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Sport Participation, Gender Schema, Athletic Identity, and Internalized Homophobia in Lesbian Women

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Abstract

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MA, University San Francisco, 1992

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Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

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Abstract

Lesbian athletes face criticism and discrimination from coaches, fans, and society. Researchers have suggested that female sport is stigmatized due to perceived masculinity and homosexuality, causing athletes to focus on heterosexual and feminine behaviors. The dichotomy of athleticism and femininity in sports has been extensively studied in the heterosexual population. However, the impact of the overt discrimination and pressure to conform to societal standards of femininity and heterosexuality has not been studied in lesbians. Therefore, the purpose of this quantitative study utilizing survey design was to examine the relationship among sport participation, gender schema, athletic identity, and internalized homophobia. A network-based snowball sampling method was used to survey 226 lesbians, 18 years of age and older. Surveys issued via Internet included the Bem Sex Role Inventory, Athletic Identity Measurement Scale, and the Lesbian Internalized Homophobia Scale. Data were analyzed using Chi-square, *t* tests, and Pearson Correlation. No significant difference in sports participation was found in lesbians with different gender schemas. There was a significant difference in the athletic identity of participants who were more or less active in sports, but there was no significant difference in internalized homophobia for participants who were more or less active in sports. There was no relationship between athletic identity and internalized homophobia. This study contributes to the existing literature on women and sport. It promotes social change by further investigating the influence of gender schema, athletic identity, and internalized homophobia related to behaviors and attitudes in sports.

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Dedication

Dedicated to all female athletes.

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I would like to thank my family, friends and colleagues for their support, encouragement and help. I could not have done this without you. To my partner, Jayme, I love you. Thank you for enduring years of emotional and financial stress, and always standing beside me. To my sons, Isaiah and Cody, Mommy loves you and am so proud of you. May you grow up sharing my passion and love for sport.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Gender schemas are mental models that determine the gender role expectations of individuals based on biological sex (Lemons & Parzinger, 2004). Gender schemas have been extensively studied, particularly with regard to the influence on behavior and attitudes . Once individuals adopt an identity based on gender (masculine or feminine), they often display gender-stereotyped behaviors dictated by their attitudes and beliefs about their gender (Agosto, 2004). Gender schema theory posits that a gender-schematic individual will view the world in terms of traditional masculine and feminine attitudes and will exhibit behaviors that correspond to their sex (Campbell, Shirley, & Candy, 2004). The degree to which an individual develops a masculine or feminine identity depends on how much the individual has organized and incorporated social and cultural ideas of masculinity and femininity from childhood (Bem, 1981b). Once an identity is formed, a gender schematic child will display sex-typed behaviors or gender stereotypes, such as girls playing with dolls and boys playing sports. Gender stereotyped beliefs have been found to influence play (Liben & Bigler, 2002), memory (Cherney, 2005), preferences (Serbin et al., 2001), ability in school (Gilbert, 1994), career choices (Lemons & Parzinger, 2007; Liben, Bigler, & Krogh, 2002), personality and attitudes (Katsurada & Sugihara, 2002), participation in sports and sport choice (Schmalz & Kerstetter, 2006).

Social perceptions of athletics and athletes are influenced by gender stereotypes. Researchers have indicated a disparity between sport participation between men and

women, and differences between the types of sports in which men and women choose to participate (Harrison & Lynch, 2005). Generally, women choose sports stereotypically defined as feminine, such as gymnastics and ballet. When the sport is considered masculine, female participation diverges from what are considered conventional social behaviors and gender roles (Alley & Hicks, 2005). This gender inconsistent behavior can create dissonance in the girl or woman (Alley & Hicks, 2005; Dwyer et al., 2006; Knight & Giuliano, 2001).

Individuals displaying what may be considered gender inconsistent behaviors are often confronted by social rejection. Lantz and Schroeder (1999) stated that men are encouraged to participate in competitive sports but women are discouraged from participating in the same sports due to the fear of masculinization. Researchers have suggested that women who participate in sports are viewed as masculine (Hovden & Pfister, 2006), and are more likely to take on a masculine identity (Lantz & Schroeder, 1999). Schmalz and Kerstetter (2000) suggested that the adoption of an athletic identity is often synonymous with a masculine identity, which may limit women in viewing themselves as athletic. The fear of masculinization may place women in the position of having to choose to either be feminine or athletic. Part of the fear of being seen as masculine is also the fear of being labeled a lesbian which has created negative attitudes toward the female athlete (Schmalz & Kerstetter, 2000).

Lesbian women participating in sports may experience alienation, and added pressure and fear, which may cause them to hide their identity or forgo athletics.

According to Lantz and Schroeder (1999), women are conditioned to believe that the ideal woman is feminine and athletes are masculine. Another common social construct is that women who exhibit traits stereotypically considered masculine are lesbians (Schmalz & Kerstetter, 2006). Lesbian women may feel that they should not only reject a masculine identity (Alley & Hicks, 2005), but also reject their sexual orientation. The rejection of their orientation may foster internalized homophobia.

According to Szymanski, Chung, and Balsam (2001), internalized homophobia is defined as the internalization of negative attitudes and beliefs by a gay person about his or her sexual orientation. Additionally, it is likely that lesbians and gay men experience, to some extent, varying degrees of internalized homophobia throughout their lifetime. Along with the internalization of negative attitudes, lesbians and gay men may also believe that they will experience discrimination, defined as stigma consciousness (Pinel, 1999, 2004). Stigma consciousness is an individual's awareness of stereotyped status.

Stigma consciousness and internalized homophobia can have serious ramifications. Much like minority stress (Meyer, 1995), which is a product of the social prejudice and discrimination minorities experience, internalized homophobia can lead to negative emotional and psychological outcomes (Lewis, Derlega, Clarke, & Kuang, 2006). Internalized homophobia can lead to stress, low self-esteem, and depression (Fingerhut, Peplau, & Ghavami, 2005). Researchers have also found negative outcomes of internalized homophobia, such as feelings of loneliness and distrust, eating disorders, poor self-image, increased display of defense mechanisms, poor interpersonal relating,

substance abuse problems, and suicide (Currie, Cunningham, & Findlay, 2004). The seriousness of these negative outcomes has in part lead to the study and research of internalized homophobia. Many of these emotional and social impairments (loneliness and distrust, substance problems, and poor interpersonal relating) can have an impact on women's decisions to participate in socially inconsistent behaviors, such as athletics. Thus, lesbians, like heterosexual women, may not want to develop an athletic identity.

Background of the Problem

Women's attitudes and behaviors regarding athletics are often influenced by the desire to conform to societal ideals. Researchers have indicated that the reluctance to compete in sports is associated with gender stereotypes, adherence to gender roles, and gender stigmas (Schmalz & Kerstetter, 2006). Additionally, women may not participate in athletics because they fear masculinization and being labeled a lesbian. Lewis et al. (2006) found that lesbian women may exhibit stigma consciousness, which can cause an individual to inhibit behaviors due to the belief that they will experience prejudice and discrimination. The fear of rejection and stigma may cause lesbians to forgo athletics or believe they must hide their sexual orientation.

Individuals who behave out of the norm may feel stigmatized. For instance, boys are expected to participate in rough sports, such as wrestling and football, not sports deemed delicate or feminine, such as ballet or gymnastics (Schmalz & Kerstetter, 2006). Conversely, girls are expected to conform to the same socially appropriate behaviors. Those individuals who violate social norms are susceptible to stigmatization. The fear of

stigmatization is likely one of the reasons for the disparity of participation between men and women .

Statement of the Problem

Gender schemas and their influence on attitudes and behavior have been extensively researched. In addition, the relationship between gender schema and athletic identity has also been studied, including sport participation. Specifically, researchers have found that women participate in sports less frequently than men, and may feel social pressure to conform to gender-consistent behaviors (Anderson, Cheslock, & Ehrenberg, 2006; Shakib & Dunbar, 2004). However, whether the same trends can be found in the specific population of lesbian women has not been studied. Because women often do not participate in athletics for fear of being negatively labeled, lesbians may conform to social pressures of femininity and heterosexuality (Schmalz & Kerstetter, 2006).

The development of internalized homophobia and its influence on attitudes and behavior has also been extensively researched. However, the influence of internalized homophobia on sport participation has not been researched. This study attempts to fill the gap in literature involving gender schemas, athletic identity, and internalized homophobia related to lesbian women and participation in sports.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine how sport participation of lesbian women is influenced by gender schema, athletic identity, and internalized homophobia, and whether there is a relationship between internalized homophobia and

athletic identity. The intent of the study was to examine the difference in sport participation with lesbian women who are categorized as masculine, feminine, androgynous, or undifferentiated according to the BSRI (Bem, 1974). According to Bem (1974), androgynous individuals score high on both the masculinity and femininity scales, whereas undifferentiated individuals score low on both masculinity and femininity scales. The purpose was to determine if similar outcomes (masculine and androgynous individuals rated higher on sport participation) can be found in a population of lesbians as in previous studies of women who were not separated by sexual orientation (Lantz & Schroeder, 1999). Prior research did not specifically study lesbians. This study also examined the difference in the degree of sport participation of lesbians in relationship to athletic identity and internalized homophobia. Lastly, this study explored the relationship between internalized homophobia and athletic identity. Gender schema theory has been extensively researched with respect to attitudes, beliefs, and consistent and inconsistent gender-stereotyped behaviors. This study adds to the research involving the influence of gender schemas on sex-typed behaviors, specifically sports participation.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

This study attempted to answer the following research questions:

1. Is there a difference in sports participation in lesbians with different gender schemas (masculine, feminine, androgynous, or undifferentiated)?
2. Is there a difference in the athletic identity of lesbians who are more or less active in sports?

3. Is there a difference in the internalized homophobia experienced by lesbians who are more or less active in sports?
4. Is there a relationship between athletic identity and internalized homophobia?

Hypotheses

$H1_0$: There is no significant difference in the sports participation in lesbians with different gender schemas, as measured by the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI).

$H1_a$: There is a significant difference in the sports participation in lesbians with different gender schemas, as measured by the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI).

$H2_0$: There is no significant difference in athletic identity, as measured by the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS), of lesbians who are more or less active in sports.

$H2_a$: There is a significant difference in athletic identity, as measured by the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS), of lesbians who are more or less active in sports.

$H3_0$: There is no significant difference in internalized homophobia, as measured by the Lesbian Homophobia Scale (LIHS), in lesbians who are more or less active in sports.

$H3_a$: There is a significant difference in internalized homophobia, as measured by the Lesbian Internalized Homophobia Scale (LIHS), in lesbians who are more or less active in sports.

$H4_0$: There is no relationship between internalized homophobia, as measured by the Lesbian Internalized Homophobia Scale (LIHS) and athletic identity, as measured by the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS).

$H4_a$: There is a negative relationship between internalized homophobia, as measured by the Lesbian Internalized Homophobia Scale and athletic identity, as measured by the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS).APA level 3 heading. Text begins here.

Theoretical Constructs

Gender Schema Theory

According to gender-schema theory, "children actively search for cues" from their social world (Martin & Ruble, 2004, p. 67). These cues turn into schemas, which influence their behavior as gender-roles develop. Children conform to appropriate and consistent social behavior, which leads to the expectation and desire to behave like other girls. For instance, a girl who has two brothers who play on a youth football league may see her brothers go to practice every year, compete in a game every week for two months, and notice that only boys are on the team, while girls wear sparkle outfits, wave pom poms, and cheer for the boys. She may have witnessed this year after year. Thus, this little girl may develop the idea that boys play football and girls cheer. Conforming to social cues, she fantasizes about the time when she will become a cheerleader.

This example is in line with gender-schema theories which posit that "children actively construct gender on the basis of both the nature of the social environment and

how they think about the sexes" (Martin & Ruble, 2004, p. 67). Girls are encouraged to act feminine, whereas boys are encouraged to be tough and masculine. However, children do not always conform to gender-consistent behaviors. Individuals who behave outside the norm are often stigmatized (Harrison & Lynch, 2005; Kane, 1988; Knight & Giuliano, 2001; Schmalz & Kerstetter, 2006). Athleticism is an example of one such gender inconsistent behavior.

In this study, gender schema is identified using the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI), which classifies individuals as "masculine, feminine, androgynous or undifferentiated" (Bem, 1974, p. 156). According to Bem (1981), characteristics classified as masculine are traits that have traditionally been considered male attributes, such as competitive, strong, and dominant. Characteristics that are classified as feminine are traits that have traditionally been considered female attributes, such as sympathetic, nurturing, and passive. Individuals who score high on both masculine and feminine scales are considered androgynous, whereas undifferentiated refers to those who score low on both masculine and feminine scales.

Athletic Identity Theory

Groff and Zabriskie (2006) characterized an athletic identity as the degree that one identifies with an athletic role and looks for confirmation from others regarding that role. Furthermore, athletic identity theory argues that the more time spent participating in sports, the more the individual will see herself in the role of an athlete and the sport will increase in importance. Researchers have related a strong athletic identity to better health

and fitness, better athletic performance, better commitment to the sport, more commitment to exercise and continuing physical activities, and increased social networks (Daniels et al., 2005; Groff & Zabriskie, 2006).

The athletic identity measurement scale (AIMS) has been consistently used to measure athletic identity of elite athletes, recreational athletes, and nonathletes. The measurement is psychometrically sound, measuring three constructs: social identity, the extent to which one takes on an athletic role; exclusivity, or the extent that one identifies solely with the role of an athlete; and, negative affectivity, which refers to the extent one generalizes poor sport performance to their overall sense of self.

Significance

The implications for positive social change include providing knowledge useful for researchers, psychologists, educational institutions, and all those involved with athletics (teachers, coaches, recruiters, athletes, etc.), as well as lesbians and women in general. Diminishing negative social attitudes and stigmatization of women participating in sports can occur after society understands the influence of stereotypical attitudes and societal pressure that women experience when they behave out of the norm. Researchers have an understanding of the obstacles that women face regarding sport participation (Knight & Giuliano, 2001; Krane, 2001; Lantz & Schroeder, 1999; Martin & Martin, 1995; Schmalz & Kerstetter, 2006), but this study furthers that understanding by focusing on lesbians, an overlooked population of women in this field of research. This study explores whether lesbian women face the same stigma attached to female athletes of

having to choose a feminine identity or an athletic identity (Lantz & Schroeder). Further, I investigate if the stigmatization associated with sports participation leads to higher levels of internalized homophobia.

Definition of Terms

Androgynous: Individuals who possess both masculine and feminine characteristics in equal measures (Lefkowitz & Zeldow, 2006).

Gender-schemas: mental models that determine the gender role expectations of individuals based on biological sex (Lemons & Parzinger, 2007).

Gender-stereotyping: attitudes and beliefs about male and female behaviors that are traditionally accepted as masculine and feminine (Bem, 1981b).

Heterosexism: much like sexism, in that it "denies, ignores, and disparages non heterosexual forms of emotional and sexual expression" (Weber, 2008, p. 32).

Homonegativity: negative attitudes towards homosexuality (Greene & Herek, 1994).

Homophobia: fear or dread of being in contact with homosexuals (Greene & Herek, 1994).

Internalized homophobia: internalization of societal antigay attitudes in lesbians and gay men (Meyer, 2003).

Schema: network of associations that organizes and guides an individual's perception (Bem, 1981b).

Sex-typing: The process by which a society transmutes male and female into masculine and feminine (Bem, 1981b).nd feminine (Bem, 1981b).

Sex-typed individuals: males who score high on masculine scales and low on feminine scales and women who score high on feminine scales and low on masculine scales (Martin & Martin, 1995).

Social Constraints: difficulty talking to others about sexual orientation (Lewis et al., 2006).

Stigma consciousness: an individual's expectation that he or she will experience prejudice and discrimination (Pinel, 1999).

Assumptions and Limitations

Assumptions

The Bem sex role inventory, the athletic identity measurement scale, and the lesbian internalized homophobia scale are psychometrically-sound assessment tools for identifying gender schema, athletic identity and lesbian internalized homophobia, respectively. This study also assumes that individuals are not solely masculine or feminine, but rather fall somewhere on a continuum between the two (Bem, 1981b). Other assumptions were that participants would answer all questions truthfully and their willingness to volunteer for the study would not bias the results.

Limitations

Internet research is not without criticism, specifically with methodological issues. Mathy, Kerr, and Haydin (2003) stated that the most troubling component of Internet

research is the ability to achieve a representative sample. Without a representative sample, findings cannot be generalized. Additionally, researchers must be cautious when interpreting the results of Internet research due to the unknown variables concerning the study's participants. Researchers must assume and have faith that participants are who they say they are, and that they have the ability to understand the instructions and questions of the study without further explanation from the researcher.

Similar to traditional studies, this study design had limitations inherent to self-reporting. Some individuals may not have been able to accurately self-evaluate or they may have withheld certain aspects of their behavior, attitudes, and personal information. Additionally, respondents may have answered questions to make them look better or answered the way in which they believed the researcher wanted them to answer. For this specific study, respondents may have slanted their responses toward sports participation or an athletic identity.

Another limitation of this study is the way in which the variables were measured. Three surveys were used along with a demographic questionnaire. With the surveys, respondents were required to make choices between levels of agreement or disagreement from a 7-point Likert type scale. With the demographic questionnaire, respondents were required to choose answers which best described them, as suggested by the researcher. Important information may have been lost due to the nature of forced choices

Summary

There is an abundance of research that examines how gender schemas influence attitudes, behaviors, and decisions. Highly gender-schematic individuals are more likely to hold attitudes that are gender consistent. Thus, their behaviors and decisions are in line with traditional gender roles. Research suggests that women who violate gender norms face prejudice and discrimination (Adams & Tuggle, 2004; Alley & Hicks, 2005; Knight & Giuliano, 2001). Because athletics are widely considered a masculine activity, women participating in sports may have to choose between a feminine identity and an athletic identity or find a way to bridge the two. Lesbians face the same dilemma, and may in fact, attempt to hide their sexual orientation for fear of being ostracized by fellow athletes, coaches, and fans.

Lesbian athletes face pressure to hide sexual orientation, particularly in college and professional sports. The prejudicial attitude against lesbians in sport has been overtly displayed in the media and by athleteshj and coaches (Adams & Tuggle, 2004; Billings, Angelini, & Eastman, 2005). Though discrimination is illegal and if asked, college institutions and professional sporting associations claim that discrimination is not tolerated, there have been multiple examples of heterosexism in both (Newhall & Buzuvis, 2008; Ravel & Rail, 2007). Lesbians have been covertly and overtly pressured to hide or play down that they are gay (Krane, 2001; Newhall & Buzuvis, 2008). This pressure along with prejudicial attitudes and behaviors by others isolate the lesbian

athlete, and likely reinforces internalized homophobia and may influence lesbians to not participate in sports.

Chapter 2 reviews the literature related to gender schema theory, athletic identity and internalized homophobia. The chapter begins with an in depth discussion of gender schema theory beginning with the development of an androgynous identity. Athletic identity is then presented covering research that includes how gender schemas relate to athletic identity. The chapter ends with a review of the existing literature regarding internalized homophobia. Chapter 3 addresses the design and data analysis of the study, including description of quantitative paradigm, the role of the researcher in data collection, procedures for acquiring participants and ethical considerations, instrumentations used, and reliability and validity of the instruments.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Chapter 2 provides a review of the extant literature on the relevant constructs of this study, and establishes the gap in the literature involving sport participation related to gender schema, athletic identity and internalized homophobia. Though research has examined gender schema and athletic identity in women participating in sports, research neglected to study the specific population of women who were lesbian. The social stigma placed on women in sport, particularly the stigma of masculinity and homosexuality has influenced women's attitudes and behaviors (Knight & Giuliano, 2001). The pressure for women to appear feminine and heterosexual may impact lesbians participating in sport. This study examined the literature gap involving lesbian women. Further, there is also a gap in literature regarding the impact of internalized homophobia on sport participation, and athletic identity in lesbians as internalized homophobia could negatively impact lesbians who participate in athletics due to the pressure for women to appear feminine and heterosexual. The final gap that this study examined was the relationship between internalized homophobia and athletic identity.

