

Gender differences in careers and publications within the sport management academy**Abstract**

Sport management programs are essential pathways by which aspiring professionals in the sport industry achieve their university education. While a substantial segment of sport management scholarship has focused on driving for higher rates of diversity, equity, and inclusion in the sport industry, less attention has been paid to the sport management academy. In this study, we examine the gender representation of full-time faculty positions, publications, and research methodologies in sport management. Our results show that men are employed in higher numbers overall. In the 329 sport management programs studied, the percentage of women employed at each level are as follows: assistant professor (46.8%), associate professor (39.5%), and full professor (37%), suggesting a drop-off aligned with the concept of career derailment, or a time-lag in reaching equity in the discipline. Women are also less published within top sport management journals (*Journal of Sport Management*, *European Sport Management Quarterly*, and *Sport Management Review*). Implications of these findings are discussed as well as future research directions.

Key words: gender, careers, publications, academy, jobs

21 The lack of diversity in sport workplaces has been well established (Burton, 2015;
22 Cunningham & Sagas, 2008; Sibson, 2010). Stemming from a long history of glorified
23 masculinity, male dominance, gender stereotyping, and homologous reproduction, sport
24 workplaces remain predominantly male and White (Anderson, 2009, Burton, 2015; Darwin,
25 2020; Ornanista, 2017; Regan & Cunningham, 2012, Sibson, 2010; Schull & Kihl, 2019; Taylor
26 et al., 2017; Whisenant, 2008). The scholars who have studied the lack of diversity in sport
27 organizations are largely affiliated with sport management departments. The fast-growing sport
28 management academy is one of the main avenues by which aspiring professionals in the sport
29 industry achieve their university education (Keiper et al., 2019; Mathner & Martin, 2012), and
30 thus, it is a space that can be highly influential on student perceptions of what is “normal” in
31 sports. In this paper, we assess whether the sport management academy remains similarly
32 stratified according to gender.

33 In 1966, the first master’s degree program in sport management was established at Ohio
34 University (NASPE-NASSM, 1993). By 1978, there were 20 sport management graduate
35 programs and three undergraduate programs in the United States (Parkhouse, 1978), a number
36 that ballooned to 1,100 by the mid 1990s (Jones et al., 2008; Lambert, 1999). Outside the United
37 States, sport management undergraduate, graduate, and doctoral programs have emerged in
38 response to growing demand. Jones and colleagues (2008) recorded that as of 2007, there were
39 14 sport management programs in Europe, 12 in Canada, eight in Australia, and four in New
40 Zealand. The latest list of sport management programs (downloaded in September 2020;
41 <https://www.nassm.com/Programs/AcademicPrograms>) in North America, published by the
42 North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM), includes 558 programs in the U.S.,
43 16 in Canada, 13 in Australia, and three in New Zealand. The growing number of faculty
44 positions in these departments was confirmed in Lubisco and colleagues’ 2018 study (Lubisco et

45 al., 2019), which found that there were 148 job openings in sport management programs in the
46 United States and Canada between May 1, 2017, and April 30, 2018, compared to 58 in the
47 2010-2011 academic year. And yet, despite massive growth in recent decades and greater
48 opportunity within the sport management academy, little is known of its gender and racial
49 makeup. That being said, there is a great deal of literature examining the experiences of women
50 across the sport industry with much of that research uncovering the influence of stereotyping and
51 discriminatory practices that generate unwelcoming cultures (e.g. Darvin et al., 2021b;
52 Stokowski, et al., 2018; Taylor et al., 2017). Specifically, according to Darvin et al., (2021b),
53 there are processes of symbolic equality throughout sport industry spaces, suggesting that
54 organizations within this arena are engaging in practices that appear to promote equality, but in
55 reality are merely there to represent the façade of impactful initiatives (i.e. window dressing).
56 These ineffective programming and procedural initiatives have minimal impact on overall
57 equitable representation in male-prominent spaces and do little to combat the myriad of barriers
58 and obstacles minority employees may experience (Darvin et al., 2021b).

59 These obstacles and barriers that are known across sport industry spaces, combined with
60 our nearing 55 years of sport management instruction in academia, suggest it is past time for an
61 assessment of diversity in the field. As a result, in this paper we focus specifically on gender-
62 based equity. Beyond the simple morality of ensuring more equal representation of men and
63 women faculty, sex- or gender-based equality also produces better outcomes for institutions and
64 students (Menter, 2020; Nielsen et al. 2017; Nielsen et al., 2018). Given the sport management
65 academy's growing interest in diversity, equity, and inclusion as a field of study, with scholars
66 publishing articles and journal editors devoting special issues to the subject, it is also imperative
67 that the discipline looks inward, systematically assessing its own identity composition. While the
68 lack of faculty of color in sport organizations and in the sport management academy is also of

69 significant concern (McDowell et al., 2019), examining racial equity in the sport management
70 academy is not within the scope of this study.

