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The Athletic Identity of Collegiate Athletic Trainers: A Descriptive Study

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1 The Athletic Identity of Collegiate Athletic Trainers: A Descriptive Study

2
3 **Context:** Empirical and anecdotal evidence suggest that many athletic trainers were former
4 athletes and select the profession due to its affiliation with sport. Qualitative research has
5 indicated that collegiate athletic trainers may have a strong athletic identity, but the concept of
6 athletic identity has not been quantified in this population. **Objective:** To quantitatively assess
7 the athletic identity of collegiate athletic trainers and determine if group differences exist.

8 **Design:** Cross-sectional observational study. **Setting:** Collegiate clinical setting. **Patients and**

9 **Other Participants:** A total of 257 (n = 93 (37%) males, n = 162 (63%) females) athletic trainers
10 employed in the collegiate setting were included in data analysis. **Main Outcome Measure(s):**

11 Data were collected via a web-based survey platform which was designed to measure athletic
12 identity. Demographic information was analyzed for frequency and distribution. Mann-Whitney
13 *U* tests and Kruskal-Wallis tests were calculated to determine if group differences existed.

14 **Results:** The large majority of participants (90%) self-identified as having participated in
15 organized sport yet scored moderately on the athletic identity measurement scale (22.9 ± 7.9).
16 There were no sex differences in overall athletic identity ($p = .446$), but females did have higher
17 levels of negative affectivity ($p = .045$) than males. Testing also revealed group differences
18 based on current employment setting for social identity ($p = .020$), with NCAA Division I scores
19 less than Division II, III, and NAIA. NCAA Division III exclusivity ($p = .030$) was lower than NCAA
20 Division II and NAIA. **Conclusions:** It appears that components of athletic identity vary based on
21 the employment setting of collegiate athletic trainers and may have a relationship to the
22 number of hours worked in the summer. The moderate athletic identity scores of collegiate

23 athletic trainers are comparable to former athletes who selected career paths outside of sport.
24 This may indicate adaptive career decision processes. **Key Words:** Negative Affectivity, Social-
25 Identity, Exclusivity, Foreclosure

26
27 **Key Points:**

- 28 1. The majority of collegiate athletic trainers self-identify as former athletes, though score
29 moderately on the Athletic Identity Measurement Scale.
- 30 2. Females have higher athletic negative affectivity scores than males.
- 31 3. Athletic Trainers employed in the NCAA Division I setting have lower athletic social
32 identity than those employed in the NCAA Division II, NCAA Division III, or NAIA settings.

33
34 Evidence suggests that many individuals who pursue a career in athletic training are former
35 athletes¹⁻⁴ and recruits chose athletic training programs based on a strong affiliation with sport.³
36 While the athletic careers of many athletic trainers did not extend past high school, often as the
37 result of injury,⁴ participation in sport activities has been suggested to impact self-perceptions
38 and athletic identity regardless of activity level.⁵ Athletic trainers employed in the collegiate
39 setting have discussed how their prior involvement in sport facilitated a continued importance
40 of athletics and physical activity in their lives, which was speculated to also influence their
41 decision to pursue a career in athletics as opposed to choosing a different healthcare
42 profession.¹

43 Identity is defined as a process that blends personality and connects an individual to the
44 social world.⁶ Athletic identity is a concept in which individuals self-identify with the role of

45 athlete. The athletic self-perception is developed as a response to group affiliations and social
46 interactions based around sport⁷ and influences the degree of importance of athletics in an
47 individual's life.⁸ Athletic identity has been studied extensively in various areas related to
48 aspects of one's career. The challenge for many individuals who exhibit a high level of athletic
49 identity is striking a balance between their development as athletes and their development as
50 individuals and future professionals. Previous literature has identified that student-athletes
51 who highly identify with their role as an athlete are more likely to explore a sport-related
52 profession as compared to professions outside the athletic environment.^{9,10} Additionally, a high
53 degree of athletic identity has been linked to the increased risk of delayed career
54 development,¹¹ burnout,^{12,13} and anxiety.¹⁴ However, there are also potential positive outcomes
55 related to a strong athletic identity. Potential positive outcomes include a greater likelihood of
56 long-term involvement in exercise behaviors and an enhanced development of sense of self.⁸