The review begins with an explanation of Bem's (1981) gender schema theory, which is the theoretical foundation of this study. The discussion of gender schema theory includes history, androgyny, schemas, gender roles, sex-typed behaviors, gender schematic cognitive processing, and gender expertise. Gender schema theory was the first theory of gender to view gender as a continuous construct rather than a dichotomous construct; Bem introduced the concept of androgyny (having both masculine and

feminine characteristics). The concept of androgyny was explained and discussed. The development of schemas was introduced, including how individuals develop a gender schema and sex-typed behaviors. The role of gender schematic processing and gender expertise was discussed and evaluated, including how gender roles are developed and how gender schema influences behaviors such as sport participation. Research suggests that gender schema influences an individual's behavior choices; specifically, researchers have found that women who participate in athletics have more of a masculine identity (Lantz & Schroeder, 1999). As mentioned above, research lacks exploration of the lesbian population to determine if this is true of this specific population of women.

Following the review of the concepts involving gender schema theory is a discussion of the importance of Title IX, the education amendment of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, on female sports in education. Title IX may have been the most significant influence on increasing sport participation of females. The challenge of enforcing the amendment was also reviewed.

After the outline of Title IX, which includes a discussion of the resistance of educational institutions complying with the educational amendment, the influence that media has on shaping public opinion and fostering stigmatization of women participating in sports was reviewed and evaluated. The literature review continued with a discussion of how one forms an athletic identity, which lead to a continued examination of how social disapproval impacts the identity of women participating in sports including stigmatization, heterosexism, homophobia, and homonegativity. Social disapproval often

leads to a role-conflict for female athletes (Alley & Hicks, 2005). This role-conflict is discussed along with the double-bind that lesbians encounter.

Social disapproval, stigmatization, and overt and covert displays of homophobia and heterosexism in sport may influence the degree to which one develops internalized homophobia and may impact the degree to which one develops an athletic identity. Because of the pressure to conform to societal standards of femininity and a heterosexual orientation, lesbians participating in sports have additional obstacles and stress. Thus, this study examines the constructs of internalized homophobia, including how one develops internalized homophobia and factors that lesson the degree to which one develops internalized homophobia. As part of understanding the development of internalized homophobia, lesbian identity development is highlighted. Specifically, the Cass model, the McCarn and Fassinger model**,** and the dual identity framework will be explained**.** The discussion of internalized homophobia is rounded out with a review of the negative outcomes of internalized homophobia, including self-esteem, depression, and substance use. Lastly, the methodology involving this study is examined. The literature review was conducted using Academic Search Premier, PsycINFO, Sociofile, PscyARTICLES, Questia.com, and reference lists of particular articles.

Gender Schema Theory

History

How individuals develop a gendered identity has interested human behavior researchers for decades, as evident by the exhaustive amount of gender research since the

1950's. Early works consisted mainly of socialization theories, which limited the way in which gender development was perceived (Martin, 2002). Researchers eventually expanded their study of gender development to include and integrate social influences, biology, and cognition (Huston, 1985). Early works included Kohlberg's cognitive development approach (1966), Mischel's social learning approach (1966), and Bandura's social learning theory (1977). As gender research evolved, biological approaches were included in gender theory, theorists synthesized cognitive and social theories, and gender theory became more comprehensive and integrated (Martin, 2002). In particular, socialization theories incorporated cognition to their approach; for instance, Bandura developed social cognitive theory (Bussey & Bandura, 1999), which was more of a comprehensive approach to gender than his original social learning theory. Whether the theory was social learning, cognitive or a combination of the two, all theories viewed gender as a dichotomous construct, gender was considered either masculine or feminine. Individuals were not seen as possessing both masculine and feminine qualities.

Androgyny

Gender schema theory proposed a new way of conceptualizing gender development. Bem (1974) argued that some individuals could possess both masculine and feminine characteristics (androgyny), and were not always either masculine or feminine as sociologists previously asserted. Gender schema theory was developed out of Bem's work on androgynous behavior and the development of the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI). The BSRI classified individuals as masculine, feminine or androgynous (Bem,

1974). Prior to her work on androgyny, gender was viewed as a dichotomous construct. Bem (1979) claimed that one can possess both masculine (instrumental) and feminine (expressive) traits, and argued that individuals can be placed on a continuum from masculine to feminine rather than one or the other. The fact that many individuals develop a gender schema of either masculine or feminine is largely due to the way in which one codes and processes their beliefs and expectation of the sexes (Bem, 1981b).

Schemas

Gender schema theory is rooted in basic schema theory, which examines the importance of cognitive structures on developing schemas. Schemas are conceptual patterns in the mind. Specifically, Bem (1981) defined a schema as, "A cognitive structure, a network of associations that organizes and guides an individual's perceptions (p.2)." Schemas are developed from repeated exposure and experiences of similar stimuli or events (Lemons &, Parzinger, 2007). The process is active and selective as the individual imposes structure and meaning to incoming stimuli. The function of the schema is to assimilate the incoming stimuli into schema relevant terms, that is, either consistent or inconsistent with an individual's perceptions of the stimuli (Bem, 1981b). The processing of new information and the retrieval of stored information is directly influenced by one's schemas (Lemons & Parzinger, 2007).

For instance, boys and girls can develop a schema that women are responsible for domestic duties by repeated exposure to women in their home, relatives' homes and on television being responsible for cleaning the house, cooking meals, and childrearing. If

the boy or girl visits a friend, he or she would expect the mother to prepare dinner and clean the dishes based on their schema of women's responsibilities. If the child witnesses the father performing those duties, the boy or girl would process this new information with stored information that would be inconsistent with his or her schema. The schema therefore becomes a foundation upon which one builds (Bem, 1981b). In this case, the child may or may not adjust his or her schema that sometimes men cook and clean. If the child does not have any other exposure to men cooking dinner and cleaning the dishes, the schema likely will remain the same (Lemons & Parzinger, 2007).

In another scenario, rather than a child witnessing a friend's father cook dinner inside on the oven and then clean the dishes, the child only sees her friend's dad cooking hamburgers on the outside grill. The child then has repeated exposure to other situations where men are barbequing on an outside grill (television, movies, and family events), he or she will then develop a schema for barbequing, such as women cook on a stove inside and men are responsible for barbequing outside. The child organizes knowledge based on exposure and experience, which is the function of a schema (Bem, 1981b).

Gender Roles

Gender schema theory postulates that children develop gender roles based on information that is "processed through social interactions" that they deem as masculine or feminine (Grabill et al., 2006, p. 8). Girls behave consistent to their gender, displaying feminine behaviors and boys display masculine behaviors. Additionally, his or her interaction with gender selectivity will foster and encourage the same behaviors that they

are familiar with and have experience with. Gender selectivity refers to being constantly confronted with the display of gender specific behaviors and attitudes. For instance, boys may often hear that they are developing into a strong little boy; girls, however, rarely have those words spoken to them and are not encouraged to become strong little girls (Bem, 1981b). Boys, then, grow up believing that they are strong and participate in behaviors that are considered strong, such as sports.

Sex-Typed Behaviors

Both boys and girls are encouraged to behave appropriate to their gender. Bem (1979) pointed out that in most cultures children are taught by several different means that there is a distinction between males and females. Common sources that support the gender dichotomy include observing sex stereotyped roles between mothers and fathers, noticing that different pronouns are used when referring to men and women, and observing the sexual overtones between men and women and inferring that heterosexual relationships are the only type of romantic relationship. The child develops a gender role (schema) that is consistent with gender selectivity, which Bem (1979) refers to as sex typed behaviors. Sex typed individuals adhere to gender stereotypical behaviors and avoid behaviors that violate gender norms.

Challenging Sex-Typed Behavior

Research consistently finds that individuals exhibit sex typed behaviors and attitudes, which supported the gender dichotomy. Individuals were commonly conceptualized as masculine or feminine. Gender schema theory, however, allowed for

variations between masculinity and femininity rather than viewing individuals as one or the other (Agosto, 2005). The theory proposes that there is a continuous range between masculinity and femininity upon which people fall. Individuals can be highly or weakly gender-schematic (sex typed) or fall somewhere in between the continuum. According to Grabill et al (2006), "The degree to which an individual conforms to gender norms is associated with how much the individual incorporates gender schemas into his or her self-concepts" (p. 10). Those who accept behaviors consistent with their gender are considered gender conformists whereas those who reject sex-typed behaviors are gender nonconformists (Lemons & Parzinger, 2007). Generally, males adopt a masculine gender schema and females adopt a feminine gender schema. However, as previously stated, gender schema theory suggests that individuals lie on a continuum between the two, and can possess both masculine and feminine traits. Androgynous individuals are considered gender nonconformists as they have broader ideas of gender and are not persuaded to conform to social standards. They can display both masculine and feminine behaviors depending on the circumstance.

Social and cultural influences make it difficult for an individual to adopt an androgynous identity since it requires one to violate social norms. It is more common for one to develop sex typed behaviors. Gender schematic or sex typed behaviors begin to develop during infancy (Lemons & Parzinger, 2007; Serbin, Poulin-Dubois, Colburne, & Sen, 2001), and continue to be reinforced throughout thelifetime of an individual (Grabill et al.). Campbell et al. (2002) found a higher percentage of children adhering to gender-

stereotyped behaviors (23%) than in a similar study almost 20 years earlier (11%), revealing that time has not changed the development and adherence of gender-stereotypes.

Gender-Schematic Cognitive Processing

According to gender schema theory, gender stereotyped behaviors occur through gender-schematic cognitive processing (Bem, 1981b). Cognitive processing refers to the mental processes of perception, thought and memory, and includes the way in which individuals store and retrieve information. Individuals who have established gender-roles congruent with their sex, via gender-schematic cognitive processing, are thought to be gender schematic (Grabil et al., 2005). A gender schematic woman would display traditional gender stereotyped behaviors that promote femininity, such as wearing makeup, performing domestic duties including household responsibilities and child rearing, work as a nurse or school teacher (among other traditionally feminine occupations), and participate (if at all) in female domain sports, such as ballet or gymnastics. Bem's (1981) research on the differences between gender conformists and gender nonconformists, found that gender conformists use traditional gender schemas to process information, whereas gender nonconformists process information using nontraditional gender schemas. For instance, a gender conformist would process information involving women's roles to match his or her view of a traditional women as nurturing, caretaking, and responsible for domestic household duties. While watching a television show depicting a family, a gender conformist would quickly process the gender

consistent relevant behaviors, such as mom preparing dinner and may not notice the gender inconsistent behaviors of the family. Bem also found that gender conformists, more than gender nonconformists, use gender schematic cognitive processing, which lead to increased gender stereotyped behaviors. Gender conformists learn at an early age what is gender-appropriate and organize their self-concepts and behavior on the basis of their particular gender. Thus, their behaviors remain sex-typed and stereotypical.

Gender based stereotypes are believed to be activated during incidental learning. Children learn and exhibit stereotyped behaviors through the automatic processing of social and environmental experiences. For instance, Campbell et al. (2002) reported several sex-typed behaviors of children. Boys and girls displayed a preference for their own sex, for instance girls would prefer to play with girl dolls. By age two, children had spontaneous gender-typed toy selection, by age one, boys displayed more aggression during toy disputes, and by age six, boys and girls had a preference for spending time with same-sex peers. Serbin et al. (2002) found that infants by the age of 24 months were aware of gender inappropriate behavior, such as men putting on lipstick or ironing clothes, and Cherney (2005) found that preschool children exhibited gender-stereotyped behaviors; girls tended to play with dolls and stuffed animals, whereas boys played outdoors and participated in sports. These studies support that children commonly conform to gendered behaviors largely as a result of cognitive processing.

Gender Expertise

The difference in children's experiences may result in gender expertise. Gender expertise occurs when one continually performs certain behaviors that are sex typed (Cherney, 2005). Conversely, the child who does not have much contact or experience with certain activities does not become adept or comfortable when performing those behaviors. For instance, boys who play sports become more skilled at athletic activities whereas girls who do not participate in athletics become less confident with activities with which they have less experience. This creates familiarity and enhanced development of the activities that each participates (Campbell et al., 2002). Gender expertise helps explain the emergence of sex-typed behaviors in children, and the continuing gender-typed behavior exhibited by adults.

Since schemas are largely developed through exposure and experiences, parental behavior and modeling is paramount in the development of sex typed behaviors. However, sex typed attitudes can manifest even when a parent does not completely conform to gender conformist behaviors, such as a child's mother participating in sports. Shakib and Dunbar (2004) interviewed high school athletes, regarding parents' sport participation related to gender stereotypes and sex typed behaviors. They found that athletes minimized their mother's athleticism. For instance, mothers' sport participation was less visible than fathers' sport participation regardless of actual time spent playing sport or a high skill level. The athletes more often believed that their fathers were better athletes or played at a higher athletic level than their mothers; often this was not the case.

For instance, the athlete's father might have only played high school football whereas the same athlete's mother played basketball for a division 1 NCAA basketball team. The athlete would see his father as the more accomplished athlete. Additionally, when sport participation ceased for women, it was generally assumed it was due to domestic conflicts, such as childrearing and housework. They did not suggest, however, that fathers ceased athletics for domestic duties or male gender-role obligations. The researchers argued that the lack of visibility and minimization of mothers' athleticism may contribute to gender stereotyping, which reinforces the construction of gender schematic attitudes.

Activities and behaviors that are considered male domain would lead boys to be more proficient in those activities and result in a disparity between boys and girls in such activities. Athletics, particularly sports deemed masculine would be less interesting to girls, which would lead to less participation in those sports or sports in general. In conjunction with gender expertise, the pressure to conform to societal standards may influence girls' decision to refrain from athletics. Often, individuals who oppose social norms experience prejudice and discrimination (Krane, 2001). Thus, the desire to adopt an athletic identity (the degree to which one sees himself or herself in the role of an athlete) may be diminished. Historically, boys have participated in sports more than girls (Shakib & Dunbar, 2004). However, after the passage of Title IX, girls sport participation significantly increased.

Title IX and the Civil Rights Act of 1964

The 1972 passage of the Education Amendment of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibited gender discrimination in all federally funded institutions, which required colleges to provide equal opportunities for both men and women. Title IX, clearly states, "No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving federal financial assistance" (Office for Civil Rights, 1979, para. 2). Though the passage of Title IX took place in 1972, it was not until 1988 that Congress clearly mandated that athletic programs were subjected to the Title IX law (Anderson et al., 2006). Prior to the 1988 ruling, there were court hearings to determine if Title IX included athletic departments. Educational and athletic institutions, most notably the governing body of men's intercollegiate sports, the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), lobbied to exempt sports from the Title IX decision (Champion, 2006). After an initial ruling from the Supreme Court that supported athletic exemption, the decision was overturned. Title IX became the catalyst for support and equity in women's athletics by mandating equal treatment regardless of gender. However, 35 years later, many educational institutions still fail to comply with Title IX stipulations (National Coalition for Women and Girls in Education [NCWGE], 2002; Staurowski, 2009).

Noncompliance to Title IX may be one reason for the continuing gap between men and women's participation in collegiate sports. The NCWGE (2002) issued a C+ to

athletics in an evaluation of Title IX (*Title IX at 30: Report Card on Gender Equity*). The NCWGE is a non-profit organization established in 1975 that dedicates itself to improving educational opportunities for girls and women. The report revealed the ongoing inequity between men and women's financial support for athletic programs. Male sport programs received 58 cents to every dollar compared to 42 cents for female sport programs. Yearly, NCAA male athletes received 36 percent more in scholarship money than female athletes. In Division I programs, female athletes received almost 1000 dollars less per athlete than male athletes. Staurowski (2009) pointed out that Title IX does not require cuts to men's programs in order to facilitate gender equity in athletics. The financial bias to men's programs has a significant impact on improving gender equity in athletics, and should be considered when evaluating compliance with Title IX regulations.

In order to mandate compliance of Title IX from educational institutions, educational institutions should be monitored and evaluated. To assist with monitoring compliance, The Office for Civil Rights (OCR) outlined the requirements for compliance in, *A Policy Interpretation: Title IX and Intercollegiate Athletics,* also known as the Policy Interpretation (OCR, 1979). The Policy Interpretation uses three sections when analyzing compliance to the law: (a) sports offerings, (b) scholarships, and (c) other program area, which includes but is not limited to equipment, scheduling, coaching, travel, and practice (Justus, 1995). The OCR provided a three part test to determine if

institutions were in compliance with Title IX regulations. If one of the three measures was satisfied, institutions were considered in compliance.

1. Intercollegiate athletic participation opportunities for male and female students are provided in numbers substantially proportionate to their respective enrollments.
2. The institution can show a history of continuing practice of program expansion that is demonstrably responsive to the developing interests and abilities of the members of the underrepresented group of athletes.
3. The institution can demonstrate that the interests and abilities of the members of the underrepresented sex have been fully and effectively accommodated by the present program. (Staurowski, 2009, p. 57)

Additionally, Supreme Court rulings and congressional laws were passed in order to ensure compliance. In 1992, the Supreme Court ruled that monetary damages could be awarded for intentional violation of the amendment; the Equity in Athletics Disclosure Act of 1994 required data to be maintained and released from sporting programs; in 1997, the Supreme Court ruled, in *Cohen v. Brown University*, that Brown University had to adhere to the strict guidelines of Title IX. Anderson et al. (2006) argued that the ruling against Brown University (which offered more women's sporting programs than most other universities) made it difficult for educational institutions to fight Title IX discrimination lawsuits. The Brown University ruling set a legal precedent and established law for future Title IX discrimination lawsuits. With the legal precedent

established, educational institutions were pressured to adhere to the guidelines set forth by Title IX. These court rulings, laws, and stipulations forced educational institutions to promote women's athletics. The support to women's athletics encouraged and facilitated women's participation in sports. Women have benefitted from the 1972 passage of the Education Amendment of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 as seen by the significant increase in the number of girls and women participating in sport since 1972. The gap in gender equity has decreased in sport, yet women face discrimination and stigma when deciding to participate in sports.

Media

Media has a significant impact on how society perceives and stigmatizes female athletes. Sociologists point to frame theory as a way in which media influences society's perceptions of gender in sports (Billings, Angelini, & Eastman, 2005). Frame theory (Goffman, 1974) proposes that the way in which one manipulates a variable can determine how that variable is interpreted. For instance, selecting which sporting events are covered and how they are edited can influence an individual's interpretation of the event (Billings et al., 2005). Sportscasters use a particular ideological framework for a story, and through repetition the story is often interpreted as true regardless of the actual validity.

The stories regarding women in sports have been widely stereotypical and biased (Adams & Tuggle, 2004; Billings, 2007). Common themes in media coverage regarding women include trivializing and degrading female athletes, praising men more than

women when discussing athleticism of the athlete, focusing on women's femininity over athleticism, and attributing superior athleticism to luck instead of skill, descriptive differences (using favorable words when discussing men's athleticism), and spending more time on men's sports than women's sports (Billings, 2007). When sportscasters continually praise men's athleticism and skill while constantly referring to women athletes as lucky, the story being told is that men are real athletes whereas women are just lucky (Billings, 2007). When more airtime is given to men's sports over women's sports, the story is interpreted that men's sports are more important than women's sports (Adams & Tuggle, 2004; Billings, 2007; Billings, 2005).

Research has supported that there are differences in media coverage between men's and women's sports, which perpetuates gender bias and stereotypes. Billings et al. (2005) pointed out previous studies that examined gender bias in the media. In an analysis of sport casting, it was found that announcers commonly focused on the attractiveness of female athletes, while the focus for male athletes was physical skill. An evaluation of tennis matches, commentators praised men more often than women even if their scores were similar; conversely, women were more often criticized by the sport announcers. However, attractiveness was mentioned 3 times more often with women than with men. When examining basketball commentators, women's basketball was often degraded and trivialized. And finally, Billings et al. (2005) discussed researchers who found a huge disparity in sport coverage between men and women. In an analysis of two

major sports television channels, women's sport's stories consisted of only 5% of the total coverage of sports.

Media coverage of women's sports increases when the sport is more in line with traditional femininity. For instance, media coverage spiked during the U.S Women's Open Golf Tournament and Wimbledon (Adams & Tuggle, 2004). The authors concluded that gender stereotyping and bias was likely the cause of increased coverage. Tennis and golf are more socially appropriate sports for women as they less challenge the stereotype of femininity and glamour. In order to mitigate the violation, the focus shifts from the physicality of the sport to the physical appearance of the athlete.