71 **Literature Review**

72 **The Glass Ceiling and Women's Career Advancement**

73 The well-known glass ceiling metaphor, which describes the invisible barrier women
74 workers face in trying to reach the highest echelons of leadership in their respective fields, has
75 since been replaced by the “labyrinth”, or a maze that women must advance through in order to
76 reach upper management levels (Eagly & Carli, 2007, Hardin et al., 2017). While women have
77 progressed to leadership roles in some male-dominated industries (i.e., politics, business, sport),
78 there remains significant gender inequities in the workforce generally, and specifically in
79 academia (e.g., Cardel et al., 2020; Fotaki, 2013; Mahleck, 2015; Valian, 2005). Several theories
80 have been advanced to explain the discrepancies between men and women's employment and
81 career advancement, including gender stereotyping (Shlesinger et al., 2019; Wicker et al., 2019),
82 homologous reproduction (for hiring and promotion; Darvin & Lubke 2021; Regan &
83 Cunningham, 2012; Whisenant 2008), and derailment (for career progression; Bono et al.,
84 2016).

85 **Gender Stereotypes**

86 Gender stereotypes are generalizations about the attributes of men and women, and come
87 in two distinct forms: “Descriptive gender stereotypes designate what women and men *are* like.
88 Prescriptive gender stereotypes designate what women and men *should be* like” (Heilman, 2012,
89 p.114). Both forms of stereotypes can have an impact on the careers of women (e.g.,
90 Anthanasopoulou et al., 2018; Heilman, 2012). Within the sport industry, descriptive stereotypes
91 are often used to explain the lack of women in leadership (Grappendorf & Burton, 2017;
92 Sotiriadou & de Haan, 2019), coaching (Darvin et al., 2018; Schlesinger et al., 2021; Wicker et

93 al., 2019), and officiating (Nordstrom, 2013), as they promote views that women are not the
94 “right fit” for these more “masculine” positions. This lack of fit often stems from assumptions
95 that women are not assertive or tough enough to hold important leadership positions (e.g.,
96 professor, coach; Heilman, 2012).

97 Gender stereotypes also exist in academic contexts regarding the type of work and
98 methodologies expected from women. More specifically, social science and qualitative methods
99 are thought of as women’s work (Knobloch-Westernwick et al., 2013), as is gender- and feminist-
100 oriented research (Grant & Ward, 1991; Jackson 2019). Women are still underrepresented in
101 science, technology, engineering, and math (STEM) fields (Holman et al., 2018; Wang & Dogol,
102 2017), even as nearly half of STEM students are women (Howe-Walsh & Turnbull, 2016). From
103 a methodological standpoint, qualitative methods are considered stereotypically feminine
104 (Breuning, 2010; Evans & Bucy, 2010; Hancock et al., 2013; Plowman & Smith, 2011), owing
105 to a preference for non-positivist work, often in traditionally under-researched areas (Hancock et
106 al., 2013). Women faculty are also often expected to do more emotional labor (Hothschild,
107 2012), be more nurturing and caring towards students, and to provide better mentorship than
108 their men counterparts (El-Alayli et al., 2018; Leathwood & Read, 2008; Meier et al., 2006).
109 This difference in expectations for men and women faculty became especially clear during the
110 COVID-19 pandemic, as women faculty were more often expected to provide support to students
111 dealing with family- or health-related issues (Costa, 2020).

112 In addition, implicit stereotyping in the field has contributed to lesser presumed
113 competencies and subsequently lesser treatment of women faculty (Stokowski, et al., 2018;
114 Taylor et al., 2017). Given that sport is a highly male-prominent space, the resulting stereotyping
115 contributes to the notion that women faculty are not as competent or knowledgeable in the field,
116 leading to adverse treatment compared to their men counterparts (Stokowski, et al., 2018; Taylor

117 et al., 2017). These implicit associations can be highly damaging to both the entry into the field
118 and sustainment within the profession.

119 **Homologous Reproduction**

120 Researchers also posit that homologous reproduction may be responsible for
121 discrepancies in hiring and promotion in academic, sport, and sport academic contexts.
122 Homologous reproduction is the process by which a dominant identity group systematically hires
123 or promotes workers with the same identity characteristics (gender, race, sexuality, class, or a
124 combination), maintaining structural and decision-making power and privilege in the hands of
125 people who look like them (Kanter, 1977). This has historically been studied with regards to
126 gender in male-dominated fields (Kanter, 1977; Knoppers, 1987), but can apply to other identity
127 characteristics as well. Managers may feel that by hiring those who are from similar
128 backgrounds, they have a better grasp of how the employee will work and behave, and their
129 group may work more cohesively (Sagas et al., 2006).