57 Research examining the work-life interface has highlighted the role individual level factors,
58 such as personality and values, play on both individual level (job satisfaction, turnover, health,
59 stress) and organizational level outcomes (job performance, culture, policies, labor force
60 composition).¹⁵ Within the collegiate employment setting organizational factors including
61 inadequate staff size, inequity between hours and salary, and a perceived lack of work schedule
62 autonomy have been cited as factors negatively impacting job satisfaction and career
63 intention.¹ In recent years, athletic training literature has begun to explore individual level
64 factors^{1,16,17} and former athletic trainers indicate individual level factors contributed to their
65 departure from the profession.¹⁸ An examination of athletic identity, an individual level factor,
66 can help researchers better understand the work-life interface of athletic trainers.

67 Limited evidence examining the idea of athletic identity in this population exists despite
68 reports of athletic trainers choosing the field because of an interest in sport and their own prior
69 involvement in athletics. Due to the identified relationship between a strong athletic identity
70 and career challenges that have been documented in the athletic training profession,¹⁹ we
71 identified a need to quantitatively assess the athletic identity of athletic trainers due to a lack of
72 literature on this topic. Previous qualitative data revealed that collegiate athletic trainers value
73 the role of athletics in their lives,¹ but as previously mentioned, the concept of athletic identity
74 was not quantified in this population. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to quantify
75 athletic identity among an athletic trainer population employed in the collegiate setting. In
76 addition, we wanted to determine if any demographic group differences exist regarding athletic
77 identity among this population.

78 METHODS

79 Study Design

80 The study utilized a cross-sectional design and data were collected through an online survey
81 program (Qualtrics, Provo, UT) to gather descriptive information related to the athletic identity
82 of collegiate athletic trainers. The study was approved by Lasell University's institutional review
83 board prior to data collection.

84 Procedures

85 Data presented were collected in conjunction with data related to the work-family guilt of
86 collegiate athletic trainers.²⁰ For this study only data related to participant demographics and
87 athletic identity were analyzed and will be presented.

88 A random sample of 2,500 emails of certified athletic trainers employed in the collegiate
89 setting was generated by the National Athletic Trainers Association (NATA) membership
90 services. Individuals were emailed a recruitment letter which explained the purpose of the
91 study and a web link to the online survey. In an attempt to increase enrollment, reminder
92 emails were sent to all email addresses initially contacted at 14 and 21 days after the initial
93 request for participation was distributed. Researchers emailed participants directly to ensure
94 personal emails could not be linked to responses to help ensure confidentiality. All potential
95 participants were Bcc'd on emails to further help ensure confidentiality.

96 **Participants**

97 Inclusion criteria for this study was full-time employment in the collegiate clinical setting. The
98 collegiate setting was selected because it represents one of the highest categories of athletic
99 trainer employment among NATA members, with 25.1% of certified NATA members employed
100 in the collegiate setting at the time of data collection.²¹ The collegiate setting also encompasses
101 numerous challenging organizational factors that influence the athletic trainer's career.¹⁹
102 Participants were asked to self-identify their employment setting and acknowledge their
103 position as full-time. Participants who completed the questionnaire that did not meet the
104 inclusion criteria were removed before data analysis. Exclusion criteria included: 1) graduate
105 assistants or interns and 2) full-time academic appointment.

106 A total of 257 (n = 93 (37%) males, n = 162 (63%) females) athletic trainers employed in
107 the collegiate setting were included in our data analysis. Additional participant demographic
108 data can be found in Table 1.

109 **Questionnaire**

110 The web-based survey was comprised of a demographic section and the Athletic Identity
111 Measurement Scale (AIMS).²² The demographic portion of the survey gathered information
112 related to participant age, sex, race/ethnicity, years of experience, contract length, current
113 position, average hours worked, marital and family status, and previous involvement in
114 organized sport. Prior to distribution the survey was trialed by two certified athletic trainers
115 with survey research experience and employed in the collegiate setting. The purpose of this
116 step was to establish likely participant response latency, clarity of demographic questions,
117 comprehension of terminology used, survey flow and visual appeal, and functionality of the
118 survey link. At the conclusion of the trial, minor grammatical changes were made to the
119 demographic questions.

