doi: 10.4085/1062-6050-0628.20

The Athletic Identity of Collegiate Athletic Trainers: A Descriptive Study

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The Athletic Identity of Collegiate Athletic Trainers: A Descriptive Study

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

Design: Cross-sectional observational study. Setting: Collegiate clinical setting. Patients and Other Participants: A total of 257 (n = 93 (37%) males, n = 162 (63%) females) athletic trainers employed in the collegiate setting were included in data analysis. Main Outcome Measure(s): Data were collected via a web-based survey platform which was designed to measure athletic identity. Demographic information was analyzed for frequency and distribution. Mann-Whitney U tests and Kruskal-Wallis tests were calculated to determine if group differences existed.

Results: The large majority of participants (90%) self-identified as having participated in organized sport yet scored moderately on the athletic identity measurement scale (22.9 ± 7.9). There were no sex differences in overall athletic identity (p = .446), but females did have higher levels of negative affectivity (p = .045) than males. Testing also revealed group differences based on current employment setting for social identity (p = .020), with NCAA Division I scores less than Division II, III, and NAIA. NCAA Division III exclusivity (p = .030) was lower than NCAA Division II and NAIA. Conclusions: It appears that components of athletic identity vary based on the employment setting of collegiate athletic trainers and may have a relationship to the number of hours worked in the summer. The moderate athletic identity scores of collegiate
athletic trainers are comparable to former athletes who selected career paths outside of sport. This may indicate adaptive career decision processes. **Key Words:** Negative Affectivity, Social-Identity, Exclusivity, Foreclosure

### Key Points:

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

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

Identity is defined as a process that blends personality and connects an individual to the social world. Athletic identity is a concept in which individuals self-identify with the role of
athlete. The athletic self-perception is developed as a response to group affiliations and social interactions based around sport and influences the degree of importance of athletics in an individual’s life. Athletic identity has been studied extensively in various areas related to aspects of one’s career. The challenge for many individuals who exhibit a high level of athletic identity is striking a balance between their development as athletes and their development as individuals and future professionals. Previous literature has identified that student-athletes who highly identify with their role as an athlete are more likely to explore a sport-related profession as compared to professions outside the athletic environment. Additionally, a high degree of athletic identity has been linked to the increased risk of delayed career development, burnout, and anxiety. However, there are also potential positive outcomes related to a strong athletic identity. Potential positive outcomes include a greater likelihood of long-term involvement in exercise behaviors and an enhanced development of sense of self.

Research examining the work-life interface has highlighted the role individual level factors, such as personality and values, play on both individual level (job satisfaction, turnover, health, stress) and organizational level outcomes (job performance, culture, policies, labor force composition). Within the collegiate employment setting organizational factors including inadequate staff size, inequity between hours and salary, and a perceived lack of work schedule autonomy have been cited as factors negatively impacting job satisfaction and career intention. In recent years, athletic training literature has begun to explore individual level factors and former athletic trainers indicate individual level factors contributed to their departure from the profession. An examination of athletic identity, an individual level factor, can help researchers better understand the work-life interface of athletic trainers.
Limited evidence examining the idea of athletic identity in this population exists despite reports of athletic trainers choosing the field because of an interest in sport and their own prior involvement in athletics. Due to the identified relationship between a strong athletic identity and career challenges that have been documented in the athletic training profession, we identified a need to quantitatively assess the athletic identity of athletic trainers due to a lack of literature on this topic. Previous qualitative data revealed that collegiate athletic trainers value the role of athletics in their lives, but as previously mentioned, the concept of athletic identity was not quantified in this population. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to quantify athletic identity among an athletic trainer population employed in the collegiate setting. In addition, we wanted to determine if any demographic group differences exist regarding athletic identity among this population.

**METHODS**

**Study Design**

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

**Procedures**

Data presented were collected in conjunction with data related to the work-family guilt of collegiate athletic trainers. For this study only data related to participant demographics and athletic identity were analyzed and will be presented.
A random sample of 2,500 emails of certified athletic trainers employed in the collegiate setting was generated by the National Athletic Trainers Association (NATA) membership services. Individuals were emailed a recruitment letter which explained the purpose of the study and a web link to the online survey. In an attempt to increase enrollment, reminder emails were sent to all email addresses initially contacted at 14 and 21 days after the initial request for participation was distributed. Researchers emailed participants directly to ensure personal emails could not be linked to responses to help ensure confidentiality. All potential participants were Bcc’d on emails to further help ensure confidentiality.