130 Knoppers (1987) first applied this theory to sport, suggesting that the lack of growth and
131 career progression for women in sport has been hindered by homologous reproduction
132 (Whisenant, 2008). Homologous reproduction has since been used to explain how and why a
133 variety of sport organizations maintain mostly homogenous worker composition, at the
134 interscholastic, junior college, and four-year college levels of competition (Darvin & Lubke,
135 2021; Mullane & Whisenant, 2007; Regan & Cunningham, 2012; Smith et al., 2019; Sveinson et
136 al., 2022; Taylor et al., 2019). This might also apply to sport-based academic programs.

137 Homologous reproduction may also play a part in explaining gender-based differences in
138 publication and citation rates in a variety of fields, a vital part of career advancement for
139 academics (Lindahl, 2018). Women remain underrepresented in STEM research (Frietsch et al.,

140 2009; Holman et al., 2018; Howe-Walsh & Turnbull, 2016; Wang & Dogol, 2017), and natural
141 science and quantitative research are still often considered men's work (Knobloch-Westerwick et
142 al., 2013). Men represent the majority in prestigious research positions, and STEM journal
143 editors are between 1.7-2.1 times more likely to request submissions from men authors than
144 women authors (Holman et al., 2018). Along with a myriad other factors, this preference of men
145 editors for men authors helps explain gender differences in publication rates in STEM. Similarly,
146 past research in sociology found that sociology journals with lower proportions of women editors
147 accepted fewer articles authored by women (Ward & Grant, 1985).

148 **Gender-Based Discrepancies in Academia**

149 Research has consistently shown that women are underrepresented in a variety of social
150 science fields, in terms of both publications and academic positions (Evans & Bucy, 2010;
151 Hancock et al., 2013; Snell et al., 2009, Taylor et al., 2017; Van Den Besselaar & Sandström,
152 2016). These disparities in publication rates and subsequent career advancement may relate to
153 the prioritization of specific research methodologies by academic gatekeepers. Qualitative
154 methods are often considered women's work (Knobloch-Westerwick et al., 2013), stemming
155 from the view that qualitative research embodies stereotypically "feminine" qualities like
156 empathy, emotional intelligence, and the ability to establish rapport and relationships (Bernard,
157 1985; Stanley & Wise, 1983). Today, women still publish more qualitative research than men in
158 political science, economics, sociology (Evans & Bucy, 2010; Plowman & Smith, 2011),
159 management (Plowman & Smith, 2011), and international studies (Breuning, 2010; Hancock et
160 al., 2013). Moreover, research has shown that qualitative methodologies are not published as
161 often in the most prestigious and highest impact factor journals in these fields (Bennett et al.,
162 2003; Donovan, 2007; Macdonald & Kam, 2007, Svensson, 2006). There remains a preference

163 for quantitative work in a variety of academic disciplines and journals, which may be to the
164 detriment of women scholars who work with qualitative methods.

165 Discrepancies in publishing rates for men and women academics could also help explain
166 why some women academics are “derailed” in their academic careers. Derailment is the term
167 used to explain how women are more likely than men to be derailed in their leadership and
168 career advancement goals (Bono et al., 2016). Beyond biased outcomes (such as publication
169 rates) that may derail careers, Bono and colleagues (2016) found that managers often *believe* that
170 women are more likely to leave a position or derail their own career in the future, regardless of
171 how strong their performance is in the present. They also found that when managers or potential
172 mentors believe this, they are less likely to offer mentorship to that employee (Bono et al., 2016).
173 Not only does this biased belief about women’s advancement hinder mentorship opportunities
174 and career advancement, but it also normalizes homogenous male leadership teams and
175 institutionalizes traditionally masculine leadership styles (Alimo-Metcalf, 1995; Grappendorf &
176 Burton, 2017; Eagly, 2007; Lorinkova & Perry, 2019) often linked with hegemonic masculinity
177 (Connell 1995).

178 More senior roles in academia (full professor, department chair, or dean) may also favor
179 stereotypical masculine assumptions of good leadership and the attributes required for success,
180 even though these traits do not systematically lead to better outcomes. Transformational
181 leadership styles that are more often associated with women are actually more highly correlated
182 with stronger group performance, compared to transactional styles favored by men (Lorinkova &
183 Perry 2019).

184 Given the presence of homologous reproduction and derailment in both academia and the
185 sport industry, as well as sport’s historic glorification of hegemonic masculinity, it is possible we
186 see substantial levels of gender-based inequity in the sport management academy. While it is

187 difficult to measure gender-based inequity, and even more difficult to determine what might
188 cause this inequity, surveying both the gender breakdown of full-time faculty in sport
189 management departments and the gender-based breakdown of publication rates in top sport
190 management journals can provide a useful proxy.