120 *Athletic Identity*

121 The 7-item composite AIMS²² was used to identify participants' athletic identity. The AIMS has
122 been shown to be a reliable and valid measure of athletic identity.^{8,22} Internal consistency of the
123 AIMS ($\alpha = .81-.93$) has been obtained^{8,23} and AIMS scores have been shown to increase with
124 level of sport involvement, perceived importance of sports competence, and other constructs
125 that relate to athletic identity.^{8,23} The AIMS was initially designed to investigate the relationship
126 of athletic identity to emotional disturbance during common transitions encountered by
127 athletes and from a developmental perspective.⁸ The original AIMS was a 10-item measure and
128 became the most commonly used measure of athletic identity,²² however the dimensionality of
129 this scale was questioned by various researchers. In order to discern the dimensionality of the
130 AIMS, Brewer and Cornelius²² examined its factorial structure and invariance and removed
131 three items from the original scale. The 7-item composite AIMS was used for this study given

132 the issues identified in the original 10-item measures and because it has been shown to be
133 appropriate for assessing athletic identity in both males and females²² and among athletes and
134 non-athletes.²²

135 The scale consists of three factors that have been shown to be subordinate to one
136 higher-order athletic identity factor; 1) social identity, 2) exclusivity, and 3) negative
137 affectivity.²² The social identity subscale measures the degree to which an individual views
138 themselves as occupying the role of athlete. The exclusivity subscale measures an individual's
139 degree of self-worth by participating in athletics. The negative affectivity subscales measure the
140 degree to which unwanted athletic outcomes impact negative emotions.⁵ Higher scores on all
141 subscales indicate higher levels of each individual factor. Previous research has also indicated
142 that participation in sport may influence the self-perceptions of recreational sports participants,
143 even if the participant themselves did not define themselves as athletes per se.⁵ The items on
144 the scale are rated on a 7-point Likert scale and are summed to create an overall athletic
145 identity. Scores on the scale can range from 7 to 49, with higher scores indicating a higher
146 athletic identity.

147 **Data Analysis**

148 Data were downloaded from the online survey platform into an Excel (Microsoft, Redmond,
149 WA, USA) and then transferred in to an SPSS (version 22.0; IBM Corporation, Armonk, NY, USA)
150 worksheet. The data were cleaned by listwise deleting if the participant did not complete at
151 least 90% of the survey instrument. A total of 257 participants were included in data analysis,
152 after removing 89 participants who did not answer at least 90% of the questions. The a priori

153 level was set at $p < .05$ prior to data analysis and all descriptive and significance testing was
154 completed via SPSS.

155 Scores were summed for the AIMS and three factors and a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was
156 calculated to determine the normality of variables, revealing data were nonparametric.
157 Spearman correlations were calculated to determine the relationship among athletic identity,
158 age, years of experience, years of Board of Certification (BOC) certification, years in current
159 position, and average hours worked per week (in-season, off-season, and summer). Separate
160 Mann-Whitney U tests were performed to determine if any differences existed in athletic
161 identity score based on sex or family status. Kruskal-Wallis tests were performed to determine
162 if there was a difference in athletic identity score based on race/ethnicity, highest level of
163 education, current position title, length of contract, organizational reporting structure, marital
164 status, and NCAA Division of employment.

165 **RESULTS**

166 **Demographics**

167 The 257 participants included in data analysis represent a 10% response rate. The average age
168 of participants was 40 ± 10 (range 25 – 64) and had been certified by the BOC for 16 ± 9 years
169 (range 0 – 41). Participants indicated they worked 58 ± 14 hours per week providing “in-season”
170 athletic training services, 45 ± 11 hours per week during their nontraditional season, and $30 \pm$
171 13 hours per week during the summer months. Additional demographic information can be
172 found in Table 1.

173 **Reliability Statistics**

174 Reliability testing revealed good internal consistency for the AIMS among our population; $\alpha =$
175 .82. Additionally, self-identified former athletes in our sample scored statistically significantly
176 higher than self-identified non-athletes ($U = 1127, p = .001$), further validating the survey
177 among our sample.

178 **Athletic Identity of Collegiate Athletic Trainers**

179 Our participants average athletic identity score was 22.9 ± 7.9 (range 7 – 43) with the majority
180 indicating that they have participated in organized sport as an athlete (236 (91.8%) = yes, 19
181 (7.4%) = no). Table 2 presents the athletic identity score for the entire sample and select
182 demographic groups with corresponding AIMS factor scores.

