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## Organizational Commitment of Senior Woman Administrators

Donya Andrews-Little



THE FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY  
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT OF SENIOR WOMAN ADMINISTRATORS

By

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine Senior Woman Administrators (SWAs) perception of organizational commitment. Three types of organizational commitment were surveyed: affective, normative, and continuance commitment. This study was delimited to Senior Woman Administrators (n=66) at National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division IAA member institutions across the country. This study used the Organizational Commitment Scale(s) to examine Senior Woman Administrators (SWAs) perceptions of organizational commitment. The study examined the relationship between the demographic variables of ethnicity, marital status, current annual salary, age, years in present position, highest degree earned, and alumni status and organizational commitment. The study also examined the significant differences between the demographic variables and organizational commitment.

The results of this study revealed the demographic variables of current annual salary, age, and alumni status were significantly related to affective organizational commitment, ethnicity was significantly related to normative organizational commitment and alumni status was significantly related to continuance organizational commitment. The results also revealed that there were significant differences in mean scores for SWAs perception of affective organizational commitment according to age and alumni status and there was a significant difference in mean scores for SWAs perception of normative organizational commitment according to alumni status.



## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

Women and Ethnic minorities represent a small percentage of administrators and leaders in intercollegiate athletics (Acosta & Carpenter, 2004; Carpenter & Acosta, 2000). The National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), America's largest governing body for intercollegiate athletics, has become aware of this problem and will assist in the solution to the problem.

The NCAA began the Leadership Institute for Ethnic Minorities, in 2003, with its focus on increasing the pool of minority candidates for leadership positions. For three years this developmental program was exclusively for minority men, but the focus has now shifted. The NCAA will retire the Institute for Ethnic Minority Males and offer the first Leadership Institute for Ethnic Minorities in the summer of 2005. Administration realizes the importance of females in athletic administration and the Division III strategic planning committee calls for an 5 percent increase in women and minorities in administration in the next two years. Division II and Division III committees are now matching grants to encourage this "needed" increase. Although progression is slow, advancement for women is now a focus in society.

Given the importance and the need for more female athletic administrators in intercollegiate athletics, and given that a limited number of current studies on females as administrators exists in the sport management literature, an examination of the organizational commitment of SWAs is essential if the field is to model its commitment to the

inclusion of female administrators in the sport management literature.

. This dissertation examined Senior Woman Administrators perceptions of organizational commitment in National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division IAA universities across the country. The first chapter is divided into several subsections, which will introduce the reader to the problem statement, purpose of the study, background of the Senior Woman Administrator (SWA) position, overview of the NCAA and SWAs, significance of the study, theoretical framework, review of literature, and outline of the guiding research questions.

### **Problem Statement**

The goal of human resource management is to hire committed individuals who will help strengthen organizations by obtaining organizational goals and objectives. Senior Woman Administrators are important cogs within the machine of intercollegiate organizational structure. Currently, however, there is a paucity of literature investigating Senior Woman Administrators commitment within the organization. The goal of the present study is to provide baseline data investigating Senior Woman Administrators perception of organizational commitment.

Currently in the sport management literature, there is a paucity of research focused on female administrators in intercollegiate athletics (Benton, 2003; Dohrn, 2003; Hartfield, 2003; Sweaney, 1996), and there are no studies on the organizational commitment of Senior Woman

Administrators. More information is needed in this area to substantiate a body of knowledge for the development of concepts in the fields of sport management and athletic administration. The present investigation was developed to address this void in the literature and to add to the growing body of information in the organizational commitment field.

The present investigation examined the organizational commitment of a new and untapped population of Senior Woman Administrators. Although the Senior Woman Administrator position was formally designated in 1991, many institutions have yet to comply with the ruling to designate women to intercollegiate athletic administration. In fact, Acosta and Carpenter's (2006) twenty-nine year update study on women in intercollegiate sport reported 14.5 percent of NCAA member institutions sponsoring female athletic programs lack a woman administrator.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of the research questions was to examine the organizational commitment of Senior Woman Administrators at NCAA Division I AA member institutions. The research questions were written to examine the relationship of selected demographic variables (ethnicity, marital status, current annual salary, age, years in present position, highest degree earned, alumni status) and organizational commitment and also to compare the organizational commitment levels of Senior Woman Administrators of NCAA Division IAA member institutions in regard to selected demographic variables. In addition, the research questions examined the relationship between the

highly correlated demographic variables of current annual salary, age, and years in present position.

### **Background of the Senior Woman Administrator Position**

One of the biggest legal supporters of female athletics was Title IX of the Education Amendments Act of 1972. Congress enacted Title IX on June 23, 1972 to prohibit gender discrimination in the nation's educational programs. Title IX stated that:

No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance (Alexander & Alexander, 1992, p. 703).

Prior to the Title IX amendment, there were separate athletic programs for women and men. The Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW) was established in 1971 to govern women athletics in member institutions. The AIAW was developed, organized, and managed by women administrators. The AIAW was formed in response to a demand for national competition for female athletes. Under the AIAW rules and guidelines, female athletes did not receive financial assistance for tuition or recruiting visits. The AIAW was designed to give college women opportunities to achieve excellence in sports. The rules were not designed for athletes to experience abuse, such as transcript scandals, low graduation rates, and recruiting scandals, as seen in NCAA institutions (Gould, 1981).