191 **Research Questions**

192 To assess the current gender composition of sport management faculty as well as the
193 potential for this composition to change in the coming years, we collected and analyzed data
194 about both faculty composition and publication rates (over time).

- 195 1. What is the gender breakdown of career-track faculty in the sport management academy
196 in the U.S., Canada, Australia, and New Zealand?
- 197 2. What is the gender breakdown at different levels of career-track faculty (assistant,
198 associate, and full professors)?
- 199 3. What is the gender breakdown of authorship in the *Journal of Sport Management*, *Sport*
200 *Management Review*, and *European Sport Management Quarterly*?
 - 201 a. What percentage of qualitative research is done by women?
 - 202 b. What percentage of women's research uses qualitative methods?

203 **Method**

204 **Sport Management Faculty Career Data**

205 The North American Society for Sport Management maintains a list of universities that
206 offer sport management programs (<https://www.nassm.com/Programs/AcademicPrograms>). In
207 September 2020, we downloaded this list, which included 558 programs in the U.S., 16 in
208 Canada, 13 in Australia, and three in New Zealand. To be included in our analysis, programs
209 needed to offer a stand-alone bachelor's or master's degree (as opposed to a certificate or

210 concentration) in sport management. Following a first check to ensure the programs existed and
211 had at least one full-time faculty in sport management, 130 programs in the U.S. and three in
212 Canada were removed from further analysis for one of the following reasons: the program was
213 closed, the university was closed, a sport management program does not exist (e.g., it is a
214 kinesiology program or a physical education program), the department offers only a certificate in
215 sport management, or the program was merged with another program and there is no clear
216 differentiation between sport management faculty and another program's faculty. In all, 300
217 institutions were retained for further analysis in the U.S., 13 in Canada, 13 in Australia, and three
218 in New Zealand. While this represents the full population of programs in these countries, we
219 acknowledge that this is not an exhaustive list of worldwide sport management programs.

220 Using the institutions' websites as a starting point, we found faculty lists for each sport
221 management department and counted the number of full professors, associate professors,
222 assistant professors, and full-time lecturers, and their gender. We included only career-track
223 faculty, which we defined as those in permanent full-time roles, excluding visiting professors
224 and lecturers, as well as adjunct faculty.

225 To ascribe a gender to each faculty member, which we acknowledge is a complicated
226 and imperfect practice¹, particularly when using online data and profiles (Karimi et al., 2016),
227 we first checked faculty profiles to see if they used specific pronouns. Where no profile was
228 available, we relied on the combination of pictures and names of each person, and used the

¹ The authorship team debated the terminology used in this study at length, weighing the merits of the terms 'gender' and 'sex' to describe the identities of academics. Neither 'sex' nor 'gender' is perfect, as we are inferring identity markers through pictures and names where pronouns are not available – which is messy work – as acknowledged in previous research (Karimi et al. 2016; Wais, 2016). Nonetheless, as gendered workplace disparities exist (Evans & Bucy, 2010; Hancock et al., 2013; Snell et al., 2009, Taylor et al., 2017; Van Den Besselaar & Sandström, 2016), we feel this work must continue despite its flaws, and can be improved in future work with individuals self-identifying. For this paper, the SMEJ Editorial Board specifically requested that we use the term 'gender', in alignment with APA guidelines (7th edition).

229 GenderizeR package on R if the gender of the person was unclear. GenderizeR is a software
230 package which uses census data from several countries to determine the statistical likelihood that
231 a name is associated with one gender (Wais, 2016). In a review of softwares which assist with
232 name-to-gender inference, Santamaría and Mihaljević (2018) found GenderizerR to be the most
233 reliable software option, though it has a bias toward traditionally English names.

234 All the data for Canadian, Australian, and New Zealand universities were available using
235 the websites. However, for 197 of 438 U.S. universities, the websites were incomplete or a
236 faculty listing was impossible to find. In these cases, we emailed the department chair or the
237 listed contact in October 2020 to request the information on the number of faculty at each rank,
238 and their gender, through a Google Form. We received responses from 59 institutions, so the
239 final sample of U.S. universities included in the study was 300. The total number of institutions
240 included in the study across all countries was 329.

241 **Publication Records**

242 We also gathered data regarding sport management publication records over the last 33
243 years. We examined each issue of the three highest-impact (according to the NASSM-specific
244 journals: *Journal of Sport Management (JSM)*, *Sport Management Review (SMR)*, and *European*
245 *Sport Management Quarterly (ESMQ)*). This sample includes 318 journal issues between 1987-
246 2021, with 149 from *JSM* (1987-2021), 78 from *SMR* (1998-2021), and 91 from *ESMQ* (2001-
247 2021). We examined a total of 1,977 articles, with 885 from *JSM*, 631 from *SMR*, and 443 from
248 *ESMQ*. While it was not within the scope of this study to gather publication data from all current
249 and former sport management faculty, this sample allows for an analysis of the gender
250 breakdown in top sport management journals, as well as the gender breakdown of journal articles
251 that use qualitative methodologies.