Focusing on women athletes' appearance is not only seen in sport coverage of the event, but also through other media outlets such as commercials, magazines and newspapers where the athlete is seen outside her sport. Knight and Giuliano (2001) reported that women athletes were often pictured in glamorous shots or with their husbands, boyfriends, and children rather than in action photos of their sport. Billings et al. (2005) also pointed out that female athletes were often featured outside their sport in model like poses, again focusing on femininity rather than athleticism. Billings, Halone, and Denham (2002) argued that sport announcers and media foster implicit prejudice that women's sports are inferior to men's sports and attempt to keep the focus on femininity rather than physicality. It is clear that the media play an important role in shaping society's opinion and beliefs about women athletes and the importance of women's sport.

The way in which female athletes are framed, can impact society's ideas about women's sport. Selection, emphasis, and exclusion encapsulate the components of framing that can influence society's perceptions of women athletes and sport (Billings et al., 2005). By selecting who or what to focus on, the audience is told who or what is important, and by exclusion, one is also given a clear message of whom or what is influential. For example, when men's sports cover 95% of a broadcast, the implication is that women's sport is unimportant and trivialized. Or, when a certain player is covered more than other players, he or she becomes an important figure to their sport. For instance, Tiger Woods, regardless of contention may receive the most coverage during any given event. This may lead viewers to believe that he may still have a chance at winning the tournament.

Gender stereotyping can also be perpetuated. Anna Kournikova, a famous tennis player, may have been the most recognizable female tennis player and the most covered by the media, even though her main success was in doubles tournaments (Billings et al., 2005). Kournikova was the icon of femininity in sport, but also a rarity. During her tennis tenure, her femininity and beauty was rewarded with extensive media coverage and a multimillion dollar endorsement package (commercials, calendars, and sponsorship deals) making her one of the highest paid tennis players (Harris & Clayton, 2002). The extensive focus on a mediocre player, as evidenced by her never having won a single's tournament (Harris, 2005), highlighted her physical appearance rather than her skill. The coverage of Anna Kournakova as a female athlete perpetuated a feminine,

sexualized stereotype due to the extensive coverage and positive attention she received (Harris, 2005; Knight & Giuliano, 2001). This type of framing reinforces the stereotype that female athletes must be feminine and heterosexual. In turn, this may limit the role of a female athlete and her ability to develop a healthy athletic identity.

Athletic Identity

Cognition, social influences and experience are all factors in the development of an athletic identity. Theorists believe that in addition to internal processes, ones' identity is formed through sociocultural influences through activities in which one participates (Daniels, Sincharoen, & Leaper, 2005). Individuals make behavior choices in various domains, such as religion, sexuality, ethnicity, culture, gendered behavior and sport participation. After making behavior and cognitive decisions, individuals are subjected and influenced by societal and familial ideas. Identity is constructed through these choices, experiences, and sociocultural influences. Specifically, Daniels et al. (2005) assert that an athletic identity is developed through experience with athletics (sport in which one participates), attitude (cognition) regarding sport choices (thoughts regarding the activity in which one participates), and sociocultural influences (how society and family view that activity and encourage or discourage the individual's behavior choice). If the individual has positive feedback from others regarding sport participation and a positive experience playing the sport, he or she is more likely to develop an athletic identity (Brewer et al., 1993). For instance, if a young girl is chastised by her parents after they find her boxing with her brother, yet her brother is encouraged to continue

boxing against boys, she is more unlikely than her brother to continue with that activity. Conversely, if the boy is repeatedly encouraged to play sports and finds success with athletics, he is more likely to develop an athletic identity.

Participation in sports is not the only criteria for an identity as an athlete. According to Groff and Zabriskie (2006), an athletic identity is specifically related to the degree to which a person identifies with an athletic role and looks to others for confirmation. And though an athletic identity can be conceptualized differently by each individual, Groff & Zabriskie associate athletic identity with sport participation and the way in which one views oneself in relation to physical activity. For instance, the athletic identity measurement scale (AIMS) asks individuals questions such as, "I consider myself an athlete," (identifies with athletic role), "I have many goals related to sport" (sport participation), "other people see me mainly as an athlete" (confirmation from others) (Brewer, Van Raalte, & Linder, 1993, p. 243). Although the focus of an athletic identity is sports, research has found other factors linked to an identity as an athlete.

Individuals with an athletic identity have a number of positive outcomes related to athletics, health and social behaviors. A strong athletic identity has been associated with higher values of sport participation, better career planning, increased social relationships, better commitment to health and exercise, and better athletic performance (Daniels et al., 2005; Groff & Zabriskie, 2006). Athletic identity becomes stronger the more one values sport identity, accesses sense of self within the context of sport, develops skills within sport, and develops social interactions within the context of sport (Groff & Zabriskie).

Men have consistently been found to have stronger athletic identities than women (Daniels et al., 2006; Shakib & Dunbar, 2004). The disparity in athletic identity between men and women is likely the result of gender stereotyping that encourages social stigma of the female athlete (Daniels et al., 2006; Knight & Giuliano, 2001; Shakib & Dunbar, 2004).

Social Disapproval of Females Participating in Athletics

Stigmatization

Past and current researchers have suggested that girls and women who participate in athletics, particularly sports which are considered gender inappropriate are perceived less favorably than those who compete in gender appropriate sports or those who refrain from athletics altogether. For instance, Martin and Martin (1995) examined the perceptions of individuals regarding their idea of the ideal female, ideal male, ideal male athlete, ideal female athlete, ideal athlete and ideal person, and compared the ideal male and female athlete to the ideal male and female person. Ideal males were characterized as intelligent, well-built, tall, honest, and athletic, whereas ideal females were characterized as intelligent, attractive, well built, caring, good hair, tall, and compassionate. Ideal male athletes were characterized as intelligent, ambitious, strong, well built, a leader and fast reflexes and ideal female athletes were characterized as intelligent, ambitious, well built, strong, competitive and in shape. Hence, the study found that ideal male athletes were perceived as masculine as were ideal male persons. Ideal female athletes were also perceived as masculine; however, ideal female persons were perceived without masculine

characteristics. The ideal male person and the ideal male athlete were shown to overlap quite a bit. Conversely, the ideal female person and the ideal female athlete did not overlap much. The findings suggest that the ideal female person is not at all athletic or masculine, which would support research that reveals negative attitudes towards female athletes. Kane (1988) found that girls who participated in sports considered male domain had significantly lower status than girls who participated in traditional feminine sports. In more current research, Krane (2001) highlighted research that suggested masculine looking female athletes were viewed negatively compared to feminine looking athletes, and athletes who did not have husbands, boyfriends, or children were marginalized by the media. And, Knight and Giuliano (2001) reported that women who participated in competitive sports considered male domain were viewed more negatively than those who did not compete in competitive sports considered male domain. It is widely believed that this disapproval is a result of the violation of gender norms (Kane, 1988; Knight & Giuliano, 2001; Krane, 2001; Lantz & Schroeder, 1999; Martin & Martin, 1995; Schmalz & Kerstetter, 2006).

Research has examined attitudes towards individuals who behave inconsistent with social standards. Research suggests that athletic women are viewed as masculine (Lantz & Schroeder, 1999), which strays from the conventional feminine ideal. According to Harrison and Lynch (2005), people who contradict injunctive (behavior expectations) norms commonly experience social disapproval. Society places stigmas on individuals who behave contrary to what society expects. Stigmas are socially perceived

negative and undesirable traits (Schmalz & Kerstetter, 2006). Since female athletes are considered masculine and masculine women are stigmatized and viewed negatively by others, female athletes are pressured to conform to socially acceptable behaviors even in sport. Often, women athletes focus on exhibiting conventional femininity, such as wearing makeup and dresses when they are not playing sports or wearing makeup during an athletic event even though makeup may be difficult to keep on, in order to be socially and culturally accepted (Krane, 2001). Attempting to maintain a feminine appearance is likely influenced by a fear of being perceived as a lesbian.

Heterosexism, Homophobia, and Homonegativity

The following quote (Murnane, 2009, Feb 6) by professional golfer, Anna Rawson, exemplifies the blatant homophobic attitudes surrounding women's sport. Rawson responded to a question from an interview, February 6, 2009: "…the mentality, unfortunately amongst the media and the industry has not changed. They still think we are at 25 years ago, when the tour was full of a lot of dykes and unattractive females. Nobody wanted to watch." Although she was immediately criticized for her offensive remarks, many fans, media, and golf personnel defended her statements. Some claimed that albeit insensitive, her remarks were true. Even those who vented disgust by her comments suggested that Rawson was disrespectful to those women who paved the way for a career in golf. What was missed, however, was the fact that the statement was not only homophobic, but stereotyped lesbian athletes as unattractive dykes. The comments also made several assumptions regarding women athletics: (1) No one wants to watch

women's sports if the women athletes are lesbian, (2) Feminine women are attractive and heterosexual, and (3) Present day golfers are not gay because the women playing golf currently are attractive (not masculine).

The paradigm of femininity is a heterosexual orientation. Women in sports have long been associated with lesbianism. Female athletes, particularly those participating in competitive sports are often assumed to be gay. Thus, women attempt to contradict this stereotype by focusing on their femininity. Krane (2001) argued that the purpose of appearing heterosexual is to "protect the image of women's sports" (p. 115). Heterosexual women are privileged over masculine or perceived lesbian women who are subjected to discrimination and heterosexist attitudes. This leads to female athletes feeling pressured to act and look attractively heterosexual (Krane, 2001), which encourages and fosters heterosexism and homonegativity.

Homophobia has long been embedded in women's sports. Hargreaves (1994) argued that when studying sports sociology of women, the issue of homophobia must be considered. Krane (2001) proposed that heterosexuality is the principle and foundation of interpreting female athletes and Hargreaves (1994) pointed out that gender roles are predicated on heterosexuality, which included the belief that women should be heterosexual (compulsory heterosexuality). Knight and Giuliano (2002) add that part of society's fear of the lesbian athlete is the fear that heterosexual athletes might be converted to homosexuality and as a result, encourage women to relinquish their traditional and domestic feminine roles.

Research has supported homophobic attitudes towards lesbian or perceived lesbian athletes. Krane (2001) reported that femininity and heterosexuality were highly preferred over masculinity and homosexuality. This point was supported by Knight and Giuliano (2001) who found that individuals whose sexuality seemed ambiguous were confronted with homophobic behaviors by others. Specifically, participants held more positive attitudes towards athletes whose sexuality was clearly heterosexual than when athletes sexual orientation was unclear.

The social stigma regarding masculinity and homosexuality in women's athletics, directly influences women's sport. Krane (2001) argued that perceived heterosexuality is a "survival strategy" for female athletes (p. 118). It is important that athletes look feminine, especially outside their sport. Femininity is characterized by soft features, makeup, dresses/skirts, attractiveness, hairstyle (generally long), and feminine accessories. Muscularity becomes a complex issue that is not easily resolved (Krane, 2001). The athlete must determine what is socially acceptable and distinguish between toned and muscular. Toned muscles are acceptable whereas muscular is associated with masculinity and lesbianism, which is socially unacceptable.

Due to homonegativity, lesbian athletes are subject to prejudice and discrimination from heterosexual teammates, coaches, school administration, the media and fans. For instance, when WNBA player, Sheryl Swoopes, five time all-star, three time Olympic gold medalist, and three time MVP, "came out," many reactions were negative. Players criticized Swoopes for discussing her sexual orientation and feared that

her disclosure would hurt the league and reinforce public belief that all basketball players were lesbian (Dizon, Levesque, Farnsworth, & Bergin, 2005). Ironically, the WNBA ran a promotional campaign featuring Sheryl Swoopes in an attempt to link women's basketball with a heterosexual face. A pregnant Swoopes was pictured with her husband at the time.

In a more significant and notable display of homophobia and homonegativity, Pennsylvania State University coach Rene Portland was known for years for her antilesbian policy, stating publically that she would not have it in her program (Newhall & Buzuvis, 2008). For decades, Portland adopted homophobic and heterosexist practices, which included recruitment, harassment of perceived lesbian players, and cutting players she suspected or found to be lesbian. Portland retired shortly after a two-year lawsuit claiming discrimination (due to perceived lesbian orientation) was settled. Jennifer Harris brought suit against Portland and Penn state after she was dismissed from the team for poor performance, ethics, and attitude (Harris v. Portland, 2006). In her complaint, Harris alleged that Portland twice accused her of having a lesbian relationship with players who were subsequently kicked off the team after it was found they were lesbian; after which, Portland instructed teammates to watch Harris in an attempt to discover that she was lesbian (Newhall & Buzvis, 2008). Moreover, Harris alleged that Portland demanded players to dress feminine, wear makeup and jewelry, and refrain from wearing cornrows.

These examples are consistent with research that found that perceived lesbian athletes were confronted with negative treatment and discrimination. Examples of

prejudicial and homophobic behavior included, as in Harris' case, verbal harassment from players, coaches, and fans, being cut from a team and being told how to dress (Krane, 2001). Because of heterosexism, homophobia, and homonegativity, female athletes attempt to conform to appropriate social standards for women which are a feminine appearance and a heterosexual lifestyle. The pressure to conform to societal standards of femininity and perceived heterosexuality often leads to a role conflict for the female athlete.

Role Conflict

Feminine or Athletic

An athletic identity is synonymous with masculinity. It is a widely held notion that women's participation in sports, particularly competitive sports, masculinizes women (Alley & Hicks, 2005). A masculine woman contradicts society's idea of what a woman should be: feminine. In a study of the perceived barriers to participation of physical activity, adolescent girls were interviewed and asked the reasons for their lack of engaging in physical activity. Dwyer et al. (2006) found that among the perceived barriers, participants discussed stereotypes and perceptions that active girls were not feminine, and that only "tomboys" played sports. Additionally, they stated that they had to choose to be either feminine or active. Martin and Martin (1995) postulated that this incongruence suggests that women cannot be both an ideal person (feminine) and an ideal athlete (masculine) since the two contradict one another. This would then put the female athlete in a role-conflict. More recent research has found that athletic women have

experienced this contradiction. Krane, Choi, Baird, Aimar, and Kauer (2004) conducted focus group interviews of varsity team athletes from various sports regarding athleticism and femininity, ideal body, and perceptions of muscularity. When discussing the ideal female body, the female athletes suggested that an athletic body is incongruent with society's ideal of a perfect body, pointing out that the ideal female body is more slender without much muscle, such as a model or an actress. One participant stated, "…Rachel Hunter [model] is this little skinny thing, waif like person and then Mia Hamm's [athlete] thicker, and that's not as cool…" (p. 319). When asked about their perceptions regarding femininity, the same role-conflict was apparent.

Athletes claimed that femininity opposed athleticism, suggesting that when participating in sports, one loses her femininity. Examples of participant's idea of femininity included petite, girly, clean, and gentle. Conversely, they thought that lifting weights and aggression contradicted feminine behavior. Most athletes believed that when they were playing sports, they gave up being feminine in order to be competitive, which they equated with being masculine. They also suggested that being feminine was socially acceptable while being athletic was not. Muscularity also opposed social standards of femininity and created the same role-conflict.

Participants' responses to what the ideal body should look like contradicted their perceptions of their own bodies, which they deemed athletic. Though low body fat was considered socially acceptable and even feminine, muscularity was not. The fear of becoming too muscular was apparent in many responses. Additionally, the athletes were

also concerned with their body weight, even though they had very low percentages of body fat. Many of the athletes equated weight gain (due to building muscle mass) with being fat. Thus, they were concerned with building too much muscle and wanted to stay in the range of what would be considered within the norm for women.

Being normal was a concern that was often expressed in the interviews, whether discussing femininity, body image, muscularity, dating or just being an athlete. The participants referred to nonathletes as normal, while they perceived themselves as being different from other women and nonathletes. Often the athletes complained that they were not normal and repeatedly gave examples of how they differed from normal women. For instance, they discussed the difficulty they had finding clothing that fit properly since clothing is constructed for normal women. The same theme was identified when discussing dating, male/female relationships, and femininity in general. Being traditionally feminine was considered normal.

In order to reconcile the dissonance athletes feel regarding sport participation, they assume, what has been coined, apologetic behavior. Newhall and Buzuvis (2008) define apologetic behavior as the attempt to distinguish women's sport from men's sport, and a trade between participating in athletics and femininity, heterosexism, and adopting socially acceptable feminine and heterosexist values, e.g., role of mother. That is, if they participate in athletics, the trade is to behave in stereotypically feminine behaviors outside their sport and display a heterosexual orientation. For the lesbian athlete, apologetic behaviors add additional pressure and stress.

Lesbian Double Bind

Female athletes live a paradox that is feminine or athletic. Once the sporting event has ended, it is necessary for athletes to behave in socially appropriate standards for women. Krane et al. (2001) argued that the athlete forms two identities, one a woman and the other, an athlete. The identity as a woman is characterized by femininity and a heterosexual orientation. For the lesbian athlete, this creates added pressure and stigmatization. Women's success in sport and success of women's sport is contingent on society accepting women's athletics. It has been repeatedly shown that acceptance of women's athletics is specifically related to apologetic behaviors, that is, the display of femininity and heterosexism (Knight & Giuliano, 2001). Media focuses more on women's appearance than skill and women's sport attempts to highlight a feminine and heterosexual athlete. For the lesbian athlete, this creates a double bind and for some, it may be an almost impossible negotiation.

Not only do athletes live in a paradoxical world of gender and sexual orientation, but so does the lesbian sport fan. Notably, the WNBA has always had a large lesbian following, though marketing practices attempt to employ heteronormative and heterosexist practices (Muller, 2007). Muller points out that lesbian sport fans both accept and resist the implicit and explicit marginalization and disregard of their large fan base. For instance, in 2002, Lesbians for Liberty, staged a kiss in protest, to confront the disregard of their lesbian fan base and heteronormative marketing practices; conversely, a large portion of those fans were complicit with heterosexist practices in support of the

WNBA (Muller, 2007). Lesbianism in sport is a threat to the success of women's sport. Professional sports, whether men's or women's, depend on sponsorships and media coverage, in particular, televised coverage. Many lesbian fans and athletes think it is necessary to go along with heterosexists and gender stereotyped practices in order for women's athletics to succeed. Conforming to social pressures puts both the lesbian athlete and lesbian fan in a double bind.

For the athlete, she must overtly deny or at minimum, conceal her sexual orientation. She must also display feminine apologetic behaviors in order to reconcile masculine (athletic) behaviors (Newhall and Buzuvis, 2008). For the fan, she must acquiesce to heteronormative and heterosexist practices, and must also deny or hide her sexual orientation and even her appearance. Muller (2007) described interviews with WNBA fans who reported a negative connotation with lesbians who looked masculine or androgynous. Additionally, they agreed that the WNBA should not associate itself with its lesbian fan base in order to increase financial viability of the league. These lesbian fans were more concerned with the success of women's sports than being subjected to homophobic behaviors. The double bind in which lesbian athletes, and it also seems, lesbian fans experience may have an emotional or psychological price.

Internalized Homophobia

According to Peterson and Gerrity (2006), individuals develop internalized homophobia in response to antigay attitudes and behavior by a heterosexist society. Automatically, children are raised and socialized heterosexual. Homosexuals are

constantly confronted with homophobic attitudes and behaviors from grade school to college, and from coworkers, colleagues, family and friends. Researchers suggest that homosexuals experience internalized homophobia to some degree throughout their lifetime (DeMino, Appleby, & Fisk, 2007; Peterson & Gerrity, 2006; Rheineck, 2005; Szymanski, Chung, & Balsam, 2001), and ridding of it entirely may be insurmountable (Frost & Meyer, 2009). Internalized homophobia as a construct is multidimensional, comprised of the individual's feelings about being gay, views about how others view homosexuality, social support, and self disclosure as a lesbian (DeMino et al., 2007). There is a three part process to internalized homophobia, including the stigma of being a sexual minority by the majority, coping with discrimination and prejudice by nonsexual minorities, and managing disclosure.

Internalized homophobia is closely related to the minority stress model. The minority stress model suggests that adaptation to an adversarial social environment creates strain and tension for the individual (Frost & Meyer, 2009). Gay men and women are often confronted with hostility, prejudice, and discrimination based on their social difference and minority status. Meyer (2003) argued that the source of stress can be attributed to the disharmony between the dominant culture and the minority culture. There are many instances of the majority imposing their beliefs and standards onto the minority; in the case of the sexual minority, heterosexist practices are prevalent.