The governing body for male athletics was the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA). The NCAA was founded in 1906 to govern recruiting, grant-in aids, championships, eligibility, and revenue for men's athletics

in member institutions. The NCAA foresaw potential lawsuits, because the NCAA's objective was to regulate intercollegiate athletics for all students, and female athletes were not being served. The NCAA attempted to avert this potential battle by proposing a "merger" with the AIAW. The AIAW did not accept the proposed merger because of the differing goals and objectives of the two programs (Gould, 1981). Donna Lopiano, past president of the Association for Intercollegiate Athletic for Women, opposed the merger of the AIAW and NCAA because in her mind it spelled the death of the AIAW. Lopiano stressed that "according to the laws of economics, someone's championship program will go down the tubes" (Gould, 1981, p. 29). Although the NCAA guaranteed women 19 percent representation on the most powerful committees and 26 percent on all other committees, Lopiano knew that each organization had one vote, and the Athletic Director (typically a male) would have the deciding vote.

After the enactment of Title IX of the Educational Amendment Act in 1972, the NCAA became obligated to offer all benefits, particularly scholarships, to female athletes. By 1982, the AIAW association grew to include more than 977 member institutions, and 41 championships in 17 sports. With the NCAA now hosting women athletics, the NCAA began a takeover of the AIAW. In the 1981-1982 academic year, more than 64,000 female student-athletes participated in 33 NCAA championships in 16 sports. The number grew to more than 150,000 female student-athletes participating in 43 NCAA championships in 19 sports in the academic year 2001-2002.

With the NCAA now hosting women's athletics and offering financial assistance, most female athletes

participated in athletics under the NCAA organization. With the largest organization (AIAW) for women athletics becoming non-existent, and the male dominant NCAA now in control of athletics, women administrators were forced to take secondary roles behind men (Carpenter & Acosta, 1992).

Women administrator positions did not grow in proportion to the opportunities for female student-athletes. In 1972, female administrators headed 90 percent of women's programs, but in 2006 female administrators headed only 18.6 percent of women's programs (Acosta & Carpenter, 2006).

Lopiano expressed the backlash of Title IX in the loss of female power in women athletics (Gould, 1981). With the decrease of women administrators, some "men and women feel like this trend is very detrimental to athletics and to women athletes in particular" (Sweaney, 1996, p. 45).

After the "merger" with the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics, in 1981 the NCAA attempted to include women in administrative positions by designating the position of the Primary Woman Administrator to each member institution. In 1990, the Primary Woman Administrator was renamed the Senior Woman Administrator (SWA). The Senior Woman Administrator is defined as "The highest-ranking female administrator involved with the conduct of a member institution's intercollegiate athletics program" (NCAA Manual, 2004, p. 22).

The purpose of the Senior Woman Administrator position is to provide diversity to the sport management team and "to involve female administrators in a meaningful way in the decision-making process in intercollegiate athletics" (Senior Woman Administrator Brochure, 2005). The Senior Woman Administrator position is a mandated position and

NCAA member institutions should designate an individual to fill this position. Senior Woman Administrators responsibilities are described as follows:

1. making key decisions that are instrumental for an intercollegiate athletics department,
2. participating on senior management teams, working within the group structure to accomplish goals,
3. strategizing ways to support and manage gender equity and Title IX plans and issues,
4. advocating issues important to female and male student-athletes, coaches and staff,
5. educating individuals on issues concerning both men and women,
6. serving as a role model and providing resources for students, coaches, administrators, and others,
7. leading student-athletes in successfully balancing academics and athletics by providing leadership, and
8. reviewing documents such as the Equity in Athletics Disclosure Act Report (NCAA, Senior Woman Administrator Brochure, [www.ncaa.org](http://www.ncaa.org)).

### **Overview of the National Collegiate Athletic Association and Senior Woman Administrator**

The purpose of the NCAA is to "govern competition in a fair, safe, equitable and sportsmanlike manner, and to integrate intercollegiate athletics, into higher education so that the educational experience of the student-athlete is paramount" ([ncaa.org](http://ncaa.org)). The NCAA strives to maintain intercollegiate athletics as an integral part of the

educational program, and the athlete as an integral part of the student body. In 1973, the NCAA was divided into three divisions, I, II, and III. Colleges and universities at the Division I level provide the highest level of academic quality and opportunity, and their athletic programs strive for regional and national excellence and prominence. Member institutions classified as Division I must sponsor at least seven sports for both men and women (or six sports for men and eight sports for women). Division I programs are further sub-divided into three categories, A, AA, AAA. Division IA programs host a football program which must meet a minimum football attendance requirement of 15,000 per home game. Institutions classified as a Division IAA programs host a football team but are not required to meet a minimum football attendance requirement. Institutions classified as a Division IAAA program do not host a football program. Division II institutions' objectives are to offer a maximum number of intercollegiate athletics to all students, and to develop positive societal attitudes through participation (NCAA Manual, 2004). Institutions classified as Division II must sponsor at least four men and women athletic programs. Member institutions classified as Division II are not required to meet a minimum football attendance requirement. The objective of NCAA Division III programs is to offer a maximum number of intercollegiate athletics to all students, and to develop positive societal attitudes through participation (NCAA Manual, 2004). Member institutions classified as Division III must sponsor five sports for men and women programs. Division III athletic programs do not offer financial aid based on their athletic ability. The NCAA distributes an annual manual to its member institutions that dictates the permitted and



forbidden rules and regulations. Colleges and universities that do not comply with the rules can be banished from championships, television, and even competition (the death penalty), while those colleges and universities that do comply reap the benefits of revenues from sources like television, gate receipts and merchandise.