252 For each journal issue, we collected data on the total number of articles, as well as the
253 total number of articles that used qualitative methods. We also listed the total number of men and
254 women authors for three levels of authorship (first, second, and third or more) as well as for
255 whether they used qualitative methods. To determine the gender of the authors, we checked
256 faculty profiles on university websites for pronouns, and without pronouns, used GenderizeR, as
257 described above (Wais, 2016). Each abstract was reviewed to assess the gender of each
258 individual author, as well as the methodology used in each article. While we are aware that we
259 cannot be sure of the gender of any author without consulting them individually, we used
260 GenderizeR to determine the statistical likelihood of a name being associated with one gender
261 (Wais, 2016).

262 Articles were listed as having used qualitative methods if they used open-ended or semi-
263 structured interviews, analyzed open-ended survey data (as the main methodology), or conducted
264 literature reviews, content analyses, policy reviews, media analysis, or Delphi studies. Case
265 studies were also included as qualitative methods articles, as were any mixed methods article that
266 used both qualitative and quantitative methodologies.

267 Results

268 Gender-based Differences in Sport Management Careers

270 In our review of 329 sport management departments², there were a total of 2,278 career-
271 track faculty. Overall, 961 faculty members were women (42%), while 1,317 were men (58%).

² This includes departments of sport management, sport business, sport studies concentrations in business school departments

272 At each level of faculty, men were employed in higher numbers, with the percentage of women
273 employed at each level as follows: assistant (46.8%), associate (39.5%), full (37%).

274 Examining the non-US departments, 178 faculty members were women (43%), while 236
275 were men (57%). In these departments, there were larger disparities in gender breakdown at each
276 level of faculty, as women represented 53% of assistant professors, 44.4% of associate
277 professors, and 34.9% of full professors. The breakdown of each country's sport management
278 departments and the totals are found in Table 1 and Figure 1.

279 [Insert Table 1 here]

280 [Insert Figure 1 here]

281 Looking at the 329 U.S. sport management departments, 783 faculty members were
282 women (42%), while 1,081 were men (58%). In the U.S., we included career-track, full-time
283 lecturers as a fourth level of faculty. In these departments, women represented 49.8% of
284 lecturers, 45.9% of assistant professors, 37.9% of associate professors, and 37.7% of full
285 professors (found in Table 2). At research universities (R1 and R2 programs), 42.1% of faculty
286 were women, with the following faculty level breakdown: lecturer (47.6%), assistant (49%),
287 associate (35.7%), and full (37.9%). At non-research universities, women represented 42% of
288 faculty, with the following faculty level breakdown: lecturer (51.6%), assistant (44.1%),
289 associate (39.4%), full (37.5%).

290 [Insert Table 2]

291 The sport management faculty composition of research and non-research universities was
292 very similar, though we saw women holding a slightly higher percentage of lecturer positions at
293 non-research universities, with a proportionate drop in assistant professor positions. While the
294 proportion of associate and full professors in R1 and R2 programs was also similar, women
295 represented a substantially higher proportion of lecturers (60.9%) in R2 institutions compared to

296 R1 (40%). There was a proportionate reversal among assistant professors, where women
297 represented 53.6% of assistant professor positions in R1 programs, compared to only 35.3% of
298 assistant professor positions in R2 programs.

299 **Sport Management Publications**

300 As of February 2021, 1,977 articles were published in the three highest impact sport
301 management journals (*JSM*, *ESMQ*, *SMR*). There were a total of 4,939 authors listed for these
302 articles, of which 3,334 were men (67.8%) and 1,587 were women (32.2%). Women represented
303 33.2% of first authors, 31.9% of second authors, and 30.1% of third+ authors. These percentages
304 were lower than women's representation as faculty.

305 Minor differences existed in women's authorship rates among the three journals. Overall,
306 women represented 33.8% of authors published in *SMR*, 33.5% in *JSM*, and 27.5% in *ESMQ*.
307 For first authorship, the rates were similar with slightly larger differences among the journals:
308 35.7% in *SMR*, 35.8% in *JSM*, and 28.2% *ESMQ*. On both measures, *ESMQ* had the lowest ratio
309 of articles published by women (Table 3). Over the last two decades, there was no significant
310 increase in the percentage of women's authorship in these journals (measured on a yearly basis
311 in which each year has several issues).