183 Results of the spearman correlation indicated significant positive association between
184 athletic identity score and number of years of participation in organized sport ($\rho[226] = .238,$
185 $p < .001$). Additionally, significant negative association between athletic identity and average
186 hours worked in the summer ($\rho[199] = -.203, p = .004$).

187 **Demographic Group Differences based on Athletic Identity**

188 Results of the Mann-Whitney U test revealed no statistically significant differences
189 between sex and athletic identity scores ($U = 7057, p = .446$) or family status and athletic
190 identity scores ($U = 7771, p = .654$). A statistically significant difference existed between males
191 (6 [IQR; 3, 8]) and females (7 [IQR; 4, 9]) in regard to their negative affectivity score ($U = 6365.5,$
192 $p = .045$) but no sex differences among social identity or exclusivity. There were no statistically
193 significant differences between family status and any of the AIMS factors.

194 Results of the Kruskal-Wallis Test revealed no statistically significant differences
195 between race/ethnicity, highest level of education, current position title, length of contract,

196 organizational reporting structure, NCAA Division, or marital status in regard to athletic identity
197 score. There was statistically significant difference in the negative affectivity factor and highest
198 level of education (χ^2 [2] = 10.092, p = .006) with a mean rank score of 75.83 for Bachelor's
199 Degree, 131.47 for Master's Degree, and 144.33 for Doctoral Degree (Table 2). Post hoc testing
200 revealed a statistically significant difference between the Bachelor's Degree and Master's
201 Degree groups (p = .002) and the Bachelor's Degree and Doctoral Degree groups (p = .022)
202 indicating that individuals with an earned Bachelor's Degree had lower negative affectivity than
203 both individuals with an earned Master's Degree and individuals with an earned Doctoral
204 Degree.

205 Additional statistical significance was observed based on current work setting and two
206 of the AIMS factors. There was a statistically significant difference in the social identity factor
207 and NCAA Division (χ^2 [4] = 11.653, p = .020) and the exclusivity factor and NCAA Division (χ^2 [4]
208 = 10.731, p = .030). Post hoc testing revealed statistically significant differences between the
209 NCAA Division I group and NCAA Division III group (p = .019), NCAA Division II group (p = .020)
210 and NAIA group (p = 0.010) as it relates to the social identity factor and a statistically significant
211 differences between the NCAA Division III group and NCAA Division II group (p = .030) and NAIA
212 group (p = 0.025) as it relates to the exclusivity factor (Table 2).

213 DISCUSSION

214 The goal of this study was to quantify the athletic identity of collegiate athletic trainers
215 and to determine if demographic differences existed. Because the literature has identified that
216 athletic training students are drawn to the profession because of a strong affiliation to a
217 sports/team model³ it is important to quantify the athletic identity of those currently employed

218 as athletic trainers to better understand if athletic identity is driving entrance into the
219 profession. Our findings revealed that the large majority of collegiate athletic trainers indicate
220 previous involvement in organized sport as an athlete, though they scored moderately on the
221 athletic identity scale. There were no sex differences in total athletic identity scores, though
222 females scored higher than males on the negative affectivity subscale. Participants employed in
223 the NCAA Division I setting had lower social identity than their colleagues employed in the
224 NCAA Division II, NCAA Division III, and NAIA settings. Additionally, the exclusivity scores of
225 respondents employed in both the NCAA Division II and NAIA collegiate settings were higher
226 than their colleagues employed in the NCAA Division III setting.

227 Our results highlighted several demographic differences in the athletic identity of our
228 participants. Previous research has shown males have higher athletic identity than females,⁵
229 despite reports from Cuppett and Latin²⁴ that female athletic trainers are more physically active
230 than their male counterparts. Previous gender sport research has argued that participation in
231 sport for women is contrary to societal expectations,^{25,26} and this has been used to explain
232 lower observed athletic identity in females. However, our findings revealed no sex differences
233 in total athletic identity score. This result could be an indication that individuals, regardless of
234 sex, are drawn to the collegiate clinical athletic training practice setting because of their athletic
235 identity. Future research is warranted to explore this topic further.