Participants

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

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

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

Athletic Identity

The 7-item composite AIMS was used to identify participants’ athletic identity. The AIMS has been shown to be a reliable and valid measure of athletic identity. Internal consistency of the AIMS ($\alpha = .81-.93$) has been obtained and AIMS scores have been shown to increase with level of sport involvement, perceived importance of sports competence, and other constructs that relate to athletic identity. The AIMS was initially designed to investigate the relationship of athletic identity to emotional disturbance during common transitions encountered by athletes and from a developmental perspective. The original AIMS was a 10-item measure and became the most commonly used measure of athletic identity, however the dimensionality of this scale was questioned by various researchers. In order to discern the dimensionality of the AIMS, Brewer and Cornelius examined its factorial structure and invariance and removed three items from the original scale. The 7-item composite AIMS was used for this study given...
the issues identified in the original 10-item measures and because it has been shown to be appropriate for assessing athletic identity in both males and females and among athletes and non-athletes. The scale consists of three factors that have been shown to be subordinate to one higher-order athletic identity factor; 1) social identity, 2) exclusivity, and 3) negative affectivity. The social identity subscale measures the degree to which an individual views themself as occupying the role of athlete. The exclusivity subscale measures an individual’s degree of self-worth by participating in athletics. The negative affectivity subscales measure the degree to which unwanted athletic outcomes impact negative emotions. Higher scores on all subscales indicate higher levels of each individual factor. Previous research has also indicated that participation in sport may influence the self-perceptions of recreational sports participants, even if the participant themselves did not define themselves as athletes per se. The items on the scale are rated on a 7-point Likert scale and are summed to create an overall athletic identity. Scores on the scale can range from 7 to 49, with higher scores indicating a higher athletic identity.

Data Analysis

Data were downloaded from the online survey platform into an Excel (Microsoft, Redmond, WA, USA) and then transferred into an SPSS (version 22.0; IBM Corporation, Armonk, NY, USA) worksheet. The data were cleaned by listwise deleting if the participant did not complete at least 90% of the survey instrument. A total of 257 participants were included in data analysis, after removing 89 participants who did not answer at least 90% of the questions. The a priori
level was set at $p < .05$ prior to data analysis and all descriptive and significance testing was completed via SPSS.

Scores were summed for the AIMS and three factors and a Kolmogrov-Smirnov test was calculated to determine the normality of variables, revealing data were nonparametric.

Spearmen correlations were calculated to determine the relationship among athletic identity, age, years of experience, years of Board of Certification (BOC) certification, years in current position, and average hours worked per week (in-season, off-season, and summer). Separate Mann-Whitney U tests were performed to determine if any differences existed in athletic identity score based on sex or family status. Kruskal-Wallis tests were performed to determine if there was a difference in athletic identity score based on race/ethnicity, highest level of education, current position title, length of contract, organizational reporting structure, marital status, and NCAA Division of employment.

**RESULTS**

**Demographics**

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

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

**Athletic Identity of Collegiate Athletic Trainers**

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

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

**Demographic Group Differences based on Athletic Identity**

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

Results of the Kruskal-Wallis Test revealed no statistically significant differences between race/ethnicity, highest level of education, current position title, length of contract,
organizational reporting structure, NCAA Division, or marital status in regard to athletic identity score. There was statistically significant difference in the negative affectivity factor and highest level of education ($\chi^2 [2] = 10.092, p = .006$) with a mean rank score of 75.83 for Bachelor’s Degree, 131.47 for Master’s Degree, and 144.33 for Doctoral Degree (Table 2). Post hoc testing revealed a statistically significant difference between the Bachelor’s Degree and Master’s Degree groups ($p = .002$) and the Bachelor’s Degree and Doctoral Degree groups ($p = .022$) indicating that individuals with an earned Bachelor’s Degree had lower negative affectivity than both individuals with an earned Master’s Degree and individuals with an earned Doctoral Degree.

Additional statistical significance was observed based on current work setting and two of the AIMS factors. There was a statistically significant difference in the social identity factor and NCAA Division ($\chi^2 [4] = 11.653, p = .020$) and the exclusivity factor and NCAA Division ($\chi^2 [4] = 10.731, p = .030$). Post hoc testing revealed statistically significant differences between the NCAA Division I group and NCAA Division III group ($p = .019$), NCAA Division II group ($p = .020$) and NAIA group ($p = .010$) as it relates to the social identity factor and a statistically significant differences between the NCAA Division III group and NCAA Division II group ($p = .030$) and NAIA group ($p = .025$) as it relates to the exclusivity factor (Table 2).

**DISCUSSION**

The goal of this study was to quantify the athletic identity of collegiate athletic trainers and to determine if demographic differences existed. Because the literature has identified that athletic training students are drawn to the profession because of a strong affiliation to a sports/team model it is important to quantify the athletic identity of those currently employed.
as athletic trainers to better understand if athletic identity is driving entrance into the profession. Our findings revealed that the large majority of collegiate athletic trainers indicate previous involvement in organized sport as an athlete, though they scored moderately on the athletic identity scale. There were no sex differences in total athletic identity scores, though females scored higher than males on the negative affectivity subscale. Participants employed in the NCAA Division I setting had lower social identity than their colleagues employed in the NCAA Division II, NCAA Division III, and NAIA settings. Additionally, the exclusivity scores of respondents employed in both the NCAA Division II and NAIA collegiate settings were higher than their colleagues employed in the NCAA Division III setting.