In a progressive step to support and encourage women in athletic administration, the NCAA formed the National Association of Collegiate Women Administration (NACWAA) in 1979. The mission of the NACWAA is to provide a forum for educational programs, support services, developmental opportunities, and informational exchange for women administrators. In its continuing effort to improve and promote women in intercollegiate athletic administration, the NCAA has further clarified the position of the Senior Woman Administrator with a constitutional amendment. The amendment clarifies that "an institution with a female director of athletics may designate a different female involved with the management of the member's program as a fifth representative of the NCAA governance structure" ([www.ncaa.org/wps/contentviewer? IFRAME EMBEDDED=true &Content URL=h](http://www.ncaa.org/wps/contentviewer?IFRAME_EMBEDDED=true&Content_URL=h), p.1). The NCAA's Committee on Women's Athletics (CWA) also proposed a change to clarify the responsibilities held by the Senior Woman Administrator (NCAA News, 2005). Controversy surrounding the responsibilities of the Senior Woman Administrator has been versed in recent literature (Claussen & Lehr, 2002; Gill-Fisher, 1998; Tiell, 2005). According to the Senior Woman Administrator Brochure, the original intent of the Senior Woman Administrator was to serve on the sport management team whose focus is to achieve the objectives of the NCAA and promote the athletic interests of the institution.

## **Significance of the Study**

More than thirty years have elapsed since the passage of Title IX, assisting women in obtaining better administrative ranking in intercollegiate athletics (Dohrn, 2003). In past decades, women have made a slow, but increasing progression into the administrative positions within intercollegiate athletics. Because of Title IX, the NCAA felt it was necessary to create the position of Senior Woman Administrator, formerly Primary Woman Administrator. Moreover, the NCAA felt it was necessary to make the position gender specific.

According to the NCAA packet (2004) on "How to Strengthen your Athletic Management Team Involving your Senior Woman Administrator," the Senior Woman Administrator position is essential for the inclusion of objective opinions in decision-making, and more importantly as a role model for aspiring female administrators. Therefore studies conducted to investigate this tailor-made, gender specific position within the intercollegiate organizational structure are important in evaluating the need and result of the NCAA's decision.

The significance of this study is found in the need to investigate the organizational commitment of Senior Woman Administrators. The results of this study will also help to determine if demographic characteristics have a perceived influence on the organizational commitment of SWAs or if there are significant differences in SWA organizational commitment according to demographic characteristics. The results will be instrumental for Human Resource Officers questioning and interviewing to identify potentially

committed employees, particularly SWAs of NCAA Division IAA member institutions.

The ability to identify which group of SWAs had a lower perception of organizational commitment may also assist the NCAA and its member institutions in addressing specific issues in hopes of increasing organizational commitment among particular groups. The need for this study is also to develop insight on SWAs due to the limited research conducted on Senior Woman Administrators and the non-existence of studies on the organizational commitment of Senior Woman Administrators.

The hypothesized outcomes of high organizational commitment include employee retention, productive behavior, and employee well-being (Meyer & Allen, 1997). If results find that Senior Woman Administrators are highly committed to the organization, SWAs may contribute to the success of the athletic department by influencing the commitment of their staff to the organization.

The significance of this study can be summarized in a theoretical and applied perspective. From a theoretical perspective, the study is significant in that it will provide insight on the organizational commitment of the Senior Woman Administrator and also female athletic administrators serving on the sport management team. The results of the study may also stimulate future research on modification, adjustments, and revisions needed for the position.

From an applied perspective, the significance of the study lies in that it may assist human resource officers in determining which candidates will be "theoretically" more committed to the university and consequently demonstrate better performance. Research has shown that a committed

employee demonstrates the job characteristics of lower absenteeism (Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999, Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Somers, 1995), lower turnover (Lee & Maurer, 1999; Somers, 1995; Steers, 1977), and higher productivity (Angle & Perry, 1981; Meyer, Allen, and Smith, 1993; Meyer et al., 1989).

### **Assumptions**

The assumptions of the present investigation were found in the participants of the study, and the questionnaire. It was assumed that: a) the participants accurately and honestly completed the questionnaire, and b) participants were familiar with the items contained in the questionnaire.

The second set of assumptions was in relation to the questionnaire for the study. It was assumed that: a) the questionnaire accurately identified the demographic variables, b) the questionnaire accurately measured organizational commitment, and c) the questionnaire was reliable and valid.

### **Delimitations**

The present investigation was delimited to Senior Woman Administrators of NCAA Division IAA member institutions (n=118) during fall 2005.