The overt and covert homophobia, homonegativity, and heterosexism that gay men and women live with and experience, sometimes daily, through jokes, sermons,

television and movies, and institutional discrimination from public, private and governmental policies, encourage the stigma associated with being gay. Although there is ample research involving gay men and internalized homophobia, there is a paucity of research involving lesbians. Much of the findings have been inconsistent, though researchers argue that psychometric problems, the limited number of women in the studies, and other research problems may be the reason for the inconsistency (Peterson & Gerrity, 2006). Regardless, there is evidence that internalized homophobia negatively impacts mental and physical health of lesbian women.

Research on lesbian internalized homophobia is growing, but continued research is needed to expand the knowledge base regarding the impact that internalized homophobia has on lesbians. The focus of current research includes, but is not limited to the development of a lesbian identity, self-esteem, depression, alcohol use, and somatic disorders. Many researchers believe that all lesbians and gay men experience internalized homophobia at some point in their lives (DeMino, Appleby, & Fisk, 2007; Meyer, 2003; Peterson & Gerrity, 2006; Rheineck, 2005. Moreover, researchers have posited that internalized homophobia is a barrier to developing a healthy identity as a lesbian (Peterson & Gerrity, 2006).

Lesbian Identity Development

Rheineck (2005) argued that, in part, the development of a lesbian identity includes women experiencing internalized homophobia in varying degrees, and when considering identity formation, one should be concerned with the impact of internalized

homophobia. Not all lesbian identity models focus on internalized homophobia. Some homosexual identity development models were formed from minority stress models and others were developed from personal experience working with gay individuals (Peterson & Gerrity, 2006). The Cass model, the McCarn and Fassinger model, and the dual identity framework will be reviewed.

Cass model. The Cass model (1979) was developed by Vivian Cass and remains a foundational theory of gay and lesbian identity development. The Cass model includes six stages: identity confusion, identity comparison, identity tolerance, identity acceptance, identity pride, and identity synthesis. This model views identity development as a process which occurs over time, and focuses on both external and internal influences, as indicated in the six stages. Identity confusion is characterized by a woman's first awareness of being lesbian; identity comparison is an exploratory stage where the lesbian tentatively commits to being gay; the identity tolerance stage is characterized by the awareness of social isolation; with identity acceptance, the lesbian finds herself increasing interaction with other gay people; identity pride is characterized by self-acceptance as a lesbian, though not a complete acceptance; and finally, identity synthesis is the complete integration as a lesbian. Individuals navigate through each stage working their way through any obstacles they may encounter and may go back and forth through several stages in their lifetime.

McCarn and Fassinger model. Rheineck (2005) explained the McCarn and Fassinger (1996) model, which views lesbian identity development as a process that

begins first with individual identity development as a result of sexual awareness that eventually leads to group identity development. The four phase model includes: awareness, exploration, deepening/commitment, and internalization/synthesis. The last stage is commonly characterized by years of sexual exploration ending with a firm identity as a lesbian.

Dual identity framework. In a newer lesbian identity model, Fingerhut, Peplau, and Ghavami (2005) presented a dual identity framework. According to the dual identity framework model, lesbians navigate daily through a heterosexual society and a minority subculture of the sexual minority world of lesbianism. Fingerhut et al. (2005) pointed out that most models of lesbian identity development focused on the degree of involvement with the lesbian community without consideration of her involvement with the heterosexual majority. The dual identity framework, however, reflects both. Affiliation with both cultures creates four possible identity categories: assimilation, separated, integrated, and marginalized. Assimilated lesbians are high in heterosexual affiliation and low in lesbian affiliation; separated lesbians are high in lesbian affiliation and low in heterosexual affiliation; integrated lesbians are high in both heterosexual and lesbian affiliation; and marginalized lesbians are low in both lesbian affiliation and heterosexual affiliation. The model is mainly concerned with the lesbian's experience and interaction with both worlds.

The dual identity model also considers the experience the lesbian has as a stigmatized individual. Fingerhut et al., (2005) reported that research suggests that

increased lesbian identity is related to higher degrees of discrimination and decreased internalized homophobia in some instances. They claim that the interaction between the two worlds, as depicted by the dual identity framework, may help to understand this effect. For instance, highly identified lesbians who have an integrated identity may be vulnerable to higher instances of discrimination, while highly identified lesbians with a separated identity may be insulated from discrimination and prejudice, and thus, have lower degrees of internalized homophobia. Strongly identified lesbians experience with discrimination differs according to her ties to the lesbian community. Lesbians, connected to both the lesbian community and the mainstream community, have better psychological health and less internalized homophobia.

Internalized homophobia develops in the first stages of lesbian identity when the individual begins to see herself as deviant (Peterson & Gerrity, 2006). This occurs from being raised, from childhood, as heterosexual, and as the result of not only living in a heterosexist and homophobic society, but also being confronted with homonegativity in ones' home from ones' immediate family. Accepting that homosexuality is deviant behavior creates the belief that she is also deviant. This may be the start of hiding sexual orientation, which would not allow the individual to openly discuss lesbian related issues, particularly difficulties experienced just by being gay. Lewis et al. (2006) claimed that the inability to talk about issues related to sexual orientation and the stigma attached to it impairs the development of a healthy lesbian identity and puts the woman at risk for higher degrees of internalized homophobia. Lesbians with high internalized homophobia

have higher degrees of psychological issues than those with lower internalized homophobia (Frost & Meyer, 2009; Lewis et al., 2006; Meyer, 2003; Szymanski et al., 2001; Szymanski & Kashubeck, 2008; Weber, 2008). Internalized homophobia has been related to psychological and health related issues.

Negative Outcomes of Internalized Homophobia

The study of mental health of the homosexual population is diverse and complicated. Meyer (2003) argued that much of the problem lies within the conceptualization of the term mental disorder. The issue, he stressed, is the past classification of homosexuality as a mental disorder by the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Health Disorders (DSM). The mental disorder was removed from the DSM in the 1970's (Peterson & Gerrity, 2006). Meyer (2003) posits that whether or not homosexuals have higher incidences of mental disorder is unrelated to the classification of homosexuality as a disorder, which past researchers erroneously linked. Researchers used flawed methodology to answer the question, "Is homosexuality a mental disorder?" (p. 674). The question was answered by examining the rates of mental disorders of homosexuals and because homosexuals had psychological problems, homosexuality was then determined to be a mental health disorder. Meyer (2003) argued that the high rate of psychological distress in the homosexual population is likely a response to the prejudice, discrimination, and stigma that gay men and lesbian women experience.

Research has consistently found that internalized homophobia contributes to a number of negative outcomes to the homosexual. For instance, Szymanski & Kashubeck-

West (2008) found that internalized homophobia was a significant predictor of psychological distress in lesbian and bisexual women. Other negative outcomes of internalized homophobia include higher levels of stress (Meyer, 2003; Szymanski & Kashubeck-West, 2008), depression (Frost & Meyer, 2009), lack of social support and community (Meyer, 2003; Szymanski & Kashubeck-West, 2008) and self-esteem (Peterson & Gerrity, 2006; Szymanski & Chung 2001).

Self-esteem. There is a lack of research involving lesbian internalized homophobia and self-esteem, and the findings have been inconsistent. Still, researchers have found that self-esteem is an important factor to examine and evaluate. Self-esteem has been defined as the degree to which one believes she is valuable or adequate (Peterson and Gerrity, 2006). Accordingly, individuals with higher degrees of self-esteem, generally have a more positive view and satisfaction with oneself. There have been a number of studies that suggest that internalized homophobia negatively effects self- esteem in gay men (Dupras, 1994; Rowan & Malcolm, 2002; Torres, 2008), but again, research involving lesbians has not been as consistent. For instance, Peterson and Gerrity (2006) examined past research involving lesbians and internalized homophobia and only found six studies. Of those, self-esteem was not found to be correlated to internalized homophobia in all but one. Peterson and Gerrity (2006) argued that the sample of lesbian women used in the research may not truly reflect those who have higher levels of internalized homophobia, since the participants were "out" lesbians. It is reasonable to infer that lesbians willing to participate in research would have lower levels

of internalized homophobia simply because she has identified herself as lesbian. It is more difficult to study the lesbian who is closeted and ashamed to admit that she is lesbian herself.

Even with the limited research and inconsistent findings, internalized homophobia has been found to impact self-esteem. Szymanski and Chung (2001) found that lesbians with higher levels of internalized homophobia suffered from more loneliness and lower levels of self-esteem. And, due to the void in research involving lesbians and internalized homophobia, Peterson and Gerrity (2006) examined the relationship between internalized homophobia, self-esteem, and identity development. The questions they attempted to answer were: "Is there a relationship between identity development stage and self-esteem in lesbians," and "Is there a relationship between internalized homophobia and self-esteem in lesbians" (p. 66). The results indicated a significant relationship between identity development and self-esteem. Specifically, the results indicated that self-esteem was higher for lesbians in the later stages of identity development and lower in early stages of lesbian development. Additionally, they found a negative correlation between internalized homophobia and self-esteem; self-esteem increased when internalized homophobia decreased. Additional research is needed to further understand how self-esteem relates to internalized homophobia.

Depression. Internalized homophobia seems to be an indicator of depression in the homosexual population. Research suggests that homosexuals have higher rates of depression than their heterosexual counterparts (Frost & Meyer, 2009; Ross, Doctor,

Dimito, Kuehl, & Armstrong, 2007). It is widely accepted that the social stigma attached to homosexuality causing internalized homophobia is likely responsible for increased mental health issues among homosexuals (Cochran, 2001; Frost & Meyer, 2009; Ross et al., 2007). Much like other studies involving internalized homophobia, lesbians have rarely been researched independent from gay men. Regardless, research has consistently found a relationship between internalized homophobia and depression. For example, Herek, Cogan, Gillis, and Glunt (1997) reported that lesbian, gay, and bisexual individuals with higher levels of internalized homophobia experienced more depressive symptoms and demoralization. In addition, Frost and Meyer (2009) examined the associations between internalized homophobia, outness, community connectedness, depressive symptoms, and relationship quality among lesbian, gay, and bisexual individuals. They found that internalized homophobia was associated with increased depressive symptoms and depression was a factor in relationship problems for both single and coupled participants. Frost and Meyer (2009) claimed that the results indicated that depression completely mediates the relationship between internalized homophobia and relationship quality. Further, they caution that once depressive symptoms are treated, underlying internalized homophobia should still be addressed.

Substance use and abuse. Depression may lead to self-medicating behaviors, such as substance abuse. Since the 1970's, research indicates high rates of alcohol problems among the homosexual population (Amadio & Chung, 2004). The researchers pointed out that there were methodological problems with past research, which makes it

difficult to fully understand the issue. Still, research has consistently found high rates of substance use with the gay, lesbian, and bisexual population (Amadio & Chung, 2004; Rosario, Schrimshaw, & Hunter, 2008; Weber, 2008). For instance, Weber reported that 20-25 % of homosexuals were heavy drinkers compared to 3-10% of heterosexuals. Additionally, the homosexual population used cannabis and cocaine at higher rates than their heterosexual counterparts. The high use of substances in the gay and lesbian population is a concern.

Researchers postulated various reasons for the increased substance use of homosexuals over heterosexuals. Substance use in lesbians may be related to stress caused by stigmatization, sexism, lesbian culture may rely more heavily on alcohol for socialization, and internalized homophobia (Amadio & Chung, 2004). For instance, Weber (2008) found a positive relationship between internalized homophobia and substance use and abuse. In addition, Amadio (2006) found that for lesbians, drinking 5 or more alcoholic beverages in a month was significantly related to internalized homophobia and the number of days being very high or very drunk over a period of a year was significantly related to internalized homophobia. In another study, Rosario et al. (2008) examined the role of gender self presentation (butch versus femme) on alcohol, marijuana, and tobacco use and abuse. Gay related stress (internalized homophobia) was theorized to account for the differences in use and abuse between butch and femme women. The study found that women with a butch self presentation used substances more often than women with a femme self presentation. Additionally, the study indicated that

internalized homophobia largely influenced marijuana and tobacco use and abuse. Rosario et al. (2008) posited that butch women may use marijuana and tobacco to self-medicate for emotional distress brought on by stress. They argued that butch women may experience more stress due to being easier to identify as lesbian than femme women, which could lead to more prejudice and discrimination. Substance use and abuse in the lesbian population, particularly related to internalized homophobia is not easily understood due to mixed results and inconsistent findings.

Internalized homophobia seems to be more of a factor on substance use and abuse for gay men (Amadio & Chung, 2004; Weber, 2008). The researchers posit that social support, specifically being a part of a lesbian community may counter the negative outcomes of internalized homophobia. Although men seem to suffer from substance use and abuse issues as a result of internalized homophobia more than lesbians, substance use problems and other negative consequences of psychological distress impacts lesbians, especially lesbians who lack social support.

Methodological Considerations

The literature review for this study identified both quantitative and qualitative research methods in examining women's attitudes and behavior regarding gender schema, athletic identity, and internalized homophobia. The Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI; Bem, 1974) and the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ; Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1974) have been the main instruments used to study gender schema (Katsurada & Sugihara, 2002). The instruments measure gender role identification using self-reports

regarding personality characteristics. Although these instruments continue to be widely used in the study of gender role identification, implicit instruments have been developed in an attempt to offset the social desirability bias of direct testing instruments (van Well, Kolk, & Oei, 2007). The Gender Implicit Association Test (GIAT; Aidman & Carroll, 2003) assesses automatic association strengths between the concepts of me (the individual taking the test) and masculine and feminine by measuring reaction time from computerized images (van Well et al.). Thus, feminine individuals would respond faster to the association concepts of femininity and me, whereas masculine individuals would respond faster to the association concepts of masculinity and me. Though implicit tests show promise, Steffens (2004) found implicit tests are also susceptible to faking. As the concepts of masculinity and femininity evolve and change, gender identification instruments will need to be continually evaluated. Currently, research suggests that all instruments, direct and indirect, are psychometrically sound (van Well et al.).

In the study of identity, researchers examine how heavily an individual associates with a given role (Nasco & Webb, 2006). In terms of an identity as an athlete, Groff and Zabriskie (2006) suggest that an athletic identity is related to the degree to which a person identifies with an athletic role and looks to others for confirmation of that role. Thus, the instruments used to measure athletic identity primarily examine the strength and exclusivity of an individual's identification with a specific role, such as with the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS; Brewer et al., 1993), Exercise Identity Scale

(EIS; Anderson & Cychosz, 1994), and the Sport Attributional Style Scale (SASS; Hanrahan & Grove, 1990).

Instruments first developed to study internalized homophobia only sampled gay men and were not psychometrically sound. Ross & Rosser (1996) reported that the first instrument used to measure internalized homophobia did not provide psychometrics of the scales or content on the data. The Internalized Homophobia (IHP; Martin & Dean, 1987) has limited content validity (Shidlo, 1994), and although the Nungesser Homosexuality Attitudes Inventory (NHAI; Nungesser, 1983) has empirical evidence that it is a valid instrument for assessing internalized homophobia (Szymanski & Chung, 2001), it was not subject to a factor analysis (Ross & Rosser).

The Internalized Homophobia Inventory (IHI; Alexander, 1986) and the Internalized Homophobia Scale (Ross & Rosser, 1996) have shown that internalized homophobia, as a construct, is measureable (Szymanski & Chung, 2001); additionally, both instruments have been found to be psychometrically sound. Szymanski and Chung (2001) found that items in existing instruments measuring internalized homophobia were based primarily on gay male culture and experiences. In order to study internalized homophobia in the lesbian population more accurately, Szymanski and Chung (2001) developed the Lesbian Internalized Homophobia Scale (LIHS). They argued that the previously existing instruments leaned heavily on male gay culture. After a review of the literature and a review of published scales, Szymanski and Chung (2000) selected five

dimensions of internalized homophobia to create their scale items. The five subscales of the LIHS include:

1. Connection with the lesbian community (CLC).
2. Public identification as a lesbian (PIL).
3. Personal feelings about being a lesbian (PFL).
4. Moral and religious attitudes toward lesbianism (MRATL).
5. Attitudes toward other lesbians (ATOL). (p. 118).

Summary

The current literature review examined research involving gender schemas, athletic identity, and internalized homophobia. Gender schemas determine the gender role expectations of individuals, which leads to the development of socially consistent or socially inconsistent behaviors. Individuals who adopt behaviors inconsistent with gender role expectations often experience negative reactions from society. Athleticism, for women, is an example of a behavior that is inconsistent with society's standard or ideal of a woman. The social expectations of women and the stigma attached to athletic women have influenced women's participation in sports (children, adolescents, and adults). Schmalz & Kerstetter (2006) examined the role of stigma conscious and gender stereotypes on sex typing of sport participation. Their study of 8-10 year old children indicated that even at that young of an age, children were aware of appropriate and inappropriate sports based on gender. Though girls had more flexibility with sport choice, both boys and girls were stigmatized as gay when sport participation was considered an

extreme violation of gender norms. Results of this study found that girls participated in feminine sports more than boys and more boys participated in masculine sports more than girls. Gender stereotyped behaviors and attitudes seem to develop at a young age as does the stigma of violating social expectations.

Stigmatization and the pressure to behave within social norms may influence women's choice to participate in sports as evidenced by the disparity between men and women in athletics. Besides grade and high school, women compete in sports less in college than their male counterparts (NCWGE, 2002). Title IX legislation of the Educational Amendments Act of 1992 prohibited discrimination of any federally funded educational activity based on gender, which included athletics (Anderson et al., 2006). Since Title IX, women's participation in collegiate sports has increased and women's athletics have received more media coverage (Schmalz & Kerstetter, 2006). However, Anderson et al. (2006) reported that for the 2001-2002 year, only 42% of student athletes were women, a much less percentage than men. In addition, women do not participate in recreation sports as often as men (Shakib & Dunbar, 2004).

Girls and women lose the psychological and health benefits sport participation provides when they forgo athletics. For instance, Fredricks & Eccles (2006) found that participation in organized sports resulted in better academic outcomes (grades and educational expectations), psychological competencies (higher self esteem and lower substance use), and positive peer relating in adolescents. In addition, research has indicated the following social and psychological positive effects: higher grades, higher

self-worth, better educational and occupational aspirations, higher college enrollment, better educational attainment (Marsh & Kleitman, 2003), self-esteem benefits, enhanced physical capabilities, and appropriate assertive behavior (Shaffer & Wittes, 2006). Long term health benefits have also been found in individuals with a history of sport participation in adolescence (Bowker, Gadbois, & Cornock, 2003; Dodge & Lambert, 2009). With all of the positive social and psychological benefits to sport participation, psychologists, sociologists and health professionals question why there is a gender difference.

Research indicates that fear of stigmatization has a vast influence on women's sport choices. The stigmatization of a female athlete is associated with not only being too masculine, but being homosexual. As noted in this review, women who participate in sports, especially masculine sports, are seen as less favorable than women who adopt a feminine identity. Women who form an athletic identity must choose to either continue participation and learn coping skills to deal with stigmatization or cease participation in order to avoid association and stigma (Schmalz & Kerstetter, 2006). Women who choose to continue sport participation often display apologetic behaviors.

Apologetic behaviors are mainly an attempt to prove that the athlete is feminine and heterosexual. Stigmatization has not only lead to apologetic behaviors by the athlete, but has lead to the development of apologetic policies by institutions (Knight & Giuliano, 2001). Women participating in sports often believe they must display feminine and heterosexual behaviors. Research found it common for the athlete, coach, and media to

focus on the female athletes' appearance and heterosexuality rather than her athleticism or sport. Apologetic behaviors and policies create additional stress and pressure for the lesbian athlete. Often, lesbians are asked, either overtly or covertly, to hide their sexual orientation and in extreme cases, invent a heterosexual identity. Lesbian athletes have been victim to prejudice and discrimination.

The double bind for lesbian athletes may put them at risk for higher levels of internalized homophobia due to added minority stress and isolation. Researchers indicated that lesbians who expect discrimination based on their sexual orientation and do not talk to others about lesbian related issues have higher degrees of internalized homophobia, intrusive thoughts, and adverse physical symptoms (Lewis et al., 2006). The authors concluded that decreasing the social constraints that discourage lesbians from discussing lesbian related issues could result in a protective factor against the negative outcomes generated by silence and fear. Lesbian athletes, then, may be at risk for increased internalized homophobia and the negative consequences found in lesbians with high social constraints due to the pressure to adopt apologetic behaviors. If lesbian athletes are encouraged to conceal their sexual orientation, their opportunities to discuss lesbian related issues are severely limited. Lesbians who are restricted to a heterosexual community are even more at risk.