312 [Insert Table 3 here]

313 In terms of the research methodology breakdown, 727 of the 1,977 articles used
314 qualitative methods (36.4%). Of the qualitative methods articles, 773 of 1,790 qualitative
315 methods *authors* were women (43.2%). This represents a significantly higher percentage of
316 authorship for women compared to their representation in the total sample of articles (32.2%),
317 though men still have a higher share of authorship on the total amount of qualitative methods
318 articles. 48.7% of women authors used qualitative methods, compared to only 30.5% of men
319 authors. In other words, while a higher share of women's publications used qualitative methods

320 (48.7% vs. 30.5%), men still authored the majority of qualitative methods work (56.8%). These
321 results are found in Table 4 and Table 5.

322 [Table 4 here] (Qualitative methods articles breakdown)

323 [Table 5 here]

324 **Discussion**

325 At all levels of faculty in the sport management academy, women remain under-
326 represented. However, the level of underrepresentation varies systematically by faculty rank, as
327 women are much closer to equal representation in more junior assistant professor positions (as
328 well as in lecturer positions at U.S. schools). This breakdown does not change substantially in
329 any subdivision of the data, whether geographically or by the research level of schools. Higher
330 representation in lecturer and assistant professor positions without proportionate increases in
331 representation in associate and full professor positions could point to women's "symbolic
332 equality" in the sport management academy.

333 There are two potential explanations for this finding. On one hand, it is possible that this
334 disparity is simply due to a lag in the progression of women faculty's careers. The progression
335 from assistant to full professor is generally temporally linear, in that if faculty continue to reach
336 the necessary checkpoints and meet promotion requirements at their institution, they will
337 progress from assistant, to associate, and finally to full professor. Given the higher percentage of
338 women in assistant professor positions, one could assume that it is only a matter of time until
339 these assistant professors move to the associate and then the full professor rank. With this logic,
340 the current gender breakdown at different faculty ranks is a product of past hiring and promotion
341 practices, and will soon equalize.

342 On the other hand, it is possible that this disparity reflects different assessment and
343 promotion practices in sport management departments as well as some of the obstacles and

344 barriers experiences by women in other professions throughout the sport industry (Hancock et
345 al., 2018; Darvin et al., 2021a; Stokowski, et al., 2018; Taylor et al., 2017). These possibilities
346 reflect the concept of “derailment” (Bono et al., 2016), and would suggest departments are
347 engaging in a form of symbolic equality by hiring women into lecturer and assistant professor
348 roles, but not developing infrastructure and adopting policies that would foster and facilitate their
349 progression through the departmental ranks (Darvin et al., 2021b). In this way, departments can
350 present as trying to build equity in their faculty, without providing proper mechanisms and
351 culture for women to advance. For instance, it is well documented that the childrearing
352 responsibilities of mothers can have a detrimental effect on a woman academic’s promotion
353 prospects; thus, the absence of strong accommodation and family leave policies can derail a
354 woman’s progression from assistant professor to associate and full professor. Another salient
355 example is the use of – and sometimes over-emphasis on – publications as a metric for assessing
356 performance and determining promotion, as gender-based inequities in publishing trends may be
357 overlooked. By supplementing our faculty data with journal publication data in the three top
358 sport management journals, we examined one of these important assessment and promotion
359 tools. Women publish at a proportionally lower rate than their current faculty representation
360 would suggest (32% of publications vs. 42% of faculty). And while double-blind review helps to
361 ensure better opportunities for marginalized authors, it is clear a gap remains. If publications in
362 top journals like *JSM*, *SMR* and *ESMQ* are important criteria for promotion, and authorship in
363 these journals remains disproportionately skewed towards men, this could have a negative
364 impact on women’s promotion to ranks of associate and full professor.

365 This second explanation might suggest lower representation of women in associate and
366 full professor positions at research universities. There is a 3.8% difference between the rates of
367 associate professors at research (35.6%) versus non-research (39.4%) institutions, and no

368 substantial difference between the rates of full professors at research (37.9%) and non-research
369 (37.5%) institutions in the U.S. There is a 5.6% difference between the rates of associate
370 professors at U.S. research institutions (35.6%) versus all others institutions (41.2%), while there
371 is a slightly higher percentage of full professors at U.S. research institutions (37.9%) compared
372 to all other institutions (36.7%). While our journal article data is retrospective, this faculty data
373 provides only a snapshot of the current employment landscape in the sport management
374 academy.

375 A limitation of this study is its cross-sectional design for data collection on sport
376 management academic careers, rendering it impossible to determine which of the above theories
377 best explains the current gender breakdown of sport management departments. While it is
378 difficult to offer prescriptions for remedies at the department level or to hiring committees, we
379 can still speak to the importance of women scholars and academics developing collaborative
380 networks. It is also vital that both women and men already entrenched in the academy seek to
381 offer mentorship and publishing collaborations and opportunities with younger women
382 academics. To chart whether there are improvements to the gender balance of faculty, follow-up
383 studies should be conducted in a decade, as this represents roughly the amount of time it would
384 take a current doctoral student to be hired into a faculty role, then promoted to associate
385 professor; or the time it would take a current experienced assistant professor to become a full
386 professor.