## **Background of Organizational Commitment**

In this section, a partial origination of the organizational commitment theory is reviewed. Various definitions are used to coincide with the theory, but from the definitions, a common theme has emerged. Of the variety of definitions, a common theme was "the view that commitment is a psychological state that (a) characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization, and (b) has implications for the decision to continue membership in the organization" (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 11).

The purpose of organizational commitment is "to provide a better understanding of the commitment process and allow practitioners to scrutinize carefully the reports of more in-depth qualitative analysis of what did or did not work in other organizations and to evaluate what programs are most likely to work for them" (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. ix).

The concept of organizational commitment originated from research data on commitment by Barnard (1938), Simon (1945), Etzioni (1961), and Kanter (1968). Barnard emphasized the importance of the congruency between individuals' motives and the organizational goals. An individual's decision to join an organization is based on the belief that the organization can fulfill a personal need. If at any time the organization falls outside a "zone of indifference" and there is a lack of imbalance between inducements and contributions, the individual may leave the system (Barnard, 1938). Barnard (1938) believed that organizational effectiveness is dependent on individuals' commitment to cooperate toward the organizational goals.

Maintaining the commitment of individuals is imperative to an effective organization.

Simon (1945) extended Barnard's ideas to include decision making as an important entity. Simon believed that an organization's survival was the result of individuals making decisions based on the organization's best interest. Simon labeled this choice as identification. Identification was described as "the process where by the individual substitutes organizational objectives...for his own aims and the value indices, which determine his organizational decisions" (Simon, 1976, p. 218). Identification describes three elements: 1) personal interest in organizational success, 2) a sense of ownership of the organization, and 3) focus of attention.

Etzioni (1961) referred to the positive involvement of an individual to an organization as commitment. Etzioni (1961) further identified the three kinds of involvement: alienative involvement, calculative involvement, and moral involvement. Alienative involvement was considered a negative involvement and was also considered coercion. Calculative involvement focused on the equitable exchange between the individual and organization. Moral involvement involved the individual internalizing the organization's goals, norms, and values and was considered a high commitment zone.

Like Etzioni, Kanter (1968) believed that organizational commitment incorporated more than one approach. Kanter (1968) identified the behavioral requirements of organizational commitment as: 1) continuance (commitment to system survival), 2) cohesion (attachment to social relationship), and 3) control (attachment to organization). Kanter evolved organizational

theory in his reasoning that all three areas of organizational commitment must be maintained simultaneously.

Early researchers of commitment have provided a foundation for contemporary theories. The following section offers contemporary theories of organizational commitment.

### **Contemporary Theories of Organizational Commitment**

#### **The Becker's 'Side-Bet' Model (1960)**

The first contemporary theory of organizational commitment was the "side-bet" theory put forth by H.S. Becker in 1960. The "side-bet" theory believed that "commitment comes into being when a person, by making a side bet, links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity" (Becker, 1960, p. 32). Becker (1960) concentrated on what he termed the "side-bet" theory, which attempted to explain the process by which employees attach themselves to organizations through investments such as time, effort, and reward. These investments, however, have costs, which reduce to some degree an employee's freedom in his or her future activity. Through investments, employees get locked into organizations because of costs associated with leaving the organization (e.g. pension plans, seniority, and firm specific knowledge). It is believed that (Becker, 1960):

Side-bets constraining behavior also comes into existence through the process of individual adjustment to social positions. A person may also alter his pattern of activity in the process of conforming to the requirements for one social position that he unfits himself for other positions he might have access to (p. 37).

Becker's work was criticized in that the "side-bet" model only identified the behavior of the individual. Commitment was seen as an exchange between the individual and organization for certain rewards or payments (Mowday, Steers, and Porter, 1979). Research in organizational commitment began to be distinguished as pertaining to either attitudinal commitment or behavioral commitment.

Attitudinal commitment research focused on the process by which people come to think about their relationship with the organization. In many ways it can be thought of as a mind set in which individuals consider the extent to which their own values and goals are congruent with those of the organization. (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p.9)

Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) described attitudinal commitment as the extent to which an individual and the organizational goals are congruent.

Attitudinal commitment studies considered the antecedents and consequences of commitment. The objective of studies on attitudinal commitment was to prove that the results of a strong commitment were lower absenteeism (Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Somer, 1995), lower turnover (Lee & Maurer, 1999; Somers, 1995; Steers, 1977), and higher productivity (Angle & Perry, 1981; Meyer, Allen, and Smith, 1993; Meyer, Paunonen, Gettality, Goffin, and Jackson, 1989). Another objective was to determine what personal characteristics and conditions contribute to the development of high commitment.

"Behavioral commitment relates to the process by which individuals become locked into a certain organization and how they deal with this problem" (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 9). The objective of behavioral commitment research was to



discover the conditions in which individuals become committed to the organization.

### **The Mowday, Porter, Steers, and Boulian Model (1974)**

Mowday, Porter, Steers, and Boulian began to theorize about organizational commitment in both attitudinal and behavioral contexts. Mowday et al. (1982) described organizational commitment as the relative "strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization, which is characterized by belief in and acceptance of organizational goals and values, willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization" (p. 27).