Conversely, research suggests that lesbians who have ties to both the lesbian community and the heterosexual mainstream community have better psychological health (Fingerhut et al., 2005). Lesbians who have ties to the mainstream community have

additional resources and opportunities than separated (high in lesbian affiliation and low in heterosexual affiliation) lesbians. Research suggests that this would create better psychological health, including decreased internalized homophobia (Lewis et al., 2006). It would benefit the lesbian athlete to be part of the athletic community and part of the lesbian community concomitantly rather than separately or having to choose one or the other.

The current study hopes to build on the knowledge and understanding of the issues related to internalized homophobia and athleticism of lesbian women by examining the influence of gender schema on internalized homophobia and athletic identity. Women's sport participation has interested researchers because of the social barriers women face and stigma attached to athletic behavior. However, research involving lesbian women is lacking in all three areas, and completely void in the interaction of gender schemas, athletic identity and internalized homophobia.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

Researchers studying the development of gender schemas have consistently suggested that social influences are largely responsible for sex-typed behavior. Boys and girls largely participate in gender appropriate activities; sports have been deemed a masculine activity, though there have been changes in girls' participation rates through the years, particularly since the passing of Title IX. Still, the stigma associated with girls and women playing sports remains. Researchers have studied the consequences of the stigma extensively, but failed to study lesbian women. This study hopes to fill that gap. Additionally, research has not pondered the question of what relationship, if any, exists among gender schemas, athletic identity and internalized homophobia.

This chapter will explain the study's research design and approach, setting and sample, instrumentation and materials, and ethical considerations. The description will include the study's rationale for the use of this particular design, an explanation of the instrumentation and data collection and analysis.

Research Design and Approach

This quantitative study utilized a survey design to investigate the hypotheses. The literature review for this study identified both quantitative and qualitative research methods in examining women's attitudes and behavior regarding sport participation, athletic identity, gender schema, and internalized homophobia. This study utilized a quantitative design and a survey method. According to Cresswell (2007), quantitative

method includes survey and experimental design. Survey method provides a quantitative description by using instruments to collect data; three survey instruments are used in this study. In experimental design, one or more of the independent variables is manipulated to determine a cause and effect relationship (Cresswell). The variables were not manipulated in this study; thus, a nonexperimental method is appropriate. Surveys have been used extensively in research and are a useful tool for collecting subjective data on the feelings and attitudes of the public (Fowler, 2009). This study examined the feelings and attitudes of lesbians concerning sport behavior. Therefore, survey method is appropriate.

Due to the limits of the population examined, an Internet-based study was selected. Hidden populations, such as sexual minorities are extremely difficult to study because of stigmatization of the population, and an inability for researchers to obtain a large enough sample size (Wejnert & Heckathorn, 2008). Further, Internet studies have increased as a research tool (Alessi & Martin, 2010), and researchers can obtain reliable and valid data (Leiberman, 2008).

This study examined the attitudes and behaviors of sexual minorities who may not feel comfortable identifying themselves openly as lesbian. An Internet study allows participants to remain anonymous. Additionally, an Internet-based survey method was chosen due to the difficulty of finding a sufficient sample size using traditional methods. The U.S. Department of Commerce (2009) reported that 61.7% of all U.S. households

had Internet access and 71% had Internet access outside the home. Alessi & Martin (2010) argue that reliable samples can be found using Internet research.

The design of this survey study examines attitudes and behaviors of lesbians utilizing the above mentioned surveys and analyzing the results via *t*-tests and correlation. Huberty (2003) claims that correlation does not imply a causal direction; thus, correlation will be used for hypothesis four. To evaluate hypotheses two and three, *t*-tests will be used. Chi Square will be performed to answer hypothesis one.

Setting and Sample

Setting

The setting for this study was an Internet-based survey distributed on QuestionPro. QuestionPro is online survey software designed to collect data for various researchers. The survey software includes a full suite of tools for creating surveys, sending email invitations, and analyzing survey data. Online survey software, such as QuestionPro, SurveyMonkey, and Zoomerang are used extensively for professional and educational research. Alessi and Martin (2010) reported that Internet research using such methods work well for hidden and stigmatized groups that might not otherwise participate in research. QuestionPro is easy for participants to use. Prior to Internet studies, hidden populations were almost impossible to empirically study because sample sizes were too small (Wejnert & Heckathorn, 2008). The anonymity and convenience of online research has revolutionized research of hard to reach populations.

Participants

Participants are a national sample of self-identified lesbians, aged 18 and older, recruited by convenience sample from lesbian Websites and social media sites (Yahoo message boards, Facebook and Craigslist ads and discussion forums). Additionally, lesbian listservs' were used. After receiving approval (where necessary), notices were posted on the above mentioned Websites. In order to expand the number of possible respondents, participants were encouraged to share the questionnaire with others; this resulted in a snowball sample method. Research recruitment that uses social networks and word of mouth, in order to access specific populations, has been employed in numerous studies. For instance, Allessi and Martin (2010) used a nationwide convenience sample using the snowball method to recruit 297 self-identified gay men from LGBT Websites and Craigslist's classified ads and discussion forums. Mohr and Fassinger (2000) used electronic mail lists to recruit same-sex couples; Otis, Rostosky, Riggle & Hamlin (2006) recruited participants through LGBT Email Listserves; and Ross, Rosser, Stanton, and Konstan (2004) recruited 1,500 Latino participants through a gay focused website. In particular, the snowball sampling method works well with populations where participants may want to remain anonymous or hidden (Alessi & Martin, 2010; Browne, 2003; Mathy, Kerr, & Haydin, 2003; Wejnert & Heckathorn, 2008). Thus, convenience sampling using snowball method has been extensively used in sex research. Upon completion of the questionnaire, participants were given instructions with the website link to share with others who they thought might wish to participate in the study.

Each participant is a network of acquaintances and friends who are a network of acquaintances and friends. Wejnert and Heckathorn (2008) claim that when participants recruit peers, referral chains are developed which efficiently and safely penetrate social networks of the target population. This study examined attitudes of lesbian women with varying degrees of internalized homophobia. It is important to have a diverse population of lesbian women including those who are "out" as well as those whose sexual orientation is hidden. Internet survey research using the snowball method can reach both types of lesbian women. Further, by using LGBT Websites, many of which have local interfaces throughout the country, nationwide data can be obtained from a geographically diverse population. Thus, Internet research can obtain representative samples (Alessi & Martin, 2010; Mathy, Kerr, & Haydin, 2003; Wejnert & Heckathorn, 2008).

An a priori power analysis for a one-tailed hypothesis at $p < .01$ revealed that the minimum number of participants for this study is 66 (Abramowitz & Stegun, 1965). This analysis was designed to detect a large effect size ($d = .80$), with a power level of .80. A power level of .80 will provide an 80% chance of detecting a significant difference between the groups (Cohen, 1988).

Procedures

IRB Approval. Prior to data collection, formal approval to conduct this research was obtained from the Walden Institutional Review Board (IRB). Walden IRB approval number for this study was IRB # 03-04-13-0099687.

Recruitment. Participants were initially recruited using convenience sample method followed by snowball sampling method. The research study was advertised in various media sources, including Lesbian social networking websites and Lesbian discussion forums. Where necessary, approval from each site was obtained prior to placing announcements. In a study of LGBT individuals, Alessi and Martin (2010) initiated their convenience sample using the snowball method by posting requests for participation to their study on three LGBT websites, in Craiglist ads and discussion forums, and HIV/AIDS websites. From the initial request, participants are asked to recruit peers directly. Additionally, emails were sent to agencies and organizations that serve the lesbian population (Alessi & Martin, 2010; Wejnert & Heckathorn, 2008), such as Stonewall Centers and LGBT Centers with an explanation of the study and a request for the information to be sent to their members. An electronic uniform resource locater (URL) was included with target population and participation criteria. Prospective participants received an introduction letter that outlined the specifics of the study and a consent form. Participants were asked to forward the link to other lesbians who may wish to participate in the study, and were given the opportunity to contact the researcher with questions or concerns regarding the study.

After agreeing to participate in the study, participants entered their responses on QuestionPro where I exported the data for analysis. The average time to complete all surveys was 15 minutes. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21 was used for data analysis for Chi Square, *t*-tests and Pearson Correlation. One hundred

seventy two cases were excluded from analysis due to incomplete data. All survey responses were forced choice. Forced choice answers require a participant to choose an answer for each question. If the participant missed or skipped a question, the software highlighted the missing answer and the participant could not continue until an answer was selected. The participant could choose to close the window at any time, thereby ending their participation, which yielded in incomplete data.

Informed consent. Participants were given an online introduction letter that included personal details about the researcher, including name, school information, degree and details of study participation. Participants were advised that their participation was completely voluntary and if they choose to participate, their involvement would be confidential. The letter explained how the surveys were coded in order to ensure anonymity. In addition to the introduction letter, participants signed a consent form agreeing to participate in the study.

The consent form informed participants that the study included an online survey, confidentiality of the study, potential risks involved, benefits of participating in the study, information about the researcher, potential questions, personal rights as a research volunteer, and statement of consent that the volunteer participant signed electronically.

Instrumentation and Materials

Demographics

A demographic questionnaire assessed basic information regarding the participants' age, gender, ethnicity, income level, religious preference, sexual orientation,

how they heard about the study, and level of sport participation. A copy of the demographic questionnaire is provided in Appendix A.

Bem Sex-Role Inventory

The Bem Sex-role inventory was developed by Sandra Bem to classify the sex role of individuals (Bem, 1974). Previously, sex role was considered a dichotomous construct; thus, one had to be either masculine or feminine. Bem argued that individuals could possess both masculine and feminine characteristics, and to limit a person to only one would overlook individuals who, indeed, displayed both. The development of the BSRI was Bem's attempt to validate androgyny (possessing both masculine and feminine behaviors). The BSRI classifies individuals as masculine, feminine, androgynous, or undifferentiated.

The original BSRI is a 7-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (*never or almost never true*) to 7 (*almost always true*). The BSRI consists of 60 characteristics, 20 stereotypically feminine traits, 20 stereotypically masculine traits, and 20 filler or neutral items. The short form includes 30 items, half of the original form. In determining whether one is masculine, feminine, androgynous or undifferentiated, means for both the male scale items and female scale items are computed to find a raw score for masculinity and femininity. Then participants are categorized on the basis of a median split. If the participant falls above the median on both the masculine and feminine scale, they are categorized as being "androgynous." If the participant falls below the median on both the masculine and feminine scale they are categorized as being "undifferentiated." If the

participants male scale mean is higher than the male median they would be categorized as "male," and vice versa for the female scale.

Both the original and short are psychometrically sound (Bem, 1981b; Choi, Fuqua, & Newman, 2009; Lippa & Payne, 2004). Bem (1974) reported high internal consistency revealing the following coefficient alphas: for females, .75 for the Femininity subscale and .87 for the Masculinity subscale; for males, .78 for femininity and .87 for masculinity. Test-retest reliability appeared adequate: masculinity r = .90, femininity r = .90 and androgyny r = .93.

Because Bem did not use factor analysis or item-total correlations when constructing the BSRI, the scales were not considered factorially pure (Lippa & Payne, 2004). To contend with this issue, Bem developed the BSRI short-form (Bem, 1979). The short form demonstrated higher internal consistency, and does not have the same validity problems of the original (Choi et al., 2009; Lippa & Payne). Coefficient alphas were reported as: females, .84 for the Femininity scale and .88 on the Masculinity scale; males, .87 on the Femininity scale and .90 on the Masculinity scale (Bem, 1981b).

The short BSRI consists of 30 items (Bem, 1981b). Bem explained that two groups of masculine and feminine items were removed, and the short form's Masculinity and Femininity scales include the most desirable personality characteristics for each sex. The short form also includes 10 filler items, which were rated as neither more nor less desirable for either sex. Feminine traits consist of items such as *affectionate*, *sympathetic*, and *understanding*. Masculine traits consist of items such as *independent*, *assertive*, and

having a strong personality. *Reliable*, *jealous*, and *truthful* are examples of filler or neutral items. The result is a categorical variable with four different groups. Like the Original Form, the Short BSRI classifies individuals as masculine (high in the Masculine scale), feminine (high on the Feminine scale), and androgynous (high on both the Masculine and Feminine scale) or undifferentiated (low on both the Masculine and Feminine scale). This study used the Short BSRI. The permission to use the Short BSRI is provided in Appendix B.

Athletic Identity Measurement Scale

The Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS) was used to measure athletic identity (Brewer & Cornelius, 2001). Like the BSRI, the AIMS is a Likert type scale, with responses ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Brewer et al., (1993) developed the AIMS to measure both strength and exclusivity in identifying with an athletic role. Initially, the measurement was considered a superordinate unidimensional construct in which all items were summed to obtain an overall athletic identity score. Higher scores indicate higher degrees of athletic identity. The AIMS consisted of ten items that reflected social, cognitive, and affective elements of an athletic role, "*I consider myself an athlete*" and "*I need to participate in sport to feel good about myself* (see Appendix F). The AIMS revealed a .89 test-retest reliability coefficient and high internal consistency with alpha coefficients ranging from .81 to .93. (Brewer et al., 1993).

Brewer and Cornelius (2001) adapted the original AIMS when questions regarding the dimensionality of the measurement were repeatedly raised by researchers (Visek, Hurst, Maxwell, & Watson, 2008). After examining the AIMS factorial structure and invariance from years of administration, Brewer and Cornelius deleted 3 items from the original 10-item questionnaire when results indicated those three items performed poorly. The 7-item scale replaced the original form. The abbreviated AIMS is comprised of a 3 factor model, which includes the following: (a) social identity, (b) exclusivity, and (c) negative affectivity (Brewer & Cornelius). Brewer and Cornelius reported an internal reliability coefficient of .81. AIMS scores range from 7-49, with higher scores indicating higher athletic identities. Scores are measured by summation of all scores to obtain a total score for athletic identity (Visek et al.). Brewer and Cornelius found that norm for females was 30.15 (N= 482, SD =10.68). The AIMS also was found to be a valid instrument for differentiating between athletes (M=38.21, SD =6.54) and non-athletes (M=24.45, SD =9.56) in a large diverse sample (N=2114). The AIMS takes approximately 5 minutes to complete. The permission to use the AIMS is provided in Appendix E, and a copy of the AIMS is provided in Appendix F.

Lesbian Internalized Homophobia Scale

The Lesbian Internalized Homophobia Scale (LIHS) is used to measure internalized homophobia. The LIHS was developed by Szymanski & Chung in 2001 (Szymanski, Chung, & Balsam, 2001) as an answer to accurately evaluate lesbians for internalized homophobia. Prior to the development of the LIHS, the several instruments

used to measure internalized homophobia were specifically studied to use with gay men (Szymanski et al., 2001). The authors argued that the use of those existing instruments when examining lesbians was problematic because the instruments were developed from data involving gay men and culture of gay men (Szymanski & Chung, 2001). Thus, they developed the LIHS in order to more accurately represent the lesbian population.

The LIHS (Szymanski & Chung, 2001) consists of 52 items, with subscales assessing the following 5 dimensions: "(1) connection with the lesbian community (CLC), (2) public identification as a lesbian (PIL), (3) personal feelings about being a lesbian (PFL), (4) moral and religious attitudes toward lesbianism (MRATL), and (5) attitudes toward other lesbians (ATOL). (1) connection with the lesbian community (CLC), (2) public identification as a lesbian (PIL), (3) personal feelings about being a lesbian (PFL), (4) moral and religious attitudes toward lesbianism (MRATL), and (5) attitudes toward other lesbians (ATOL)" (p. 118) . According to Szymanski et al., (2001), the 52 items were derived from theoretical papers (23 items), adapted published scales of internalized homophobia (11 items), and the rest were written by the authors (18 items). The sample consisted of 303 women, 70.5% identified as lesbian, 18.2% identified as bisexual but primarily lesbian, 7% bisexual but primarily heterosexual, 3.6 % heterosexual, and .07% other (Szymanski & Chung, 2001).

Each item is scored on a 7-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Average total and subscale scores are used with higher scores indicating a greater degree of internalized homophobia. Szymanski and Chung

(2001) reported the following coefficient alphas: .87 (CLC), .92 (PIL), .79 (PFL), .74 (MRATL), and .77 (ATOL); the alpha coefficient for the total scale was .94. Correlations between the total and subscale scores ranged from .60 to .87. Test-retest reliability was sound revealing a total scale score of .93 and subscale scores ranging from .75 to .93. Permission to use the LIHS is provided in Appendix C, and a copy of the LIHS is provided in Appendix D.

Data Analysis

This study utilized Chi Square, *t*-tests and correlation to analyze the data. Chi square was used to analyze hypothesis one. Chi square is a robust test when the variables are categorical (McHugh, 2013), as in the case of this research. Hypothesis one of this study examined the differences between gender schema and sport participation (4 x 2).

Hypothesis two and hypothesis three were evaluated by *t*-tests. Hypotheses two and three investigated the differences between sports participation and athletic identity groups and sport participation and internalized homophobia groups.

Correlation was used to analyze hypothesis four, which examined the relationship between internalized homophobia and athletic identity. Correlation is appropriate when examining the measure of association between two variables (Huberty, 2003). Thus, correlation is appropriate for this hypothesis. The instruments were electronically scored and the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21 was used for data analysis.

Preliminary Analysis

Descriptive statistics describe basic features of the data and provide summaries about the sample and the measures (Cresswell, 2008). For this study, descriptive statistics included basic demographic information for the sample, mean and standard deviation for all continuous variables. For categorical data, frequency counts for the groups as determined by the Short BSRI were presented. A Cronbach's alpha will be performed to test the reliability of scores obtained by the BSRI, AIMS, and LIHS.

Main Analysis

Research Question 1. Is there a difference in sport participation in lesbians with different gender schemas (masculine, feminine, androgynous or undifferentiated)?

$H1_0$: There is no significant difference in the sports participation in lesbians with different gender schemas, as measured by the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI).

$H1_a$: There is a significant difference in the sports participation in lesbians with different gender schemas, as measured by the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI).

Analysis of Hypothesis 1. To examine hypothesis 1, a Chi Square will be conducted to compare sport participation, a categorical variable, of lesbians with masculine schemas, feminine schemas, androgynous schemas and undifferentiated schemas, all categorical variables. A significance level of $p=<.05$ will be set as the test criteria to indicate if a significant difference is found.

Research Question 2. Is there a difference in the athletic identity of lesbians who are more or less active in sports?

$H2_0$: There is no significant difference in athletic identity, as measured by the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS), of lesbians who are more or less active in sports.

$H2_a$: There is a significant difference in athletic identity, as measured by the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS), of lesbians who are more or less active in sports.

Analysis of Hypothesis 2. To examine hypothesis 2, *t*-test will be conducted to compare sport participation, a categorical variable, of lesbians with levels of athletic identity, an interval variable. A significance level of p=<.05 will be set as the test criteria to indicate if a significant difference is found.

Research Question 3. Is there a difference in the internalized homophobia experienced by lesbians who are more or less active in sports?

$H3_0$: There is no significant difference in internalized homophobia, as measured by the Lesbian Homophobia Scale (LIHS), in lesbians who are more or less active in sports.

$H3_a$: There is a significant difference in internalized homophobia, as measured by the Lesbian Internalized Homophobia Scale (LIHS), in lesbians who are more or less active in sports.

Analysis of Hypothesis 3. To examine hypothesis 3, a *t*-test will be conducted to compare sport participation, a categorical variable, of lesbians with levels of internalized

homophobia, an interval variable. A significance level of p=<.05 will be set as the test criteria to indicate if a significant difference is found.

Research Question 4. Is there a relationship between internalized homophobia and athletic identity?

$H4_0$: There is no relationship between internalized homophobia, as measured by the Lesbian Internalized Homophobia Scale (LIHS) and athletic identity, as measured by the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS).

$H4_a$: There is a negative relationship between internalized homophobia, as measured by the Lesbian Internalized Homophobia Scale and athletic identity, as measured by the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS).

Pearson correlation analysis will be used to examine the relationship between the interval variable of internalized homophobia and the interval variable of athletic identity.

