
**RATING AND RANKING OF SPORTS TABLES**

Table 2. Ranking of sports by assigned status and gender attributes \*

Sport	Overall (collapsed groups)			Males			Females		
	Mean Rating	Ranking	SD	Mean Rating	Ranking	SD	Mean Rating	Ranking	SD
Basketball (m)	5.9706	1	1.2872	5.8709	1	1.2952	6.0540	1	1.1042
Baseball (m)	5.8824	2	1.4406	5.8064	2	1.6004	5.9459	2	1.3112
Golf (m)	5.1176	3	1.3218	5.0000	3	1.8439	5.2162	3	1.2722
Tennis (n)	4.7059	4	1.2224	4.3870	4	1.2022	4.9729	4	1.1899
Soccer (m)	4.2647	5	1.1411	3.9677	5	1.2512	4.5135	6	0.9894
Gymnastics (f)	4.2500	6	1.3862	3.6774	6	1.3100	4.7297	5	1.2834
Figure Skating (f)	3.9118	7	1.4933	3.5161	8	1.3928	4.2432	7	1.5578
Drag Car Racing (m)	3.3971	8	1.7375	3.0645	9	1.6520	3.6756	9	1.7803
Beach Volleyball (n)	3.3824	9	1.4663	3.5483	7	1.5195	3.2432	10	1.4221
Marathon Running (m)	3.3382	10	1.3999	2.8387	11	1.3686	3.7567	8	1.3000
Softball (n)	3.0588	11	1.2202	2.9677	10	1.1685	3.1351	11	1.2728
Martial Arts (m)	2.7794	12	1.5535	2.5483	12	1.5882	2.9729	12	1.5181

Ratings range from 0 (no status) through 7 (highest status)

Rankings range from 12 (lowest status) through 1 (highest status)

\* perceived gender attributes, where m=masculine, f=feminine, n=gender neutral

**APPENDIX E**

**EFFECT OF ATTRIBUTES ON STATUS OF SPORT  
TABLES**

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**Table 3. Effect on status of sport if more males participate**

Sport	Change to Status (expressed as percentage of total responses)		
	Increase	Decrease	Not Change
drag car racing	28	4	68
tennis	25	2	73
figure skating	31	5	64
basketball	30	3	67
marathon running	21	0	79
gymnastics	33	7	60
golf	42	0	58
beach volleyball	38	6	56
softball	36	11	53
soccer	49	1	50
baseball	30	2	68
martial arts	26	2	72

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**Table 4. Effect on status of sport if more females participate**

Sport	Change to Status (expressed as percentage of total responses)		
	Increase	Decrease	Not Change
drag car racing	43	11	46
tennis	36	0	64
figure skating	25	0	75
basketball	66	6	28
marathon running	35	0	65
gymnastics	26	0	74
golf	50	9	41
beach volleyball	46	2	52
softball	43	3	54
soccer	63	5	32
baseball	33	25	42
martial arts	44	2	54

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**Table 5. Post-Hoc Chi-square analysis of effect of sport if more males and if more females participate**

Sport	Chi <sup>2</sup>	<i>p</i> *
drag car racing	5.3150	9.21
tennis	1.3833	9.21
figure skating	1.8079	9.21
basketball	17.8297	9.21
marathon running	2.4754	9.21
gymnastics	3.1035	9.21
golf	4.2318	9.21
beach volleyball	1.6153	9.21
softball	2.5976	9.21
soccer	4.3394	9.21
baseball	13.0536	9.21
martial arts	3.6721	9.21

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\**p*<.01

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**Table 6. Effect of Sports Attributes on Masculinity of Males**

Attribute of the Sport	Effect on Masculinity of Males (expressed as percentage of total responses)		
	Increase	Decrease	Not Change
a. physical contact	90	0	10
b. primarily/exclusively male participants	72	2	26
c. physical endurance	85	2	13
d. grace or elegance	10	59	31
e. hard or strenuous running or jumping	75	5	20
f. power or strength in throwing or hitting	81	2	17
g. primarily/exclusively female participants	9	65	26
h. team-sport	48	9	43
i. agility	64	3	33
j. outcome based on objective scores	48	10	42
k. attractive physical appearance	35	16	48
l. individual sport	49	5	46
m. no physical contact	10	33	57
n. outcome based on subjective scores	28	18	54

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**Table 7. Effect of Sport Attributes on Femininity of Females**

Attribute of the Sport	Effect on Femininity of Females (expressed as percentage of total responses)		
	increase	decrease	not change
a. physical contact	13	62	25
b. primarily/exclusively male participants	14	62	24
c. physical endurance	24	24	52
d. grace or elegance	80	5	15
e. hard or strenuous running or jumping	19	39	43
f. power or strength in throwing or hitting	18	58	24
g. primarily/exclusively female participants	47	7	45
h. team-sport	25	11	64
i. agility	31	17	52
j. outcome based on objective scores	33	13	54
k. attractive physical appearance	75	5	20
l. individual sport	32	9	59
m. no physical contact	32	9	59
n. outcome based on subjective scores	32	4	64

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**Table 8. Effect of Sports Attributes on Male Status as Athlete**

Attribute of the Sport	Effect on Status as Athlete (expressed as percentage)		
	Increase	Decrease	Not Change
a. physical contact	88	0	12
b. primarily/exclusively male participants	74	2	24
c. physical endurance	75	4	21
d. grace or elegance	25	47	28
e. hard or strenuous running or jumping	85	2	13
f. power or strength in throwing or hitting	92	0	8
g. primarily/exclusively female participants	10	73	17
h. team-sport	43	4	53
i. agility	67	0	33
j. outcome based on objective scores	48	9	43
k. attractive physical appearance	50	20	30
l. individual sport	53	2	45
m. no physical contact	12	47	41
n. outcome based on subjective scores	30	12	58

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Table 9. Effect of Sports Attributes on Female Status as Athlete

Attribute of the Sport	Effect on Status as Athlete (expressed as percentage)		
	Increase	Decrease	Not Change
a. physical contact	45	39	16
b. primarily/exclusively male participants	32	49	19
c. physical endurance	66	11	23
d. grace or elegance	72	7	21
e. hard or strenuous running or jumping	63	17	20
f. power or strength in throwing or hitting	58	26	16
g. primarily/exclusively female participants	56	13	31
h. team-sport	36	11	53
i. agility	51	11	38
j. outcome based on objective scores	43	7	50
k. attractive physical appearance	67	11	22
l. individual sport	50	5	45
m. no physical contact	40	11	49
n. outcome based on subjective scores	39	4	57

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