Organizational commitment as defined by Mowday et al. (1974) has three major components: 1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goal, 2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and 3) a definite desire to maintain organizational membership.

Building on Mowday and his colleagues' organizational commitment theory, O'Reilly and Chatman reviewed individual psychological attachment to the organization.

### **The O'Reilly and Chatman Model (1986)**

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) attempted to clarify the construct of organizational commitment. Commitment was defined as the psychological attachment felt by the individual for an organization, which reflects the degree to which the individual internalizes or adopts the characteristics or perspectives of the organization. There are three independent bases for psychological attachment:

compliance, identification, and internalization. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) described commitment as:

the basis for one's psychological attachment to an organization may be predicted on three independent foundations: (a) compliance or instrumental involvement for specific, extrinsic rewards; (b) identification or involvement based on a desire for affiliation; and (c) internalization or involvement on congruence between individual and organizational values (p. 493).

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) believed compliance occurred when the attitudes and beliefs of an organization were adopted by an individual to gain specific rewards. Identification occurred when an individual respects the beliefs and values of the organization without adopting them as their own. Internalization occurred when the attitudes and beliefs of an organization are the same as the individual.

Through criticisms of their work and continued research, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) restructured their framework to acknowledge two dimensions, compliance and normative, a combination of internalization and identification. During the time O'Reilly and Chatman began their work on organizational commitment, Meyer and Allen also began their work on organizational commitment. Meyer and Allen's model was conceptualized by the Becker model (cost attachment) and the Mowday, Porter, Steers, and Boulian model (affective attachment).

### **The Meyer and Allen Three-Component Model (1984, 1990)**

Meyer and Allen first identified two dimensions of organizational commitment: affective attachment and cost attachment. After continued research, however, Meyer and Allen identified another dimension, which was obligation.

The three distinct components of organizational commitment identified by Meyer and Allen, then, were affective orientation, cost-based orientation, and obligation or moral responsibility. Meyer and Allen identified three themes and common definitions. Meyer and Allen's three-component model will be used to guide the present investigation and will be discussed in the following section.

### **Theoretical Framework**

The theoretical framework that guided the present investigation was the three-component model of organizational commitment developed by Meyer and Allen (1991). Meyer and Allen's (1997) theory of organizational commitment suggests that "by understanding when and how commitments develop and how they shape attitudes and behaviors, organizations will be in a better position to anticipate the impact that change will have and to manage it more effectively" (p. ix). Meyer and Allen defined organizational commitment as "a psychological link between the employee and his or her organization that makes it less likely that the employee will voluntarily leave the organization" (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 252).

Meyer and Allen (1984) first identified two components of organizational commitment, those of affective attachment and cost attachment. But after continued research, Meyer and Allen (1990) identified a third component, that of obligation. The three-component model was developed as a result of three common themes within the commitment literature as noted by Meyer and Allen. Some of the common definitions within the affective orientation theme include "an attitude or an orientation toward the organization

which links or attaches the identity of the person to the organization" (Sheldon, 1971, p. 143) and "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (Mowday, Porter, and Steers, 1982, p. 27). Some of the common definitions within the cost-based theme are "profit associated with continued participation and a cost associated with leaving" (Kanter, 1968, p. 504) and "commitment comes into being when a person, by making a side-bet, links extraneous interest with a consistent line of activity" (Becker, 1960, p. 32). Some of the common definitions within the obligation theme include "the totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way which meets organizational goals and interest" (Wiener, 1982, p. 421) and "the committed employee considers it morally right to stay in the company, regardless of how much status enhancement or satisfaction the firm gives him or her over the years" (Marsh & Mannari, 1977, p. 59). From the three themes, Meyer and Allen identified the three components of organizational commitment as affective, continuance, and normative.

From the three-component model theory of organizational commitment, Meyer and Allen developed a multidimensional model of organizational commitment (Appendix P). The multidimensional model consists of five parts: 1) Distal Antecedents, 2) Proximal Antecedents, 3) Process, 4) Commitment, and 5) Consequences.

**Distal antecedents.** The first section of the multidimensional model dealt with distal antecedents. The distal antecedents are categorized as: organizational characteristics, personal characteristics, socialization experience, management practices, and environmental

conditions. The "distal causes exert their influence on commitment through their influence on the more proximal causes (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 109). Studies (Kock & Steers, 1978; Lee, Ashford, Walsh, and Mowday, 1992; Waldman & Avolio, 1996) have concluded that antecedents are a reliable predictor of organizational commitment.

**Proximal antecedents.** The second section of the multidimensional model identified the proximal antecedents. The proximal antecedents are categorized as: work experiences, role status, and psychological contracts. Proximal antecedents are variables that directly affect organizational commitment.

**Process.** The third section of the multidimensional model is the process in which the antecedents affect the various components of commitment.

**Components (bases) of organizational commitment.** The fourth section of the model identified the three components of commitment: affective, continuance or normative. The three components were found to be related, but distinguishable from each other (Dunham, Grube, and Castañada, 1994; Meyer et al., 2001).

Meyer and Allen state, "Affective commitment refers to an employee's attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization" (1997, p. 11).