Protection of Participants' Rights

Due to the nature of the study, there are minimal risks involved. It is possible that lesbians who choose to hide their sexual orientation or who are not completely at ease with their sexuality may experience some discomfort. Prior to the start of the experiment, participants were given an introductory letter and an informed consent that informed them that their participation was voluntary and they could quit the survey at any time without penalty. The anonymity of the study creates less pressure for participants who may feel a stigma attached to identifying as lesbian (Wejnert & Heckathorn, 2008). Regardless of the low risk involved, careful consideration was given to the potential risks

involved. Participants could, at any time, quit the study. They were given a national hotline if they experience discomfort and wished to talk to someone. Participants were never asked for their personal information and could not be identified. The surveys were administered on the QuestionPro website. In the Advanced Options menu of the website, QuestionPro allows the administrator to edit the survey administration options. The administrator enabled the security feature that allows individual email addresses to have unique passwords. Thus, the data had no identifying information. To further ensure confidentiality of participants, the data is stored in a pass-protected file. The file will be destroyed two-years after completion.

Chapter 4 begins with a review of the research questions and hypotheses of the study, and thoroughly describes sample demographics, including descriptive statistics. Data collection procedures are outlined, and the results are presented. Tables and figures are included to illustrate the results.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate how sport participation of lesbian women is influenced by gender schema, athletic identity and internalized homophobia, and whether or not there is a relationship between internalized homophobia and athletic identity. The four research questions and hypotheses are described below.

Research Questions

The four research questions and hypotheses for this study are described below.

Research Question 1

Is there a difference in sport participation in lesbians with different gender schemas (masculine, feminine, androgynous or undifferentiated)?

$H1_0$: There is no significant difference in the sports participation in lesbians with different gender schemas, as measured by the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI).

$H1_a$: There is a significant difference in the sports participation in lesbians with different gender schemas, as measured by the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI).

Research Question 2

Is there a difference in the athletic identity of lesbians who are more or less active in sports?

$H2_0$: There is no significant difference in athletic identity, as measured by the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS), of lesbians who are more or less active in sports.

$H2_a$: There is a significant difference in athletic identity, as measured by the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS), of lesbians who are more or less active in sports.

Research Question 3

Is there a difference in the internalized homophobia experienced by lesbians who are more or less active in sports?

$H3_0$: There is no significant difference in internalized homophobia, as measured by the Lesbian Homophobia Scale (LIHS), in lesbians who are more or less active in sports.

$H3_a$: There is a significant difference in internalized homophobia, as measured by the Lesbian Internalized Homophobia Scale (LIHS), in lesbians who are more or less active in sports.

Research Question 4

Is there a relationship between athletic identity and internalized homophobia?

$H4_0$: There is no relationship between internalized homophobia, as measured by the Lesbian Internalized Homophobia Scale (LIHS) and athletic identity, as measured by the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS).

$H4_a$: There is a negative relationship between internalized homophobia, as measured by the Lesbian Internalized Homophobia Scale and athletic identity, as measured by the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS).

Sample Demographic Characteristics

An invitation to participate in the study was sent to Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender (LGBT) centers. The center administrators were asked to forward the request to their members. Invitations to participate in the study were posted on LGBT listservs, Facebook pages, Craigslist, and Yahoo Groups. Data was collected over a three month period.

There were a total of 447 responses to the questionnaire. Of these, 49 cases were not included because the participant did not identify as female and lesbian. An additional 172 cases were not included due to missing data. Out of the 172 cases that were not included, 166 of those participants either did not answer any survey questions or only answered a few questions. The remaining six cases, participants did not complete the survey.

The age range of the sample was from 18 to 70, with the mean age being 33.8. All participants identified as female, and as lesbian. A majority of the participants identified as White, non-Hispanic (84.9). Most (31.9%) of the participants fell in the lowest income bracket of $0 to 24,999, with 22.6% falling in the $25,000-49,000 range. More than half (57.1%) of the study participants indicated no religious preference. Frequencies and percentages are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Frequencies and Percentages for Demographic Characteristics

Demographic	*n*	%
Gender		
Female	226	100
Race or Ethnicity		
American Indian or Alaska Native	2	1.0
Asian or Pacific Islander	7	3.3
Black or African American	11	5.3
White, non-Hispanic	177	84.7
Hispanic or Latino	8	3.8
Mixed Race	17	7.5
Other	4	1.9
Sexual Orientation		
Lesbian	226	100
Religious Preference		
Catholic	21	9.3
Christian Fundamentalist	16	7.1
Jewish	4	1.8
Protestant	7	3.1
Muslim	2	0.9
Hindu	0	0.0
Buddhist	4	1.8
No Religious Preference	129	57.1
Other	43	19.0
Household Income		
$0–$24,999	72	31.9
$25,000–$49,999	51	22.6
$50,000–$74,999	38	16.8
$75,000–$99,999	29	12.8
$100,000–$150,000	26	11.5
$150,000 or more	10	4.4

Table 2

Percentages for Participant Locations by U.S. State

State	%
CA	12.85
NY	09.15
TX	04.58
MA	03.92
FL	03.70
PA	03.70
MD	03.05
OR	02.61
MI	02.40
HI	01.96
WA	01.74
MN	01.53
CT	01.53
NV	01.31
MO	01.31
SC	01.31
AL	01.31
AZ	01.31
VA	01.31
NE	01.31
IL	01.31
ME	01.09
OK	01.09
NC	01.09
TN	01.09
OH	01.09
WI	00.87
LA	00.87
IN	00.65
VT	00.65
NH	00.65
CO	00.44
KS	00.44
RI	00.44
IA	00.44
UT	00.44
NM	00.22
ID	00.22
MS	00.22
AK	00.22
DC	00.22
GA	00.22
AR	00.22
Outside/Unknown	15.03

Participants were recruited via social media sites, listservs, and snowball method. All but seven states were represented in this survey with California (12.85%) and New York (9.15) having the highest percentages. Percentages for participant locations by U.S state are presented in Table 2. Most respondents heard about the study through Facebook (44%). Recruitment forum percentages are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Percentages for Participant Recruitment

Recruitment Forum	%
Facebook	44.21
Craigslist	18.24
Listserv	15.43
Friend	13.68
Unknown	08.42

According to the Pew Research Center (2013), 80 % of lesbian adults surveyed used a social networking site, which is where I received most of my participants for this study. The report estimated the U.S. LGBT population to be in the 3.5% to 5% range. Of the lesbians surveyed, 70% were White, 11% were Black, and 15% were Hispanic; 28% took some college courses and 36% had a Bachelor's Degree or higher; 41% had an annual family income between 30,000 and 74,999 and 39% had a family income less than 30,000.

Preliminary Analyses

Preliminary analyses were conducted to investigate the data. Descriptive statistics were used to examine the raw data set for errors and outliers. The assumptions of

normality and homogeneity of variance were assessed using Levene's test for equality of variances (Voyt, 2007). A significant Levene's test would reveal a violation of homogeneity. To adjust for a violation of homogeneity, the degrees of freedom equal variances not assumed were used. Results for Levene's Test for Equality of Variance for internalized homophobia revealed homogeneity of variance (.584). Results for Levene's test on athletic identity was significant (greater than .05), which violated the assumption of variance (.002). Therefore, I used the equal variances not assumed *t*-test results.

Reliability

A Chronbach's alpha was conducted on each instrument to provide an estimate of internal consistency reliability. Falk and Savalei (2011) reported that .7 is a common cutoff criterion. Chronbach's alpha scores for this study were as follows: .785 for the BSRI; .894 for the AIMS; .877 for subscale CLC of the LIHS; .923 for subscale PIL of the LIHS; .838 for subscale PFL of the LIHS; .627 for subscale ATOL of the LIHS; and .817 for subscale MRAT of the LIHS.

Descriptive Statistics and Frequencies

Descriptive statistics for study instruments are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for Study Instruments and Scales: Current Study

Instrument	N	Median	Mode	*M*	*SD*
BSRI Masculinity	226	4.85	4.50	4.85	0.84
BSRI Femininity	226	5.80	5.70	5.76	0.80
AIMS	226	16.50	7.00	18.85	10.01
LIHS	226	1.87	1.12	2.02	0.77

The mean BSRI Masculinity Scale score for the current study (M=4.85; SD=0.84) was somewhat higher than the mean BSRI Masculinity Scale score (M=4.78; SD=0.81) for the normative data for females (Bem, 1981a, p. 12). The mean BSRI Femininity Scale score for the current study (M=5.76; SD=0.80), was somewhat higher than the mean BSRI Femininity Scale score (M=5.57, SD=0.76) for the normative data for females (Bem, 1981a, p. 12).

The mean AIMS score for the current study (M=18.85; SD=10.01) was lower than the mean AIMS score (M=30.15; SD=10.68) from the data for females from Brewer and Cornelius (2001, p. 106). The mean LIHS score for the current study (M=2.02; SD=0.77) was somewhat higher than mean score from the data for females with unconflicted lesbian sexual orientation self-identification (M=1.93; SD=0.57) from Symanski et al. (2001, p. 34).

Table 5

BSRI Gender Schema Frequencies and Percentages: Current Study

Gender Schema	*n*	%
Masculine	54	23.9
Feminine	50	22.1
Androgynous	59	26.1
Undifferentiated	63	27.9
Total	226	100.0

The percentage of the participants in the current study with a masculine gender schema (23.9%) was higher than for females (15.6%) in the normative sample (Bem, 1981a, p. 71). In the current study, the percentage of participants with a feminine gender schema (22.1%) was somewhat lower than for females (23.8%) in the normative sample. The percentage of participants in the current study with an androgynous gender schema (37.1%) was higher than for females (26.1%) in the normative sample. In the current study, the percentage of participants with an undifferentiated gender schema (27.9%) was somewhat higher than for females (23.5%) in the normative sample.

Main Analysis

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis looked for whether or not there was a difference in sports participation for lesbians with different gender schemas (masculine, feminine,

androgynous, or undifferentiated). The independent variable was gender schema, comprised of masculine, feminine, androgynous and undifferentiated based on the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI). The dependent variable was sport participation (dichotomous: participation/non-participation). A Pearson's chi Square test of independence was performed on the data set to investigate differences between the two groups of sport participation and gender schema. Table 6 presents the findings of the chi-square analysis.

Table 6

Differences in BSRI Gender Schema Group by Sport Participation

	Sport Participation					
	NonParticipation		Participation		Total	
Gender Schema	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
Masculine	27.0	11.9	27.0	11.9	54.0	27.9
Feminine	35.0	15.5	15.0	6.6	50.0	22.1
Androgynous	42.0	18.6	17.0	7.5	59.0	26.1
Undifferentiated	43.0	19.0	20.0	8.8	63.0	27.9
Total	147.0	65.0	79.0	35.0	226.0	100.0

Note. Chi Square (3, N = 226) = 7.18, $p = .40$.

The results indicated that sport participation did not differ significantly across gender schema groups. Therefore, I failed to reject the null for hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis looked for whether or not there was a difference in the athletic identity of lesbians who were more or less active in sports. An independent samples *t* test was performed to determine if there was a significant difference in Athletic Identity Scale scores between the respondents who participated in sports and those who did not. Table 7 presents the findings of the independent samples *t* test.

Table 7

Differences in Athletic Identity by Sport Participation

Athletic Identity	*n*	Mean	*SD*
Participation	79	27.48	9.20
Non-Participation	147	14.21	6.88

Note. t(224) =-12.25, $p<.001$.

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare athletic identity scores for sports participation and non-participation. The results indicated a significant difference in the athletic identity scores for those who did not participate in sports (M=14.21; SD=6.88) and those who did participate in sports (M=27.48; SD=9.20); t(224)=-12.25, $p<.001$. The mean difference=-13.27, 95% CI:-15.40 - -11.14. The effect size (d = 1.63) was found to exceed Cohen's (1988) convention for a large effect (d = .80). An effect size of 1.63 indicates that the mean of athletic identity scores for sport participation is at the 94.5 percentile (Cohen, 1988) of the non-participation group. The null hypothesis was rejected for hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis looked for whether or not there was a difference in internalized homophobia for lesbians who were more or less active in sports. An independent samples *t* test was performed to determine if there was a significant difference in Lesbian Internalized Homophobia Scale scores between those who participated in sports and those who did not. Table 8 presents the findings of the independent samples *t* test.

Table 8

Differences in Internalized Homophobia by Sport Participation

Internalized Homophobia	*n*	Mean	*SD*
Participation	79	2.02	.794
Non-Participation	147	2.02	.757

Note. t(224) = 0.027, p=.979.

The results found no significant difference in internalized homophobia scores for those who did not participate in sports (M=2.02; SD=.757) and those who did participate in sports (M=2.02, SD=.794); t(224)=.027, p = .979. Thus, I failed to reject the null hypothesis for hypothesis 3.

Hypothesis 4

The fourth hypothesis looked at the relationship between athletic identity and internalized homophobia. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between athletic identity and internalized homophobia. The test revealed that

there was not a significant correlation between the two variables, r(224) = 0.127, *p* = 0.57.

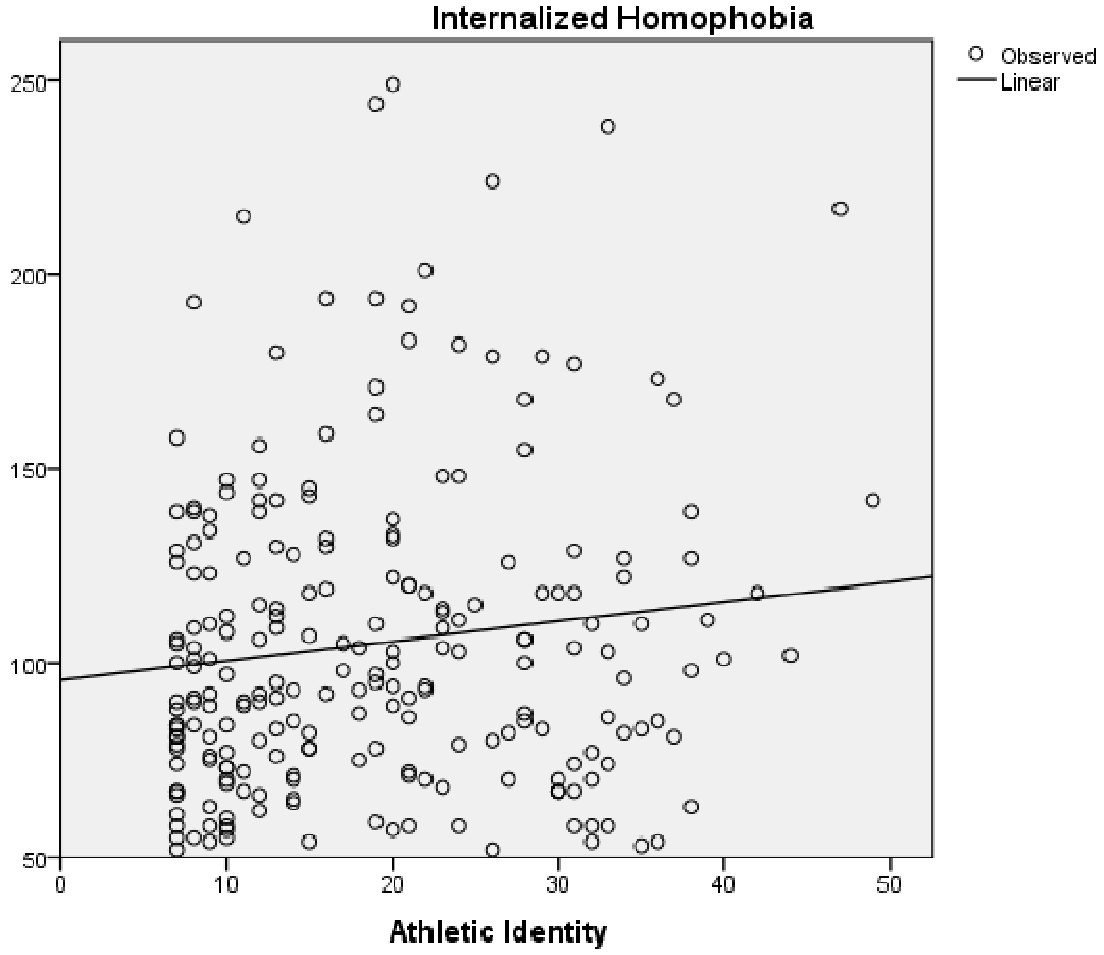

Figure 1. Athletic identity by internalized homophobia.

Summary

The findings for hypothesis 1 were not significant, suggesting that gender schema does not influence sport participation in lesbians. This finding is noteworthy because it

differs from similar research conducted on women's gender schema and participation in sport. Implications will be discussed in Chapter 5.

Hypothesis 2 examined athletic identity of lesbians and sport participation. The findings indicated a significant difference in the athletic identity scores for those who did not participate in sports. This finding supports previous research on athletic identity and sport participation.

Hypothesis 3 examined internalized homophobia experienced by lesbians and sport participation. The findings were not significant, suggesting that lesbian sport participation did not impact internalized homophobia.

The findings for hypothesis 4 were not significant, indicating that there was not a significant correlation between athletic identity and internalized homophobia. Since, both the AIMS and LIHS are psychometrically sound, a weak effect ($p=.057$) between athletic identity and internalized homophobia may be indicated.

Chapter 5 will describe how the findings of Chapter 2 literature review will either confirm and/or extend the knowledge of women, particularly lesbians, and sport participation. Additionally, the findings will be interpreted, limitations will be identified, recommendations for future research will be discussed, and impact for social change will be addressed.

Chapter 5: Discussion

Introduction

Researchers have established that women are stigmatized for sport participation (Alley & Hicks, 2005; Knight & Giuliano, 2001, Krane, 2001; Lantz & Schroeder, 1999; Martin & Martin, 1995; Schmalz & Kerstetter, 2006). The stigma revolves around social attitudes towards femininity and heterosexuality. Female athletes are faced with a feminine/athletic paradox since athleticism is associated with masculinity (Chawanski & Francombe, 2011; Schmalz & Kerstetter). Thus, women who participate in sports may deal with the conflict of the feminine/athletic paradox by attempting to appear feminine and heterosexual, a practice known as the apologetic defense (Newhall & Buzuvis, 2008). Apologetic defense includes behaviors such as wearing heavy makeup during sport participation; adorning oneself with feminine accessories, such as pink ribbons; and talking about boyfriends or husbands when interviewed. For lesbian athletes, the stigma is more difficult to overcome because lesbians face added discrimination and negativity because they are gay. In order to participate in an apologetic defense, the lesbian athlete must deny her sexual orientation.

The purpose of this study was to examine whether or not a sample of lesbian women would have similar outcomes as previous research on women and sports that did not specifically study lesbians. This study investigated the relationship between sport participation and gender schema; sport participation and athletic identity; and sport participation and internalized homophobia. Additionally, the relationship between athletic

identity and internalized homophobia was examined since there are no studies to date that have studied these two variables. Since lesbians often must hide their sexual orientation when participating in sports (Chawanski & Francombe, 2011), I hypothesized that the fear of being exposed and the act of denying one's sexual orientation could increase internalized homophobia.

Findings

The instruments used to measure gender schema, athletic identity, and internalized homophobia were the Bem Sex Role Inventory, the Athletic Identity Scale, and the Lesbian Internalized Homophobia scale, respectively. Sport participation was determined by participants' responses on the demographic questionnaire. They indicated their level of involvement in sports over the previous year: never, less than once a month, once a month, one or more times a week. Sport participation was then dichotomized as participation and non-participation. One or more times a week was considered participation while never, less than once a month, and once a month were collapsed into non-participation.

Participants were recruited using both convenience sample and snowball method. Invitations were sent to lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender (LGBT) centers and listservs requesting distribution to members; Invitations were also posted on Craigslist, Facebook, and Yahoo Groups. Respondents were asked to forward the link to other lesbians 18 years of age or older. Surveys were completed in an online format using QuestionPro.

According to the results of this study, research question 1 was not significant (there was no difference in sport participation in lesbians with different gender schemas): $\chi 2(3, N = 226)=7.18$, $p =.40$; research question 2 revealed a significant difference in the athletic identity of lesbians who were more or less active in sports: $t(224)=-12.25$, $p<.001$, Cohens $d=1.63$; research question 3 did not reveal a significant difference in the internalized homophobia experienced by lesbians who were more or less active in sports: $t(224)=.027$, $p = .979$; and research question 4 did not find a correlation between athletic identity and internalized homophobia: $r(224)=.127$, $p=.057$.