387 We can also offer important implications for journal editors at sport management
388 journals. While double-blind review is widely perceived to reduce the likelihood of biased
389 feedback on submissions, the editors responsible for ultimately making publishing decisions are
390 privy to the names of the authors. Thus, editors at sport management journals have the
391 opportunity to be more mindful of the existing publishing inequities described in this study, and

392 to correct these by creating more opportunities for women academics to publish their work, thus
393 improving their career progression as well (Moher et al., 2018; Sinclair-Chapman, 2019).

394 It is also important to note that a higher percentage of women's journal publications use
395 qualitative methods. Compared to men, almost 20% more of women's publications used
396 qualitative methods. This difference remains, and has actually grown, in more recent work.
397 Examining only publication data since 2010, 51.9% of women's publications used qualitative
398 methods, while only 31.4% of men's publications used qualitative methods. If quantitative
399 methods continue to hold a higher position in scientific hierarchy (Bennett et al., 2003; Donovan,
400 2007; Macdonald & Kam, 2007, Svensson, 2006), the propensity for women scholars to engage
401 in qualitative work could also have a negative impact on promotion in the sport management
402 academy.

403 **Limitations**

404 There are several important limitations that we must note. As discussed above, the cross-
405 sectional nature of the career data is limiting in the sense that we can only glimpse the current
406 state of the field, and not ascribe an explanation for current discrepancies. Further, this study is
407 limited by its country- and journal selection: only career data in the U.S., Canada, Australia, and
408 New Zealand were collected, and only from the top three journals in the discipline. A more
409 nuanced view of the gender breakdown of the field may be achievable by adopting the same
410 methods with a broader sample of countries and journals.

411 Additionally, we did not collect data on how many different individual authors were
412 published in each journal, nor how many publications were by the same author(s). Therefore, we
413 cannot know whether it is the same men or women who make up most of the publishing in the
414 top three journals, or whether it is a more broad mix. A follow-up study might include this data
415 point in its collection.

416 Importantly, and as discussed in the methods section, there are several ethical and
417 practical challenges with inferring a person's gender from their name. While we aimed to
418 minimize the likelihood of mis-gendering authors and faculty members by using a reliable
419 gender inference software (GenderizeR; Wais, 2016), we acknowledge the limitations of this
420 software (e.g., it has a bias toward English names; Santamaría & Mihaljević, 2018) and note the
421 possibility that some names may have been misidentified in this process.

422 Based on our first check of U.S. and Canadian program websites, we had to remove 130
423 programs in the U.S. and three programs in Canada from further analysis because the programs
424 either did not exist or were merged with another program and faculty roles were not discernible.
425 Thus, it is possible that the list of programs maintained by NASSM was incomplete at the time of
426 data collection (September 2020) and some newer programs were missed.

427 A further limitation is the lack of information on sport management faculty on
428 institutions' websites, and non-response in the email request for information, which led us to
429 gather information on only 300 of 438 U.S. institutions with sport management programs (a
430 response rate of 68%). A follow-up study, suggested above, would benefit from calling each
431 institution that did not respond to the email request for information, to provide an additional
432 avenue for data collection.

433 An additional limitation stems from the relatively objective nature of the study in that
434 specific faculty experiences are not accounted for within this investigation. While the
435 experiences of faculty in these academic roles based on their respective gender identities may
436 play a role in the career progression and their research practices, we are unable to draw upon that
437 implication based on the data collected. Future investigations should seek to draw further
438 connections between the number of faculty, title, etc. for academics in this specific field in terms
439 of gender identity and the individual experiences of those faculty members.

440

Conclusion

441 The significance of this study lies in the delivery of a baseline of information on gender-

442 based differences in careers and publication rates in the sport management academy. It was clear

443 from both the career-related data we collected across four countries, and the journal publication

444 data collected in three sport management journals, that women are underrepresented in this field.

445 While it is impossible to distill the reasons for the under-representation, due to the cross-

446 sectional design, it will be possible to discern explanations and align the trends with current

447 theories in a follow-up study in due time. It is our hope that per the adage “what gets measured

448 gets managed”, the findings of this study will inform editors’ decision-making at journals and

449 provide justification for the development of more publishing opportunities for women in the

450 discipline.