An employee who has a strong affective commitment to an organization stays with the organization because he or she wants to continue working in the organization. Meyer and Allen (1991) found that the best predictor of affective commitment was work experience. Employees whose work experiences are consistent with their expectations and whose basic needs within the organization are satisfied have a stronger level of affective commitment to the

organization. Employees with strong affective commitment remain with the organization because they have no desire to leave.

According to Meyer and Allen (1997), "Continuance commitment refers to the awareness of cost associated with leaving the organizations" (p. 11). Employees with a strong continuance commitment to an organization recognize that leaving the organization may be detrimental to them financially due to the lack of employment alternatives and a loss of investments (e.g., personal relationships, pension plans).

Continuance commitment was originally a unitary dimension, but through continued research (McGee & Ford, 1987) was subdivided into two dimensions: continuance commitment - low number of alternatives (CC:LoAlt) and continuance commitment - high personal sacrifice (CC:HiSac). The former reflects an individual's commitment to an organization because of a lack of employment opportunities, and describes an individual remaining with an organization because of the personal loss that would occur by leaving the organization. Employees with strong continuance commitment remain with the organization because they have to. To confirm the distinction between the two variables, further research was conducted (McGee & Ford, 1987; Meyer, Allen, and Gellatly, 1990, Allen & Meyer, 1990; Somers, 1993 Dunham, Grube, and Castañeda, 1994).

The third component, normative commitment, reflects a feeling of "obligation to continue employment" (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 11). An employee with a strong normative commitment feels he or she has a moral obligation to stay in the organization. Normative commitment was developed on the basis that the organization made a particular kind of

investment in the employee, which gives the employee a sense of obligation to the organization.

**Consequences.** The fifth and final section of the multidimensional model discusses the consequences of organizational commitment. These have been defined as retention (withdrawal behavior and turnover), productive behavior (performance), and employee well-being (Allen & Meyer, 1991). The consequences of affective commitment are lower turnover and turnover intentions, better on-the-job behavior (attendance, organizational commitment behavior, performance), and better employee health and well-being (Angel & Lawson, 1994; Hackett, Bycio, and Hausdorf, 1994; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 2001). The consequences for continuance commitment are lower turnover and turnover intention, consequently, there was no (e.g., a negative outcome) of on-the-job behavior and employee health and well-being (Hackett et al., 1994; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 2001). The consequences for normative commitment are lower turnover and turnover intentions, better on-the-job behavior (attendance, organizational commitment behavior, performance), and better employee health and well-being (Hackett et al., 1994; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 2001).

The three-component model was chosen to guide the present investigation because it provided insight as to why Senior Woman Administrators were committed to their organizations.

### **Review of the Literature**

The objective of the literature review for this study was to locate data-based studies on the demographic variables and organizational commitment of Senior Woman

Administrators. Instead, the literature communicated findings on related areas which could be categorized under five subsections, which are the following: 1) female administrators/managers and organizational commitment, 2) organizational commitment in athletic/sport administration, 3) females in intercollegiate athletic administration, 4) Senior Woman Administrators and, 5) demographic variables and organizational commitment.

After the subsections are discussed, a summary of the literature is given.

### **Female Administrators/Managers and Organizational Commitment**

For this particular topic area, ten studies were found which could be divided into three groups. The first group of studies focused on women administrators/managers and organizational commitment in the workplace (DeComink & Stilwell, 1996; Blackhurst, Brandt, and Kalinowski, 1998; Britt, 2003). The second group reviewed studies of women administrators/managers and the impact of the work-family challenge on organizational commitment (Rosin & Korabik, 1995; Scandura & Lankua, 1997; Chiu & Ng, 1998; Ngo & Tsang, 1998). The third group of studies focused specifically on comparisons in organizational commitment between men and women administrators. This set included studies by Schneer and Reitman (1993); Lawthom, Patterson, West, and Staniforth (1996); and Wahn (1998).

Within the studies that examined the organizational commitment of women administrators in the workplace, a variety of settings could be found. For example, studies examined women in a number of administrative positions that ranged from lower to executive levels of management.



Additionally, samples were drawn from diverse fields such as advertising and higher education.

DeComink and Stilwell (1996) examined factors that influence the organizational commitment of female advertising executives. The results revealed that job opportunities and promotional opportunities increased organizational commitment. In conclusion, employees who perceived high levels of differential treatment had a lower level or decreased organizational commitment.

Blackhurst, Brandt, and Kalinowski (1998) examined the relationship between career development and the organizational commitment of female student affairs administrators. The sample consisted of 140 women student affairs administrators of various levels. The major findings were that organizational commitment was higher for women with five or more years on the job than for women with fewer than five years on the job. They concluded that the lowest levels of organizational commitment were observed by women in assistant or associate director positions.

When considering women in higher education institutions, Britt (2003) reviewed the relationship between organizational commitment and women's career advancement in New England higher education executive positions. The purpose of the study was to examine if the "glass-ceiling" existed. The study sampled executive administrators (Deans, Vice-Presidents, Presidents, Provosts, Chancellors, Executive Directors, College Officers, etc.) from colleges and universities in the six states of the New England region. The results revealed that normative and continuance commitment related positively to

career advancement, and that women were encouraged to seek top positions.