Interpretation of Findings

Athleticism and femininity have long been found to be an oxymoron, a paradox, a social conflict-for the female athlete. Athletic behavior is associated with masculinity (Krane, 2001; Schmalz & Kerstetter, 2000). Thus, it makes sense that research has found that women who play sports tend to perceive themselves as more masculine than non-athletes (Lantz & Schroeder, 1999) and are perceived by others to be more masculine than their non-athletic counterparts (Hovden & Pfister, 2006). Research has consistently found that women who participate in sports report greater affiliation with a masculine gender schema than non-athletes (Andre & Holland, 1995; Craig, Wrisberg, Draper, & Everett, 1988; Daniels, Sincharoen, & Leaper, 2005; Edwards, Gordin & Henschen, 1984; Guillet et al., 2006); Harrison & Lynch, 2005; Lantz & Schroeder, 1999; Richman & Shaffer, 2000; Wilinski, 2012). Gender schema theory postulates that individuals

develop a certain gender schema according to how she interprets social perceptions of masculinity and femininity (Bem, 1981b).

According to Bem, sex-typed behaviors are consistent with the social norms of that particular gender. Thus, boys adhere to masculine social norms and stereotypes for their gender and girls adhere to feminine social norms and stereotypes for their gender. Research supports this notion evidenced by the extensive research that has found a relationship between sport participation and a masculine gender schema **(**Lantz & Schroeder, 1999; Schmalz & Kerstetter, 2000, Krane, 2001). It was surprising to find that the current study did not find a difference in sport participation across gender groups. The results of Research Question 1 do not confirm what has been found in the peer-reviewed literature described in Chapter 2 regarding women's gender schema and sport behavior. For example, Guillet et al. (2006) found that females who identified with a masculine identity were more likely to participate in sport rather than dropout of sport. The current study's findings that lesbian women with a feminine gender schema did not significantly differ in participation in sports are significant in understanding lesbian behavior and attitudes. It seems that lesbians may not have as rigid sex-roles as heterosexual women. Although sports are still widely considered a male domain and associated with a masculine identity, lesbians may be less limited in their gender expression.

Just as masculinity has been associated with sport participation, so has athletic identity. As discussed in the literature review in Chapter 2, research indicates that a strong identification with an athletic identity is related to a greater amount of time spent

on sports (Brewer et al., 1993; Cornelius, 1995; Lau et al., 2005.). Individuals who adopt an athletic identity are more likely to participate in sports. My research supports what has been found in the existing literature. Lesbians who identified with an athletic identity engaged in sports more than those who did not identify with an athletic identity: t (224) = -12.25, $p < .001$; $d = 1.63$. The effect size indicates a large effect, which has been found in previous research. Brewer et al. (1993) reported a large effect size ($d = 2.61$) between athletic identity and self in the sport role, and Lau et al. (2005) reported a large effect size ($d = 1.88$) between sport identity and sport participation.

This particular finding is not surprising in itself. However, because Research Question 1 was not significant (gender schema did not influence sport participation), the result that athletic identity did influence sport participation may further support that lesbians are not influenced by social norms as much as heterosexual women. As discussed in the literature review, athletics and masculinity are viewed as synonymous. In my study, those who identified with an athletic role were more likely to participate in sports; however, a masculine gender schema did not influence sport participation.

The results may also indicate that lesbians do not face the same role-conflict as heterosexual women. The female/athlete dichotomy has been well-researched and supported (Chawanski & Francombe, 2011; Newhall & Buzuvis, 2008; Schmalz & Kerstetter, 2006). Females who participate in sports often quit in order to maintain their femininity or attempt to appear feminine while playing sports. Although lesbians who identified as feminine had the lowest percentage of sport participation (6.6%), the

difference between all groups was not significant. Interestingly, the undifferentiated group (8.8%) had the second highest rate of participation after the masculine group. Undifferentiated women scored low both on femininity and masculinity scores (Bem, 1974). This may suggest that lesbians do not subscribe to the same traditional gender-roles as heterosexual women, thereby not identifying as either feminine or masculine. Thus, they are free to express any gender-role, and not feel pressured to display feminine apologetic behaviors when participating in sports.

It should be noted, however, that the current study examined a nationwide sample of lesbians who indicated their level of sport participation in the demographic questionnaire. Studies that examined gender schema and sport behavior generally studied athletes versus non-athletes. Thus, the interpretation that lesbians differ from females in general should be taken with caution, and a follow-up study should be conducted specifically examining professional (including NCAA and Olympic) lesbian athletes and lesbian non-athletes.

Since lesbians may not hold to sex-typed behaviors or feel the social pressure to appear feminine, this may explain why there was not a relationship between sport participation and internalized homophobia or athletic identity and internalized homophobia. I wanted to investigate the relationship between internalized homophobia and sports since much of the bias against women in sports involves heterosexism and homophobia (Ravel & Rail, 2007). Research has suggested that internalized homophobia is associated with overt discrimination and the fear of discrimination (Cox et al., 2011).

Since research suggests that lesbians who disclose their sexual orientation, but who are rejected and stigmatized suffer psychological distress (Cox, Vanden, Berghe, Dewaele & Vincke, 2008), lesbians who are forced to hide their sexual orientation or who suffer stigmatization while playing sport are at risk for psychological distress.

If lesbians fear being *outed* (sexual orientation revealed without permission), are forced to hide their sexual orientation, or are subjected to discrimination, I hypothesized that lesbians engaging in sports would have higher levels of internalized homophobia.

The results did not find a relationship between internalized homophobia and sport participation or internalized homophobia and athletic identity. However, a subsequent study should be conducted to examine internalized homophobia of professional athletes. In the current study, I did not separate recreational sports from professional sports. Excessive homophobia and heterosexism has been found in college sports, Olympic sports and professional sports, as discussed in the literature review. Since I only asked how often one participated in sports, I don't know what percentage was recreation versus professional. It could be that women participating in recreational sports do not face the same level of bias and discrimination. This supports research on internalized homophobia that shows a higher risk for developing internalized homophobia when an individual is exposed to heterosexism and antigay attitudes (Peterson & Gerrity, 2006).

Lesbians participating in recreation sports may play alongside other lesbians since in recreation sports, it is the players who organize and develop their own teams. As discussed in the literature review in Chapter 2, individuals who expect to be

discriminated because of their sexual orientation, are isolated from other lesbians, and do not talk to supportive others about lesbian related issues have higher degrees of internalized homophobia (Lewis et al., 2006). Recreation sports do not have the same social constraints that professional sports have. Thus, it makes sense that lesbians participating in recreation sports do not have the same pressure and stigmatization as professional athletes.

Limitations of Study

This study included a number of limitations. One limitation was the use of convenience sample administered through the Internet. Although Internet studies using convenience samples such as mine have been used extensively for hard to reach populations (Alessi & Martin, 2010), selection bias can be an issue. Browne (2005) argues that selection bias occurs in Internet studies due to the non-representative nature of population and the self-selection of the participants. Individuals choose to participate in studies based on their interest. Internet-based studies have unknown factors (Alessi & Martin). Response rate cannot be determined. It is unknown how many lesbians received the solicitation announcement and chose not to participate. It is also unknown why an individual dropped out of the study. Lesbians who did not have access to the Internet or a computer were unable to participate. It is unknown if there is a difference between lesbians who choose to participate in an online study from those who do not. Since this was not a probability sample, generalizability is limited (Mathy et al., 2003).

Another limitation of the study is how sport participation was assessed. Currently, there is no reliable instrument used to determine sport participation. Bowker et al. (2003) stated that research measuring sports participation "has often employed a fairly crude participation measure" (p. 49). Since respondents were asked to indicate their participation in sports over a month period, the definition of sport participation is determined by each individual. Thus, one person may think that running is considered a sport, whereas another person may not. Identifying specific sports in which women participate may lead to a more robust study.

Recommendations

The findings of this quantitative study indicate the need for further research. I recommend a number of follow-up studies. First, a study should be conducted using a probability sample using professional athletes and non-athletes. Since the results of my study indicated a weak effect between athletic identity and internalized homophobia, research specifically examining lesbians participating in professional sports is essential. It can be hypothesized that lesbians participating in professional sports, NCAA, and Olympic sports have more pressure to appear heterosexual and feminine than lesbians participating in recreational sports. Since my study did not determine whether women were professional or recreational athletes, a future study would be beneficial.

The type of sport in which women participated was not determined in my study. Thus, I recommend a future study that examined specific sports. The population sample could be athletes from various sports including gender neutral sports, such as swimming;

feminine sports, such as dancing; and masculine sports, such as basketball and football. Examining specific gendered sports would determine if the type of sport in which women participate influences gender-schema, athletic identity and internalized homophobia.

Implications for Social Change

The implications for social change are vast. Women have overcome many obstacles preventing them from participating in sports. The passage of Title IX to the 1964 Civil Rights Act specifically addressed sex discrimination by educational institutions. Title IX demanded that women be afforded the same opportunity as men through opportunity and rewards (Anderson et al., 2006). Since the passing of Title IX, women's participation in sports has significantly increased. According to Stevenson (2010), less than three hundred thousand girls participated in high school sports in 1971-1972 compared to 3.1 million in 2008-2009.

Although a substantial amount of women participate in sports, women continue to face obstacles when competing in athletics (Billings, Angelini, & Eastman, 2005, Schmalz & Kerstetter, 2006, Newhall & Buzuvis, 2008, Chawanski & Francombe, 2011). Female athletes continue to be stigmatized, which has reinforced feminine apologetic behaviors by female athletes and an over-focus on femininity and heterosexuality by media. Researchers agree that much of the stigma associated with female athletes is the fear that the athlete is lesbian (Lantz & Schroeder, 1999; Ravel & Rail, 2007; Schmalz & Kerstetter, 2006).

Lesbians have the added issue of heterosexism and homophobia to deal with if they choose to play sports. Since social change occurs incrementally at various stages throughout our culture, this study can have implications on a national, community and individual level. Individually, lesbians are placed in a stress-inducing environment. Cox et al. (2010) reported four areas of stress that impact sexual minorities: discrimination, concealment of sexual orientation, expectations of discrimination and internalized homophobia. Each of these stressful situations is relevant to the lesbian female athlete. Lesbian athletes have faced discrimination by fellow teammates, coaches, and fans (Adams & Tuggle, 2004; Billings et al., 2005). Due to discrimination, bias, and pressure to appear heterosexual, lesbian athletes are pressured to conceal their orientation; discrimination and bias is expected. Internalized homophobia occurs when the lesbian believes societal views about homosexuality. Internalized homophobia is present to some degree in most, if not all, lesbians (Frost & Meyer, 2009). Lesbians who have experienced discrimination and who have higher degrees of internalized homophobia are more likely to suffer depression and mental health issues (Cox et al., 2008).

Although lesbians must endure stressful situations that can lead to depression, as a population, lesbians also have stress-ameliorating factors. Meyer (2003) pointed out that group solidarity and cohesiveness can be a protective factor for the lesbian population. Specifically, the act of coming out can help the individual with improved coping skills and dealing with the adverse effects of stress. On an individual level, lesbians can become aware of the impact of social stereotypes, discrimination, and bias that impacts

women's sport. In turn, she can understand the ramifications of concealing her sexual orientation and whether or not, she decides to come out, she can find support in her community, including her team. Thus, internalized homophobia can be addressed and possibly minimized.

An example of how social change occurs through an individual is the Michael Sam story. Sam attended University of Missouri where he played on the Missouri Tiger football team. Sam came out to his teammates and was widely supported. When the Westboro Baptist Church boycotted a Missouri basketball game in protest of Sam, the students created a human wall while singing their alma mater (Patterson, 2014). After Sam graduated Missouri, and had prospects of playing in the NFL, he announced in an interview with ESPN that he is gay. Sam will become the first openly gay NFL football player if he is drafted. Sam's example shows how an individual can influence his community and impact change at a national level. Although it is too early to tell how long positive social change will take on a National front, social change has begun just by his courage to come out to a league that has been openly homophobic.

Much like Sam's impact on his community, this study can have implications for a community in the same way. Individually, lesbians who participate in sports and confront homophobic and heterosexist practices merely by just playing sports, can make a positive difference. Although females are still stigmatized for participating in sports and heterosexism is currently a standard practice, there have been numerous lesbians who have come out. Tennis player Martina Navratilova, golfer Rosie Jones, and basketball

player Sheryl Swoopes came out in 1982, 2004 and 2005, respectively (Chawanski & Francombe, 2011). Recently, other lesbian athletes have also come out, including WNBA player Brittney Griner and Olympian soccer player Megan Rapinoe (Aagenes, 2013). When high profile athletes come out, it can empower local lesbian athletes and have an impact on local communities. Policy change can be adopted when heterosexist and homophobic practices are existent in community sports, even if the athlete does not disclose her sexual orientation. Sport's organizations can be subject to trainings and workshops that address homophobia and heterosexism. They can also participate in sensitivity trainings and enact a no tolerance policy on discrimination.

At a National level, not only should policy be addressed and changed when heterosexist and homophobic practices occur, but penalties should be instituted and enforced. Specifically, educational institutions, professional teams, and Olympic Games should be made aware of these practices, and penalties should be assessed for discrimination and bias against lesbian athletes. Mandatory trainings should be required of all staff, trainers, coaches, and team personnel.

Change begins with knowledge and understanding of a problem. This study hopes to underscore the issue of prejudice, homophobia, and heterosexism in women's sports at a community and national level. The impact of homophobic attitudes towards women has yet to be determined. Additional research is needed.

Conclusion

In the 35 plus years since the passage of Title IX, the rise of women in sports has increased. However, men continue to significantly outnumber women competing in sports (Anderson, Cheslock, & Ehrenberg, 2006). According to the U.S. Department of Education (2010), in 2004, 15.5 percent of high school senior boys took sports lessens whereas only 9.9 percent of high school senior girls took sports lessons. In the same year, 28.3 percent of high school senior boys played non-school sports compared to 15.9 percent of high school senior girls who played non-school sports. College sport participation has also shown an increase in women competing in sports since 1972, but there is still a disparity between men and women. For instance, Anderson et al. (2006) reported that since 1972 women athletes increased from 15 % to 42%. However, in a 2004 report, the California Community College Athletic Association (CCCAA) commission on athletics revealed that women's participation in community college sports lagged behind men's participation in sports; sport participation rates for women were 34 percent compared to participation rates of 66 percent for men. Scholars argue that social stigma is widely attributed to females quitting sport or choosing not to participate in sport Daniels et al., 2006; Knight & Giuliano, 2001; Shakib & Dunbar, 2004).

This study examined the relationship between sport participation and gender schema, sport participation and athletic identity, sport participation and internalized homophobia, and athletic identity and internalized homophobia in the lesbian population. Women in sport has been extensively studied especially the double-bind that females

must address when choosing to participate in sports. Can they maintain their femininity while playing sports and can they make it known that they are heterosexual? In order to appear heterosexual and feminine, female athletes adopt "feminine apologetic" behaviors-behaviors that highlight femininity. As I watch women's sport, the practice of feminizing a female athlete's appearance is evident. Softball players now adorn their hair with colorful pink bows. During the Olympics, female snowboarders and skiers pulled their hair, usually curled, through their goggles so it could be seen. Before a female athlete is interviewed, she reapplies makeup.

Scholars agree that the feminization of appearance and behavior is, in large part, due to the stigma around female sports that suggest that female athletes are lesbian. Lesbian athletes, especially those participating in high school sports, college level sports, Olympic Games, and professional sports and overtly and covertly encouraged to hide their sexual orientation. Because of the pressure to hide their sexual orientation, female athletes are at risk for higher degrees of internalized homophobia, and in turn, depression and mental health issues. At the very minimum, high school and college athletes may postpone coming out.

Regardless of the personal issues related to lesbians who want to play sports in a healthy environment, women's sport must be viewed in terms of athletic ability and individual sport. Women athletes, lesbian or heterosexual, should not feel they need to prove they are feminine in order to play sports. The stigma associated with women's athletics must be abolished.

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Appendix A: Demographic Questionnaire

Demographic Data Sheet

Age at last birthday:
____

Gender:
___Male
___Female

Race/Ethnicity: (check all that apply)
___American Indian or Alaska Native
___Asian or Pacific Islander
___Black or African American
___White, non-Hispanic
___Hispanic or Latina
___Of Mixed Race
___Other

Sexual Orientation: (check one)
___Heterosexual
___Lesbian
___Bisexual

Household Income
___0–24,999
___25,000–49,999
___50,000–74,999
___75,000–99,999
___100,000–150,000
___150,000 or more

Religious Preference: (check one)
___Catholic
___Christian fundamentalist
___Jewish
___Protestant
___Muslim
___Hindu
___Buddhist
___No religious preference

___Other (please write in):_____

Participation in Sports: (check one)
Over the last year, how often have you participated in a sporting activity:

___Never
___Less than once a month
___Once a month
___One or more times a week

Where did you hear about this study?
_____ (write in)

Appendix B: Bem Sex-Role Inventory Permission

mind garden

www.mindgarden.com

To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for the above named person to use the following copyright material;

Instrument: ***Bem Sex Role Inventory***

Author: ***Sandra Lipsitz Bem***

Copyright: ***1978, 1981 Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.***

for his/her thesis research.

Five sample items from this instrument may be reproduced for inclusion in a proposal, thesis, or dissertation.

The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any other published material.

Sincerely,

Robert Most
Mind Garden, Inc.
www.mindgarden.com

Appendix C: Lesbian Internalized Homophobia Scale Permission

Subject : RE: LIHS
Date : Thu, Nov 04, 2010 08:36 AM CDT
From : dawnszymanski@msn.com
To : rbarr001@waldenu.edu
Attachment : LIHS2.doc

Hi Renee. Yes of course you have my permission to use the LIHS. I have attached an electronic copy. Best wishes on your research study. Dawn

Dawn M. Szymanski, Ph.D.
Department of Psychology
University of Tennessee
215F Austin Peay Bldg
Knoxville, TN 37996-0900
Cell: 865-724-4499
E-mail: dawnszymanski@msn.com
Website: http://psychology.utk.edu/people/szymanski.html
Counseling Psychology at UT:
http://psychology.utk.edu/gradstudy/counseling/index.shtml

Date: Wed, 3 Nov 2010 22:49:21 -0400
From: rbarr001@waldenu.edu
To: dawnszymanski@msn.com
Subject: LIHS

Dear Dr. Szymanski,

I am a doctoral candidate at Walden University and I am working on my dissertation studying the relationship among gender schema, internalized homophobia and athletic identity. I am contacting you to request your permission to use the Lesbian Internalized Homophobia Scale. Thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely,

Renee Barragan, M.A., MFT
Ph.D Candidate
Walden University

Appendix D: Lesbian Internalized Homophobia Scale

LIHS (Szymanski & Chung, 2001)

Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements by writing in the appropriate number from the scale below. There are no right or wrong answers; however, for the data to be meaningful, you must answer each statement given below as honestly as possible. Your responses are completely anonymous. Please do not leave any statement unmarked. Some statements may depict situations that you have not experienced; please imagine yourself in those situations when answering those statements.

Strongly Disagree 1	Moderately Disagree 2	Slightly Disagree 3	Neutral 4	Slightly Agree 5	Moderately Agree 6	Strongly Agree 7

_____ 1. Many of my friends are lesbians.

_____ 2. I try not to give signs that I am a lesbian. I am careful about the way I dress, the jewelry I wear, the places, people and events I talk about.

_____ 3. Just as in other species, female homosexuality is a natural expression of sexuality in human women.

_____ 4. I can't stand lesbians who are too "butch". They make lesbians as a group look bad.

_____ 5. Attending lesbian events and organizations is important to me.

_____ 6. I hate myself for being attracted to other women.

_____ 7. I believe female homosexuality is a sin.

_____ 8. I am comfortable being an "out" lesbian. I want others to know and see me as a lesbian.

_____ 9. I feel comfortable with the diversity of women who make up the lesbian community.

_____ 10. I have respect and admiration for other lesbians.

_____ 11. I feel isolated and separate from other lesbians.

_____ 12. I wouldn't mind if my boss knew that I was a lesbian.

_____ 13. If some lesbians would change and be more acceptable to the larger society, lesbians as a group would not have to deal with so much negativity and discrimination.