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

Our results did highlight that female athletic trainers employed in the collegiate setting had higher negative affectivity scores than their male counterparts. Negative affectivity is a measurement of negative emotions stemming from unwanted sporting outcomes. Lamont-Mills and Christensen identified that both elite and recreational female athletes had the same level...
of negative affectivity and speculated that female’s participation in sport, particularly at a recreational level, is more related to physical self-worth or self-concept than athletic identity. They went on to speculate that for females, unwanted aspects may be more related to physical as opposed to athletic characteristics and that participation in sport may be linked to a desire to be physically active. Our findings could help explain Cuppet and Latin’s findings specific to female athletic trainers’ physical activity compared to males and may indicate that males and females are active in sport for different reasons.

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

Former athletes who choose careers in coaching are more likely to commit to a career without examining other professional pathways, which may indicate maladaptive characteristics. Despite research indicating that athletic training students select their academic and career path based on sport affiliations our results suggest, given the similar athletic identity score of non-coaches, that athletic trainers employed in the collegiate setting
likely use an adaptive approach toward making career choices. An adaptive career decision approach involves exploring and narrowing career options, committing to a specific career goal, and implementing the selected career.\textsuperscript{28} It is important to note that we did not measure tendency to foreclose in this study, and therefore cannot say with any certainty if collegiate athletic trainers use an adaptive or maladaptive approach to career selection.

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

Previous research has identified that a large number of athletic trainers are former athletes,\textsuperscript{1} and our results confirm this with more than 90% of our participants self-identifying as a former athlete. While all of the athletic trainers in our study were employed in a career and setting that included a high level of involvement with sport, their athletic identity was interestingly lower than what we see in former athletes who select a career in coaching.\textsuperscript{27}
Several possible explanations exist to explain our results in regard to athletic trainers having lower athletic identity than former athletes who chose a career in sport.

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

Conversely, this expanded self-identity to include the role of healthcare professional may also contribute to attrition from the athletic training profession. Research has identified that bureaucracy and politics of the traditional athletic setting can lead to the experience of burnout in collegiate athletic trainers. Additionally, the ability to have a successful career as an athletic trainer and persist in the field, particularly within the NCAA Division I setting, has been discussed in the context of one’s ability to “fit the mold” of the environment. While this investigation did not explore the relationship between athletic identity and organizational culture within this athletic setting, it is possible that the evolution of both athletic identity and
self-identity influence the athletic trainer’s perception of their ability to “fit the mold” long term, subsequently influencing attrition within the clinical setting or profession. Lastly, given the high number of hours that collegiate athletic trainers work (58 ± 14 hours per week in our sample) there may not be time to engage in personal sport activity causing a subsequent drop in athletic identity. Because we did not assess athletic identity retrospectively and previous research has indicated that athletic trainers do value and make time for physical activity in their lives\textsuperscript{1,24} this is not substantiated by our research. Additionally, our results did reveal a weak negative correlation between athletic identity and the number of hours worked in the summer. This finding could be an indication that individuals who work less in the summer have more time to engage in sport or individuals with higher athletic identity chose employment settings that require them to work less in the summer so that they have more time to engage in recreational athletic activities. This relationship, however, was weak, and more research is warranted to explore this concept. Athletic trainers currently employed in the NCAA Division I setting had lower social identity scores than those employed in NCAA Division II, Division III and NAIA settings. The social identity subscale measures the degree to which an individual defines themselves as an athlete. An observed relationship between athletic identity and the number of hours worked in the summer in combination with the negative correlation associated with summer hours is thought provoking. Previous research has indicated that NCAA rule changes that allow more sanctioned activities in the summer have impacted the summer workload of athletic trainers employed in the NCAA Division I Collegiate Setting.\textsuperscript{39} Our findings further support to the idea that summer hours may impact the ability to 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
Although collegiate athletic trainers have selected a career tangential to sport, their athletic identity is similar to former athletes who selected careers outside sport. This may indicate that athletic trainers are involved in adaptive career decision processes. Components of athletic identity appear to differ based on employment setting though it is not clear if this is a result of the work setting or represents a component of self-identity that is dictating career choices. Previous research has highlighted that many athletic trainers were interested in the profession due to their own involvement in sport and this study confirms the majority of collegiate athletic trainers participated in organized sport at one point in their lives. The results of this study may begin to offer insight into why and how potential athletic training students choose to enter the profession and warrant further exploration as to why athletic trainers persist in the field, as the factors that influence prospective athletic training students may evolve as the profession transitions to a professional level master’s degree.

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| 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)   |
| Demographics                        | Athletic Identity Score | Social Identity | Exclusivity | Negative Affectivity |
|------------------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------|-------------|---------------------|
|                                    | range (7 – 49)          | range (3 – 21)  | range (2 – 14) | 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