The second set of studies within the area of female administrators and organizational commitment was comprised of research aimed at understanding the challenges women face in handling the balance between work and family. These studies were based on samples from within industry, higher education, and business.

Rosin and Korabik (1995) conducted a study on the impact of children on women managers' career behavior and organizational commitment. The purpose of the study was to test the hypothesis that women's organizational commitment and involvement in work reduces with children and the likelihood for turnover increases. The study surveyed 169 women with MBA's and children under the age of 18 years living with them full-time, and 161 women with MBAs with no children. The results from the study revealed that women with children did not differ from women without children in their commitment to the organization. Findings concluded that women and men who support flexible work hours should not have to fear being perceived as less committed.

Scandura and Lankau (1997) conducted a study on the relationship of gender, family responsibility and flexible work hours to organizational commitment. The random sample for the study included 80 men and 80 women from administrative positions selected from the American List Council. The major findings of the study revealed that respondents who had children under 18 years of age reported higher levels of organizational commitment when the organization had a flexible work hour policy. The study reported that in today's society, 55 percent of women with children under the age of six work, and for these women and

their organizations a conflict between work and family arose. In conclusion, many organizations are now developing policies to respond to the work-family conflict.

Another study examining organizational policies to assist women in balancing work and family was by Chiu and Ng (1998). The researchers' sample consisted of 300 employees in management positions at Hong Kong Polytechnic University. The researchers reported that organizations with family-friendly policies had an impact on employees' affective commitment to the organization. The study also found that women who worked longer in the organization reported higher levels of organizational commitment. In conclusion, organizational policies have an impact on an employees' level of commitment to the organization.

Ngo and Tsang (1998) also examined the effects of flexibility and firm internal labor markets on affective and continuance commitment. The results from the sample of 772 business executives (567 males, 205 females) in Hong Kong revealed that organizations with flexibility and internal labor markets had employees, both men and women, with high levels of affective and continuance commitment. The researchers concluded that organizational policies have an impact on an employee's level of commitment to the organization.

The third subset of studies does not deal specifically with women and organizational commitment, but because these studies examine comparisons between the organizational commitment levels of men and women, the findings are valuable for the review of literature for this study.

Examining the difference of men and women in managerial careers, Schneer and Reitman (1993) investigated the discriminatory and traditionalist views of women in

management. The samples in the study received their MBA degrees between 13 and 18 years earlier. For example, in response to the question of why women receive promotions at a slower rate than men, one set of views expressed that women, "expect to spend fewer years in the workplace, invest less time in education and training, work less hard than men, are less committed, and have more interruptions as they balance their family and work obligations" (p. 292).

Another study conducted within this subsection was by Lawthom, Patterson, West, and Staniforth (1996). They examined the perception of the work environment of 156 female and 898 male managers in a manufacturing industry in Britain. Results revealed that women reported the organizational climate as more reflexive, welfare-oriented, innovative, focused on quality, and efficient, as well as having clearer vision and being more focused. Women also reported higher levels of effort, performance monitoring, training and skill development, co-operation, and lower levels of employee autonomy. The researchers concluded that women had higher levels of organizational commitment than men.

In a study by Wahn (1998), results revealed that women in human resource positions reported higher levels of continuance commitment than male human resource professionals. The study also revealed a positive relationship between tenure and continuance commitment and a negative relationship between educational level, level in hierarchy and continuance commitment. In conclusion, women appear to have the same or greater organizational commitment to their workplace than men.

Upon analyzing the review of literature in relation to female managers/administrators used in this study, a recurring theme when researching women became the obstacles and barriers they face in their career journey. In the literature focusing on female administrators/managers and organizational commitment, the obstacles (Good Ole' Boys' network) and challenges (work/family) females may face in their quest for leadership positions were mentioned.

Research (Scandara & Lankau, 1997) shows a restructuring in organizations to balance the work/family conflict that women encounter. Organizations are now offering flexibility in their policies to attract and keep women in the workforce and in turn increase their commitment to the organization. Although the studies alluded to particular situations women face in their career journey, solutions or assistance in handling the situations was noticeably missing.

### **Organizational Commitment in Athletics/Sports Administration**

Another subset of the literature focused on organizational commitment, but in this group, the studies conducted were directly related to organizational commitment in intercollegiate athletics and other sport settings. Within this area, ten studies were found from the last decade. These fell into several topic areas. Two of the studies dealt with the organizational commitment of volunteer sport administrators (Cuskelly, 1995; Cuskelly, McIntrye, and Boag, 1998). Several studies were conducted which focused on the organizational commitment of head athletic trainers and coaches (Winterstein, 1998; Turner, 2001; Chelladurai & Oswagawara, 2003; Turner & Chelladurai,

2005). Another group of studies examined the organizational commitment of part-time and full-time workers in sport administration (Keiper, Sagas, Paetzold, and Peterson, 2002; Chang & Chelladurai, 2003). And finally, one study by Kent and Chelladurai (2001) looked at organizational citizenship behavior in intercollegiate athletics.

For the purposes of this dissertation, five studies were found most useful, and they are presented here in more detail. The first two are the studies on volunteer sports administrators (Cuskelly, 1995; Cuskelly et al., 1998). The remaining three are from the studies on organizational commitment of coaches (Winterstein, 1998; Turner, 2001; Chelladurai & Oswagawara, 2003).