236 Our results did highlight that female athletic trainers employed in the collegiate setting
237 had higher negative affectivity scores than their male counterparts. Negative affectivity is a
238 measurement of negative emotions stemming from unwanted sporting outcomes. Lamont-Mills
239 and Christensen⁵ identified that both elite and recreational female athletes had the same level

240 of negative affectivity and speculated that female's participation in sport, particularly at a
241 recreational level, is more related to physical self-worth or self-concept than athletic identity.
242 They went on to speculate that for females, unwanted aspects may be more related to physical
243 as opposed to athletic characteristics and that participation in sport may be linked to a desire to
244 be physically active.⁵ Our findings could help explain Cuppet and Latin's²⁴ findings specific to
245 female athletic trainers' physical activity compared to males and may indicate that males and
246 females are active in sport for different reasons.

247 Uniquely, our participants overall athletic identity score is comparable to retired
248 athletes who chose careers not related to sport.²⁷ Shachar et al.²⁷ investigated the athletic
249 identity of former athletes who chose to become coaches and those who chose careers not
250 related to sport. The retrospective athletic identity of both groups did not differ at the time of
251 their athletic career retirement, but participants who pursued a career in coaching had
252 significantly stronger athletic identity at the time of assessment than those who entered
253 careers outside of an athletic setting. Interestingly the athletic identity reported in non-coaches
254 (25.42)²⁷ was similar to the athletic trainers surveyed in our study (22.9). Though we did not
255 assess athletic identity retroactively, we can say that athletic trainers have athletic identity
256 scores similar to that of retired athletes who chose careers outside of sport.

257 Former athletes who choose careers in coaching are more likely to commit to a career
258 without examining other professional pathways, which may indicate maladaptive
259 characteristics.²⁷ Despite research indicating that athletic training students select their
260 academic and career path based on sport affiliations² our results suggest, given the similar
261 athletic identity score of non-coaches, that athletic trainers employed in the collegiate setting

262 likely use an adaptive approach toward making career choices. An adaptive career decision
263 approach involves exploring and narrowing career options, committing to a specific career goal,
264 and implementing the selected career.²⁸ It is important to note that we did not measure
265 tendency to foreclose in this study, and therefore cannot say with any certainty if collegiate
266 athletic trainers use an adaptive or maladaptive approach to career selection.

267 A career in athletics has been labeled as a lifestyle choice rather than an occupation,
268 due to its unique demands and expectations for high performance regardless of position.²⁹ As a
269 result, the workplace culture of athletics has been characterized by high levels of work-life
270 conflict and role imbalance.^{30,31} Similar to the identity conflict experienced as a student-
271 athlete,³⁰ the now athletic employee may continue to experience role imbalance within the
272 athletic environment, potentially leading to role conflict and burnout.³² However, former
273 athletes who choose careers outside of sport likely see a decrease in their athletic identity
274 because distance from sport reduces the importance of the athlete role in their lives,²⁷ and
275 enables them to capture a larger portion in the multidimensional self-concept.³³ Therefore,
276 athletes who invest in their role as student during college may have more of an opportunity to
277 explore non-sport career options,³⁴ highlighting the importance of diversifying self-identity,
278 particularly early in the academic years.

279 Previous research has identified that a large number of athletic trainers are former
280 athletes,¹ and our results confirm this with more than 90% of our participants self-identifying as
281 a former athlete. While all of the athletic trainers in our study were employed in a career and
282 setting that included a high level of involvement with sport, their athletic identity was
283 interestingly lower than what we see in former athletes who select a career in coaching.²⁷

284 Several possible explanations exist to explain our results in regard to athletic trainers having
285 lower athletic identity than former athletes who chose a career in sport.

286 First, athletic trainers are allied healthcare providers who work with the unique
287 subpopulation of physically active individuals. Analysis of the services provided by athletic
288 trainers³⁵ and the rationale for the utilization of athletic training services³⁶ clearly emphasizes
289 the role of the athletic trainer as a healthcare professional, rather than a member of a sports
290 team. While determined to be a weak influence, the opportunity to help others and provide
291 medical care has been identified as an attractor to the athletic training profession.³ Because
292 athletic trainers have made a decision to enter a healthcare profession, it is possible that their
293 own self-identity has expanded, which could explain the lower comparative athletic identity
294 score. This could indicate the reason many professionals persist in the athletic training
295 profession is related to the desire to become a healthcare professional,² rather than solely to
296 work in sport, demonstrating an expanded self-identity extending beyond athletic affiliation
297 over time.