451

452

453

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455

456

457 **References**

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675

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677

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682

683 All authors contributed to the study conception and design. Material preparation, data collection
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685 written by author 2, author 1 and author 3. All authors commented on previous versions of the
686 manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

687

688 The dataset generated for this research are available from the corresponding author.

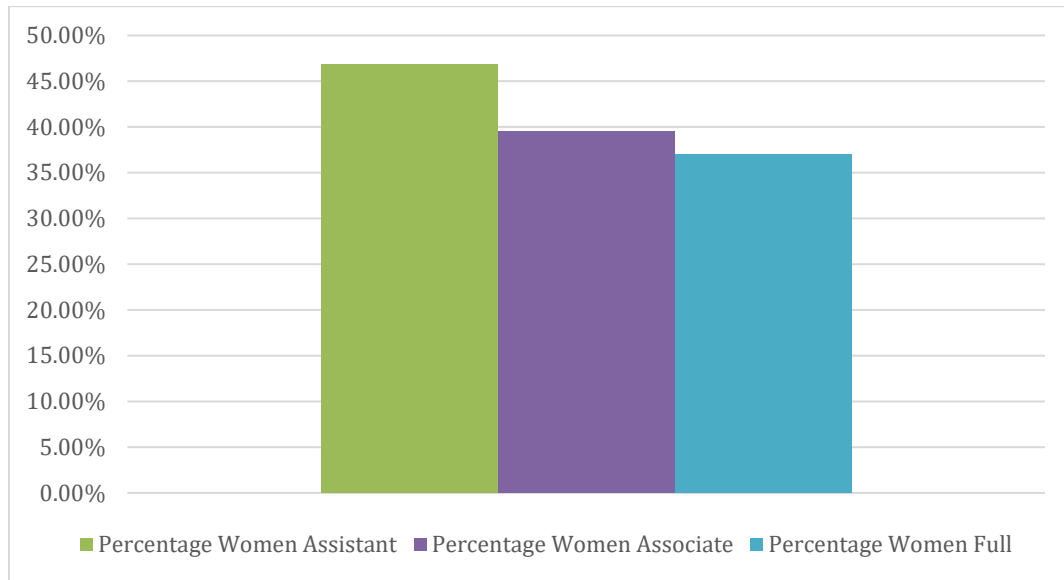
Table 1

Gender breakdown of sport management faculty by country and rank

COUNTRY	Men	Women	Percentage Women	Men Assistant	Women Assistant	Percentage Women Assistant	Men Associate	Women Associate	Percentage Women Associate	Men Full	Women Full	Percentage Women Full
USA	1081	783	42.01%	310	263	45.90%	325	198	37.86%	306	185	37.68%
Canada	61	61	50.00%	15	14	48.28%	27	26	49.06%	19	21	52.50%
Australia	129	79	37.98%	7	8	53.33%	56	44	44.00%	66	27	29.03%
NZ	46	38	45.24%	17	22	56.41%	12	6	33.33%	12	4	25.00%
Non-US												
Totals	236	178	43.00%	39	44	53.01%	83	76	47.80%	97	52	34.90%
Totals	1317	961	42.19%	349	307	46.80%	420	274	39.48%	403	237	37.03%

All data as of September 2020

Figure 1



Percentage of Faculty Who Are Women (full sample)

Table 2***Sport Management Faculty in US Universities – Non-Research and Research Institutions***

	Men	Women	Percentage	Men Lecturers	Women Lecturers	Percentage Women Lecturers	Men Assistant	Women Assistant	Percentage Women Assistant	Men Associate	Women Associate	Percentage Women Associate
Non-Research	658	476	41.98%	74	79	51.63%	205	162	44.14%	186	121	39.41%
R1	306	224	42.26%	48	32	40.00%	72	83	53.55%	97	55	36.18%
R2	117	83	41.50%	18	28	60.87%	33	18	35.29%	42	22	34.38%
Total	1081	783	42.01%	140	139	49.82%	310	263	45.90%	325	198	37.86%
R1+R2	423	307	42.05%	66	60	47.62%	105	101	49.03%	139	77	35.65%

*M is Men; W is Women

Table 3*Gender-breakdown of authorship in JSM, SMR, and ESMQ*

	Woman first author	Man first author	Women first author percentage	Woman second author	Man second author	Women second author percentage	Woman third author	Man third author	Third author percentage	All women authors	All men authors	Women authors percentage	All authors
<i>JSM</i>	317	568	35.82%	221	457	32.60%	150	362	29.30%	688	1387	33.16%	2075
<i>SMR</i>	225	406	35.66%	183	349	34.40%	165	347	32.23%	573	1102	34.21%	1675
<i>ESMQ</i>	130	331	28.20%	101	270	27.22%	95	244	28.02%	326	845	27.84%	1171
All	672	1305	33.99%	505	1076	31.94%	410	953	30.08%	1587	3334	32.25%	4921

Table 4*Authorship of Qualitative Research Articles*

	Qualitative methods authors	Total authors	Percentage of gender-specific authorship using qualitative methods
Women	773	1587	48.71%
Men	1017	3334	30.50%
Total	1790	4921	36.37%

Table 5*Percentage of authorship by method*

	Women's authorship	Men's authorship
Qualitative methods	43.18%	32.25%
Quantitative methods	56.82%	67.75%
Total	100%	100%