_____ 14. I am proud to be a lesbian.

_____ 15. I am not worried about anyone finding out that I am a lesbian.

_____ 16. When interacting with members of the lesbian community, I often feel different and alone, like I don't fit in.

_____ 17. Female homosexuality is an acceptable lifestyle.

_____ 18. I feel bad for acting on my lesbian desires.

_____ 19. I feel comfortable talking to my heterosexual friends about my everyday home life with my lesbian partner/lover or my everyday activities with my lesbian friends.

_____ 20. Having lesbian friends is important to me.

_____ 21. I am familiar with lesbian books and/or magazines.

_____ 22 Being a part of the lesbian community is important to me.

_____ 23. As a lesbian, I am loveable and deserving of respect.

_____ 24. It is important for me to conceal the fact that I am a lesbian from my family.

_____ 25. I feel comfortable talking about homosexuality in public.

_____ 26. I live in fear that someone will find out I am a lesbian.

_____ 27. If I could change my sexual orientation and become heterosexual, I would.

_____ 28. I do not feel the need to be on guard, lie, or hide my lesbianism to others.

_____ 29. I feel comfortable joining a lesbian social group, lesbian sports team, or lesbian organization.

_____ 30. When speaking of my lesbian lover/partner to a straight person I change pronouns so that others will think I'm involved with a man rather than a woman.

_____ 31. Being a lesbian makes my future look bleak and hopeless.

_____ 32. Children should be taught that being gay is a normal and healthy way for people to be.

_____ 33. My feelings toward other lesbians are often negative.

_____ 34. If my peers knew of my lesbianism, I am afraid that many would not want to be friends with me.

_____ 35. I feel comfortable being a lesbian.

_____ 36. Social situations with other lesbians make me feel uncomfortable.

_____ 37. I wish some lesbians wouldn't "flaunt" their lesbianism. They only do it for shock value and it doesn't accomplish anything positive.

_____ 38. I don't feel disappointment in myself for being a lesbian.

_____ 39. I am familiar with lesbian movies and/or music.

_____ 40. I am aware of the history concerning the development of lesbian communities and/or the lesbian/gay rights movement.

_____ 41. I act as if my lesbian lovers are merely friends.

_____ 42. Lesbian lifestyles are a viable and legitimate way of life for women.

_____ 43. I feel comfortable discussing my lesbianism with my family.

_____ 44. I don't like to be seen in public with lesbians who look "too butch" or are "too out" because others will then think I am a lesbian.

_____ 45. I could **not** confront a straight friend or acquaintance if she or he made a homophobic or heterosexist statement to me.

_____ 46. I am familiar with lesbian music festivals and conferences.

_____ 47. When speaking of my lesbian lover/partner to a straight person, I often use neutral pronouns so the sex of the person is vague.

_____ 48. Lesbian couples should be allowed to adopt children the same as heterosexual couples.

_____ 49. Lesbians are too aggressive.

_____ 50. I frequently make negative comments about other lesbians.

_____ 51. Growing up in a lesbian family is detrimental for children.

_____ 52. I am familiar with community resources for lesbians (i.e., bookstores, support groups, bars, etc.).

Appendix E: Athletic Identity Measurement Scale Permission

Subject: Re: AIMS
Date: Thu, Nov 04, 2010 03:25 AM CDT
From: bbrewer@spfldcol.edu
To: rbarr001@waldenu.edu
Attachment: AIMS_CFA_-_AAJ_appendix.doc
01_BB_AIMS.pdf

Hello, Renee! Thank you for your interest in the AIMS. You may certainly use the AIMS in your research. Please find attached a copy of the article on the latest version of the AIMS (the scale is included) and an appendix to that article that, unfortunately, was not published due to space restrictions. The reference for the article is:

Brewer, B. W., & Cornelius, A. E. (2001). Norms and factorial invariance of the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale. Academic Athletic Journal, 15, 103-113.

If you decide to use the AIMS, I would greatly appreciate it if you would keep me apprised of the results of your study. Good luck with your dissertation! Thanks and best wishes, Britt

Britton W. Brewer, Ph.D.
Professor of Psychology
Department of Psychology
Springfield College
263 Alden Street
Springfield, MA 01109
USA
Telephone: +1-413-748-3696
Fax: +1-413-748-3854
bbrewer@spfldcol.edu

Breathe deep. Seek peace.
(See attached file: AIMS CFA - AAJ appendix.doc) (See attached file: 01_BB_AIMS.pdf)

Appendix F: Athletic Identity Measurement Scale

Athletic Identity Measurement Scale

1. I consider myself an athlete.
2. I have many goals related to sport.
3. Most of my friends are athletes.
4. Sport is the most important part of my life.
5. I spend more time thinking about sport than anything else.
6. I need to participate in sport to feel good about myself.
7. Other people see me mainly as an athlete.
8. I feel bad about myself when I do poorly in sport.
9. Sport is the only important thing in my life.
10. I would be very depressed if I were injured and could not compete in sport.

Appendix G: Informed Consent Form

CONSENT FORM

You are invited to participate in a research study examining factors related to gender roles and lesbian behavior and attitudes. You may choose to participate in this study if you identify as lesbian and are at least 18 years of age. This consent form is part of the informed consent process, which provides information in order for you to decide whether or not to take part. This study is conducted by Renee Barragan, a doctoral student at Walden University.

Procedures

Participation in this study will involve completing several questionnaires. If you decide to participate, you will complete three online surveys. These questionnaires are to be completed anonymously. All data submitted will be given an ID number that is not linked to your identity. All information is confidential, and you are encouraged to answer each question honestly. No individual data will be analyzed.

Participation is completely voluntary

Your participation is voluntary and you are free to withdraw from the study at anytime. No one will have access to your answers in connection with your name.

Risks and benefits of participating in the study

There is no foreseen harm that could be caused to participants. It is unlikely, but in the event you become uncomfortable or disturbed by the questions, you are free to stop the survey immediately without any repercussions. Though unlikely, there is always a risk that information provided may be stolen from the researcher. Steps have been taken to limit this risk. There are no direct benefits for participating in this study though you may find that answering the questions may provide you with some insight into your attitudes and behaviors; however, the information gained may benefit others by helping psychologists better understand lesbian behavior.

Contacts and Questions

If you have questions regarding the study, you can email me at RBARR001@waldenu.edu or contact Dr. Leilani Endicott at 1-800-925-3368, extension 1210.

Statement of Consent

I have read and understand that my participation in this research study is completely voluntary. I understand the limited risks involved and know that I can withdraw from the study at any time. By clicking "I agree to participate" below, I acknowledge that I understand and agree with the terms described above.

I agree to participate.

Appendix H: Introductory Letter

Dear Research Participant,

My name is Renee Barragan and I am a doctoral student in the educational psychology program at Walden University in Minneapolis. As part of my dissertation research, I am conducting a study examining factors related to lesbian identity.

If you are at least 18 years of age and identify as lesbian, you are invited to participate in this research by filling out a series of questionnaires. Further, you are encouraged to email this information to anyone else who might be interested and meets the conditions of the study.

Your participation is completely voluntary and you are not required to answer all or any of the questions, but your answers might help to better understand lesbian behavior. Participation is confidential and other than the IP address, there is no way to identify you. The IP address will only be used to prevent duplicate surveys.

Questionnaires will be assigned code numbers that cannot be connected to you. Some questions are personal, but are not expected to pose a substantial risk to your physical or psychological well-being. This study has been approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of Walden University.

Your participation in this research will help psychologists better understand lesbian behavior and attitudes. Your participation and honesty is greatly appreciated. Again, you are encouraged to pass on this information for others to participate. Thank you for your time.

Sincerely,

Renee Barragan
Doctoral Candidate
Walden University

Curriculum Vitae

Curriculum Vitae

Renee A. Barragan, MFT.

(530)226-4014•FAX (530)226-4040
Email:rbarragan@nu.edu; Neebarr1@aol.com,

Professional Profile

- Innovative teacher devoted to education and learning
- Learner centered teaching style
- Licensed Marriage and Family Therapist
- Specializing in Gender, LGBT, Law and Ethics, and Multiculturalism

Education

- Doctor of Philosophy in Educational Psychology, Walden University, Expected graduation Date: 12/2013. GPA: 4.0

- Master of Arts in Psychology, University of San Francisco; Support Area: Marriage and Family Therapy. GPA: 3.9

- Bachelor of Science in Psychology, California State University, Chico. GPA: 3.5

Research Interests

- Gender Stereotyping
- Athletic Identity of Women
- Internalized homophobia

Academic/Teaching Experience

- Associate Faculty, National University, Redding, CA
2011 to Present

- Adjunct Professor of Psychology, National University, Redding, CA
2005 to Present

- Adjunct Professor of Psychology, Columbia College, Sacramento, CA

April, 2003

- Educational trainings and seminars, Family Service Agency, Redding, CA
1996-2002

COURSES TAUGHT

Undergraduate
- Social Psychology
- Counseling Techniques
- Cognitive Psychology
- Senior Project
- Gender and Literature
- Global Psychology
- Marriage, Sex and Family
- Drugs, Values and Society
- Culture Diversity
- Abnormal Psychology

Graduate
- Relational Violence
- Legal and Ethical Issues
- Culture in Counseling
- Human Sexuality
- Creative Leadership

TEACHING INTERESTS

- Law & Ethics
- Gender Issues
- Social Psychology
- Diversity/Multicultural Issues
- Human Sexuality

TEACHING EVALUATIONS

- Quantitative scores have always exceeded 4 on a 5-point scale in which 5 is top score. Average evaluation score of all classes: 4.6.

- See Teaching Evaluations with detailed quantitative and qualitative scores and student comments

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

- **Associate Faculty**, National University, Redding, CA, 2011 to Present
Head of BA Psychology program, Redding Center; Professor in the Masters in Counseling Program and Bachelors in Psychology. Responsibilities include teaching; oversight of programs; student and faculty recruitment; hiring faculty; evaluation of faculty; scheduling and staffing courses; faculty training; student advising; participation in school and department meetings; miscellaneous administrative duties.

- **Core Adjunct Professor**, National University, Redding, CA, 2005 to Present
Professor in the Masters in Counseling Program and Bachelors in Psychology

- **Founder & CEO,** Redding Rage, LLC, Redding, CA, 2003 to 2007
Administration, recruitment, special events, game-day planning, fundraising, public speaking, public relations, media relations, community presentations, and over-all management of business and corporation.

- **Adjunct Professor**, Columbia College, Sacramento, CA, 2003
Professor for Bachelors in Psychology; Taught Abnormal Psychology

- **Program Manager**, Family Services, Redding, CA, 1999-2002
Administrative duties; managed two agency programs; developed, planned, and produced community presentations on elder abuse and youth violence; managed shelter for homeless and runaway youth; managed shelter for victims of crime; various administrative duties.

- **Marriage & Family Therapist Intern**, Family Service Agency, Redding, CA , 06/98-08/99
Worked as a victim's advocate and Marriage Family Therapist Intern; Provided individual, group, and family therapy, crisis intervention, brief therapy, resources and referrals, advocacy, court support, emergency services, and case management.

- **Marriage & Family Therapist Intern***,* Changing Lives, Redding, CA, 1994-1998

Provided individual, group and family therapy to a variety of clients; Contracted with local group homes and foster homes to provide individual and group therapy to adolescents and families.

- **Social Worker,** Changing Lives, Redding, CA, 1995-1998

Provided individual and group therapy to children in foster care; Provided family therapy to children in foster care and their parents prior to re-unification; Responsible for case-management duties of children and foster parents that included weekly home visits, counseling, crisis intervention, advocacy, and support.

- **Assistant Administrator,** Walkers' High Places Girl's Home, Redding, CA, 1994-1995

Responsibilities included: oversight of the group home; hiring, training, and supervision of line staff; liaison between Social Workers/Probation Officers and client/family; report writing; maintain a budget; Also provided crisis intervention, individual, group and family therapy.

- **Marriage & Family Therapist Trainee**, Walkers' High Places Girl's Home, Redding,

CA, 1990-1994

Worked as a child care worker providing 24 hour care to youth; Responsible for daily house management, and report writing and documentation. Under direct supervision of a LCSW, I provided individual counseling and group therapy.

CONFERENCES/LECTURES

- LGBT Intimate Violence Training
- Gender Stereotyping
- LGBT Cultural Sensitivity Training
- Multiculturalism/Diversity
- Intimate Violence
- Elder Abuse
- Child Abuse
- Child Care Staff Training
- Mandated Reporting
- Debriefing

Statement of Teaching Philosophy

My personal teaching philosophy includes an overall respect and passion for academia. I respect my position and understand the power that comes with the role of professor. The power to influence one's attitude about the subject presented, makes me strive to be the best that I can be in hopes that I can bring the subject to life and pass on enthusiasm for the subject. The time that an instructor puts into preparation directly influences the learning process. Learning, however, is not a one-prong, linear approach. Student success often depends on the individual learning style of each particular student and the how the material is presented. Diversity, multiculturalism, and multiple intelligences should always be considered. Each student is a specific individual who brings his or her own insights and experiences to the classroom. Keeping this in mind, I encourage students to share diverse ideas and opinions that may challenge conventional thought. Thus, I create a non-threatening environment in order to foster critical thinking and insightful discourse. It is also imperative to have fun, display flexibility, and continue one's own education.

I believe a professor has an ethical responsibility to continue learning and improving professional growth. This can be accomplished by taking continued education courses, reading current journal articles, attending seminars related to teaching and learning, and being open to learning from students, colleagues, and experienced teachers. Listening, learning and incorporating strategies from other professors is an easy yet effective resource. Adapting others' methods to meet my personality and style has been

invaluable. Being open to hearing constructive feedback is necessary for improvement and growth just as our students learn from our feedback of their work.

Showing and giving respect is mandatory. I show respect to my students by valuing their opinions, and allowing them to discuss their ideas, however eccentric they might sound. As long as it is not against professional standards, I try to positively affirm their position. Being open to constructive feedback from students regarding teaching style, curriculum, assignments, and classroom management is empowering to the student and makes for better professors. Though it may not seem to be a show of respect, effective classroom management is important in developing a non-threatening environment, which gives students the opportunity to think critically and take risks.

I believe teaching and learning should be fun. I use humor to develop rapport, make lectures easier to listen to and give students an occasional break from daily stress and intimidating material. On occasion, I will play a game that may have nothing to do with the lesson. I find that students enjoy the break, and after the five minutes of fun and laughter, they are able to delve further into our lesson and become more academically motivated. I attempt to use humor and fun in every class session.

Just as every class, lesson plan, activity, and lecture should be reviewed, revised, and re-worked, so should my teaching philosophy. I find that every time I teach a course, whether onsite or online, I gain new insight. My passion for teaching will serve as my guide and I will continue to grow and learn. I have great role models in which to help achieve greater success as a professor.

I have had success as a professor. I am respected and well-liked by students, which is important. As a student, I learned best (grades and retention of information) when I liked and respected my instructors. When an instructor makes the class stimulating, fun, and has a good personality, the student wants to learn and be in class. (Enthusiastic and demonstrative teachers are not as easy to tune out.) Though I am a professor, I am also a presenter. I work hard to develop and improve my presentation skills.

Though presentation skills may seem to be best suited for face to face instruction, I believe that these skills can transition nicely to online education. Being a student of distance education has shown me firsthand the benefit of online instruction and what makes an effective online professor. I have strong writing and communication skills that are a benefit to online education. I am also committed to spending individual time with students to ensure they do not feel lost or unimportant. I believe these skills and my enthusiasm for teaching have contributed to high evaluation scores in the few online courses that I have taught. I expect that I will improve my online teaching as I teach more courses.

I truly love teaching, both onsite and online. I have a strong commitment to learner-centered teaching, which is reflected in my curriculum, classroom activities, classroom management, and presentation style. I am committed to ongoing education, refining my skills, and helping each student achieve success in the classroom.

Annotated Bibliography

Teaching Resources

McKeachie, W. & Svinicki, M. (2006). *McKeachie's teaching tips: Strategies, research, and theory for college and university teachers (12th ed.).* Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

McKeachie earned his doctorate in 1949 when he began his long and lustrous career teaching, researching, and training teachers to teach effectively. McKeachie brings his vast experience to life in this practical guide for instructors. What was meant primarily for a learning tool for new teachers, McKeachie's *Teaching Tips*, has developed into a useful resource for seasoned instructors as well as the young professor. *Teaching Tips* begins with preparing the teacher for his or her first classroom experience then tackles the subjects of active learning, understanding students, adding to one's skills, ethics, and vitality as a professor. McKeachie is a must read for ever professor.

Weimer, M. (2002). *Learning- centered teaching: Five key changes to practice.* San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Weimer is an associate professor of teaching and learning who has authored numerous books about teaching. Learner-centered teaching helps educators to transition from teacher centered teaching to a learner centered approach. Weimer offers a step by step guide to put into practice, the policies and practices of active learning in college classrooms.

Sternberg, R.J., and Zhang, L. (Eds.), (2001). *Perspectives on thinking. learning and cognitive styles*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Sternberg and Zhang write an informative book that utilizes many years of research that studies individuals, social, and cultural differences in learning. They focus on learning styles, thinking styles, and cognitive styles of individuals that influence cognition, learning, and memory. Instructors will benefit from the research provided that confirms that individuals do indeed have differences styles of learning.

Stage, F., Muller, P., Kinzie, J, & Simmons, A. (1998). *Creating Learning Centered Classrooms: What Does Learning Have to Say?* Washington DC: George Washington University.

The authors of *Creating Learning Centered Classrooms* primary focus was to challenge instructors to become quality teachers. Their work gives the reader an overview of the history of teaching that combines theory with current research. They wrap up their book by providing educators with useful strategies that will help professors become quality teachers.

Diversity

Nguyen, L. (2005). Understanding and expanding multicultural competence in teaching: A faculty guide. *Society for the Teaching of Psychology (APA Division 2). http://teachpsych.lemoyne.edu/*

Knowledge of diversity issues is an ethical responsibility of all teachers. Nguyen addresses commonly asked questions about diversity and teaching. He then provides educators with a wonderful resource and guide in developing multicultural competence.

Ramsey, M. (2005). Teaching effectively in racially and culturally diverse classrooms. *Teaching Theology & Religion, 8*, 18-23.

Ramsey takes multiculturalism one step further by providing insight and instruction of diversity issues in theological classrooms. She confronts the racism that may exist largely due to long lasting segregation in churches, which may transfer to the college classroom.

Ramsey highlights four categories in order to confront racism, help teachers understand diversity issues, and help them create classrooms that adopt multicultural attitudes.

Ethics

Tabachnik, B.G., Keith, Speigal, P. & Pope, K. (1991). Ethics of teaching: Beliefs and behaviors of psychologists as educators. *The American Psychologist*. *46*, *506-515.*

Educators have a responsibility to be ethically sound, and follow guidelines of the ethics' committees of their university, ethical standards set by their state, and ethical standards set by their profession. The authors of this article surveyed American Psychological Association members who worked in the field of higher education. The results were discussed and 63 behaviors examined.

Kuther, T. (2003). A profile of the ethical professor. *College Teaching, 51*, 153-160.

Kuther surveys students about their views of the ethical responsibilities of instructors. Professors will benefit from examining the two studies by understanding the ethical qualities that students find important. Kuther challenges instructors to reflect on these behaviors both in and out of the classroom.

General Psychology

Baber, K., & Murray, C. (2001). A postmodern feminist approach to teaching Human Sexuality. *Family Relations, 50*, 23-33.

Baber and Murray present a framework in which instructors can utilize to help them design and teach a human sexuality course. Their design is a constructivist framework in teaching students about sexuality. Their identified goals for their course are: 1. shift from a problem-oriented to a strengths approach, 2. provide information and skills that are relevant and useful, 3. expand students' thinking about diversity, and 4. help students maximize their own sexual health and minimize exploitation of it.

Lesko, W. A. (2006). *Readings in social psychology* (6th ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

This edited text is rich with articles of general, current, and classic studies in social psychology. Lesko puts together a great resource for understanding the dynamics of

social psychology. The reading is easy as he incorporates popular articles, scientific reading, and classic research. The popular articles provide a good understanding of the topic and encourage critical thinking, while the scientific journal articles provide insight into methodological issues.