298 Conversely, this expanded self-identity to include the role of healthcare professional
299 may also contribute to attrition from the athletic training profession. Research has identified
300 that bureaucracy and politics of the traditional athletic setting can lead to the experience of
301 burnout in collegiate athletic trainers.^{37,38} Additionally, the ability to have a successful career as
302 an athletic trainer and persist in the field, particularly within the NCAA Division I setting, has
303 been discussed in the context of one's ability to "fit the mold" of the environment.³⁸ While this
304 investigation did not explore the relationship between athletic identity and organizational
305 culture within this athletic setting, it is possible that the evolution of both athletic identity and

306 self-identity influence the athletic trainer's perception of their ability to "fit the mold" long
307 term, subsequently influencing attrition within the clinical setting or profession.

308 Lastly, given the high number of hours that collegiate athletic trainers work (58 ± 14
309 hours per week in our sample) there may not be time to engage in personal sport activity
310 causing a subsequent drop in athletic identity. Because we did not assess athletic identity
311 retrospectively and previous research has indicated that athletic trainers do value and make
312 time for physical activity in their lives^{1,24} this is not substantiated by our research. Additionally,
313 our results did reveal a weak negative correlation between athletic identity and the number of
314 hours worked in the summer. This finding could be an indication that individuals who work less
315 in the summer have more time to engage in sport or individuals with higher athletic identity
316 chose employment settings that require them to work less in the summer so that they have
317 more time to engage in recreational athletic activities. This relationship, however, was weak,
318 and more research is warranted to explore this concept. Athletic trainers currently employed in
319 the NCAA Division I setting had lower social identity scores than those employed in NCAA
320 Division II, Division III and NAIA settings. The social identity subscale measures the degree to
321 which an individual defines themselves as an athlete. An observed relationship between
322 athletic identity and the number of hours worked in the summer in combination with the
323 negative correlation associated with summer hours is thought provoking. Previous research has
324 indicated that NCAA rule changes that allow more sanctioned activities in the summer have
325 impacted the summer workload of athletic trainers employed in the NCAA Division I Collegiate
326 Setting.³⁹ Our findings further support to the idea that summer hours may impact the ability to
327 engage in athletic activities.

LIMITATIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Our study is not without limitations. While the collegiate employment setting was intentionally selected because it represents one of the largest employment settings and most often operates within an athletic organizational model, our results cannot be generalized to other athletic training employment settings. While many athletic trainers select employment settings that allow them to treat athletes as their patients, athletic trainers work with a diverse group of patients across many job settings. Future studies should quantify the athletic identity of athletic trainers employed in other settings, particularly those working in non-traditional settings. It may also be beneficial to compare the athletic identity of athletic trainers with other healthcare professionals to examine any potential differences. Our cross-sectional study collected data at one time point and did not involve any retroactive assessment of athletic identity which would have allowed us to determine if the athletic identity of athletic trainers decreases over time. Retroactive examination of athletic identity could be valuable information to further examine the career choices of potential athletic training students. As our profession transitions the professional degree level this could be valuable information to help determine why students are attracted to the profession. A retrospective examination of athletic identity could also help shed light on the career exploration process of athletic trainers and could help to explain attrition from educational programs or early career attrition. Additionally, it is recommended that future studies explore any potential relationships between athletic identity and individual outcomes (i.e. burnout, long term exercise behaviors, anxiety) as previous research has linked athletic identity to these constructs.^{8,12-14}

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

350 Although collegiate athletic trainers have selected a career tangential to sport, their
351 athletic identity is similar to former athletes who selected careers outside sport. This may
352 indicate that athletic trainers are involved in adaptive career decision processes. Components
353 of athletic identity appear to differ based on employment setting though it is not clear if this is
354 a result of the work setting or represents a component of self-identity that is dictating career
355 choices. Previous research has highlighted that many athletic trainers were interested in the
356 profession due to their own involvement in sport and this study confirms the majority of
357 collegiate athletic trainers participated in organized sport at one point in their lives. The results
358 of this study may begin to offer insight into why and how potential athletic training students
359 choose to enter the profession and warrant further exploration as to why athletic trainers
360 persist in the field, as the factors that influence prospective athletic training students may
361 evolve as the profession transitions to a professional level master's degree.

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Table 1. Participant Demographics

Demographic	N (%)
Sex (n = 255)	
Male	93 (37)
Female	162 (63)
Race/ethnicity (n = 254)	
Black not of Hispanic origin	12 (4.7)
Asian or Pacific Islander	6 (2.3)
White not of Hispanic origin	224 (87.2)
Hispanic	5 (1.9)
Multiethnic	6 (2.3)
Other	1 (0.4)
Highest level of education (n = 256)	
Bachelor's degree	18 (7.0)
Master's degree	229 (89.1)
Doctoral degree	9 (3.5)
NATA district (n = 248)	
1	28 (10.9)
2	40 (15.6)
3	35 (13.6)
4	45 (17.5)
5	19 (7.4)
6	9 (3.5)
7	6 (2.3)
8	26 (10.1)
9	27 (10.5)
10	13 (5.1)
Current position title (n = 256)	
Assistant AT	90 (35.2)
Associate AT	28 (10.9)
Head AT	82 (31.9)
Director of SM	18 (7.0)
Other	38 (14.8)
Length of contract (n = 256)	
9 months	11 (4.3)
10 months	46 (17.9)
11 months	15 (5.8)
12 months	171 (66.5)
Other	13 (5.1)
Org. reporting structure (n = 254)	
Academics	12 (4.7)
Athletics	204 (79.4)

	Medical	32 (12.5)
	Other	6 (2.3)
Marital status (n = 256)		
	Married	146 (56.8)
	Single	81 (31.5)
	Divorced	18 (7.0)
	Separated	1 (0.4)
	Other	10 (3.9)
Sexual orientation (n = 252)		
	Heterosexual	233 (90.7)
	Homosexual	18 (7.1)
	Bisexual	1 (0.4)
Family status (n = 255)		
	No children	136 (52.9)
	Children	119 (46.3)
Collegiate employment setting (n = 251)		
	NCAA Division I	100 (38.9)
	NCAA Division II	42 (16.3)
	NCAA Division III	76 (29.6)
	NAIA	15 (5.8)
	Other	18 (7.2)

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Table 2. Athletic Identity Scores by Demographics

	Athletic Identity Score range (7 – 49)	Social Identity range (3 – 21)	Exclusivity range (2 – 14)	Negative Affectivity range (2 – 14)
Total Sample	23 [IQR;17, 29]	12 [IQR; 8, 14]	5 [IQR; 3,8]	6 [IQR; 4, 9]
Self-Identified Former Athlete	23 [IQR; 17, 29]	12 [IQR; 8, 14]	5 [IQR; 3, 7.25]	6 [IQR; 4, 9]
Self-Identified Non-Athlete	18 [IQR; 9.75, 21.25]	9 [IQR; 4.75, 10]	5.0 [IQR; 2.75, 6.25]	2.5 [IQR; 2, 6]
Male	23 [IQR; 15.5, 28.5]	12 [IQR; 7.5, 14]	6 [IQR; 3, 8.5]	6 [IQR; 3, 8]
Female	24 [IQR; 18, 29]	12 [IQR; 9, 14]	4 [IQR; 3, 7]	7 [IQR; 4, 9]
Div I	22 [IQR; 16, 28]	10 [IQR; 8, 13]	4.5 [IQR; 3, 7]	6.0 [IQR; 4, 8]
Div II	24.5 [IQR; 20, 29.25]	12 [IQR; 8.75, 15]	6 [IQR; 4, 8]	7 [IQR; 4, 8.25]
Div III	23 [IQR; 16, 29]	12 [IQR; 8, 15]	4 [IQR; 3, 7]	6 [IQR; 3, 9]
NAIA	26 [IQR; 24, 29]	12 [IQR; 12, 15]	7 [IQR; 4, 9]	6 [IQR; 4, 8]
Bachelor’s Degree	20.5 [IQR; 13.5, 25.25]	10.5 [IQR; 7.75, 15]	4 [IQR; 2, 8]	3.5 [IQR; 2, 5.25]
Master’s Degree	24 [IQR; 17, 29]	12 [IQR; 9, 14]	5 [IQR; 3, 7]	7 [IQR; 4, 9]
Doctoral Degree	23 [IQR; 16, 27.5]	10 [IQR; 6.5, 13.5]	4 [IQR; 2.5, 7.5]	8 [IQR; 4, 9]

- Median and the 25% and 75% interquartile range are presented

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