Cuskelly (1995) and Cuskelly et al. (1998) examined the organizational commitment of volunteer administrators of sport organizations. Cuskelly (1995) explored the extent to which perceived committee functioning was predictive of organizational commitment. One hundred and fifty nine volunteer committee members from 17 different sporting organizations made up the sample for the study. Results revealed volunteer administrators were more committed in organizations that they perceived used an open process to make decisions and resolve conflicts. Cuskelly et al. (1998) examined 328 volunteer sport administrators, from 52 selected community-based organizations. Data were used from a three-wave six-month longitudinal study. As in an earlier study by Cuskelly (1995), results revealed that volunteers recorded stronger organizational commitment to the sport organization that functioned in a positive manner and used an open decision making process to resolve conflicts. In conclusion, committees of sport organizations need to have a more positive and open approach when working with

volunteer administrators to develop higher levels of organizational commitment.

Winterstein (1998) examined the commitment of head athletic trainers in their intercollegiate work environment, and techniques to describe head athletic trainers' commitment to their organizations. A proportional random sample (n=330) of head athletic trainers of NCAA Division I, II, and III member institutions was the sample for the study. Results indicated that continuance commitment scores were significantly lower than the affective and normative scores. Results also showed that Division I and Division II head athletic trainers demonstrated higher levels of normative commitment to their athletic departments and affective and normative commitment to their co-workers than their Division III head athletic trainers. In conclusion, the findings reinforce the primary focus of the head athletic trainers who were student-athletes and student athletic trainers.

Turner (2001) examined the multidimensionality of organizational commitment among athletic coaches. The study examined the four components of commitment (affective, normative, continuance: low number of alternatives, and continuance: high alternatives) and the two foci (organizational or occupational) of commitment. The study sampled 724 head coaches at NCAA Division I and Division III member institutions. Results from the study revealed that the four bases of occupational commitment had a greater influence on intention to leave the occupation than satisfaction with the occupation. The results also revealed that satisfaction with the organization had a greater influence on intention to leave rather than the components of organizational commitment. In conclusion, coaches

recorded a higher level of affective commitment when identifying why coaches continue to work at an institution.

One of the latest studies has been conducted by Chelladurai and Oswagawara (2003) who assessed the differences in organizational commitment among American NCAA Division I and Division III coaches and Japanese coaches. The sample for the study included 432 Division I coaches, 468 Division III coaches, and 274 Japanese coaches. Results from the study revealed that Japanese coaches were significantly higher in their commitment to their organizations than Division I and Division III coaches. In conclusion, administrators of intercollegiate athletics have to focus on cultivating the commitment of their high-performing coaches.

A critical analysis of the literature on organizational commitment within athletics/sport shows that many of the studies did not consider the variables of age, gender, race, education, and tenure when conducting research. Another limitation in this section was the samples used in the research studies. The review of literature within this section was limited in its review of staff administrators in the athletic/sport setting. Although Cuskelly (1995) and Cuskelly et al. (1998) included administrators in their study, the administrators were volunteers. Cuskelly et al. (1998) stated that:

volunteers may have become increasingly marginalized as they have been pushed from core organizational responsibilities to the periphery...the drawback of such an approach is the professionalization of volunteerism wherein the knowledge, skills and experience of individuals is valued more than their commitment, motivation and enthusiasm to volunteer their service (p. 199).



The review of literature also revealed that there were differences in the organizational commitment level of volunteer administrators and paid administrators within the sports/athletic area.

### **Females in Intercollegiate Athletic Administration.**

A third area in the literature examined women in intercollegiate athletic administration. While none of such studies were conducted in reference to Senior Woman Administrators or organizational commitment, they do contain findings relevant to the proposed study.

A number of studies on women in intercollegiate athletics have been carried out over the past 30 years. Of these studies, a good portion has focused on women in athletic leadership positions (Gibson, 1978; Bonance, 1995; Desensi & Koehler, 1989; Deller, 1993; Benton, 1999; Tiell, 2002, 2003; Grappendorf, Lough, and Griffin, 2004). Within this area, Acosta and Carpenter contributed to the literature with data from an ongoing longitudinal study (1996, 1998, 2000, 2002).

Another group of studies compared male and female athletic directors. Thompson (1982) and Holl (1996) examined the personality differences in male and female directors. While Myrick (1997) and Sweaney (1996) studied the career patterns and paths of male and female athletic directors.

For the purposes of this dissertation, five studies were particularly noted (Thompson, 1982; Deller, 1993; Bonance, 1995; Sweaney, 1996; Grappendorf, Lough, and Griffin, 2004).

Examining the differences between male and female athletic directors, Thompson (1982) specifically examined differences in the perceptions of their involvement in the responsibilities, duties, and functions of women athletic programs at small, medium, and large institutions. The study surveyed 228 female and 171 male Athletic Directors. The study revealed that male and female Athletic Directors at all institutions perceived the degree of involvement "now being fulfilled" and "should be fulfilled" in planning duties, ranging from evaluating all phases of the athletic program to assuming responsibility for the entire women's program, as "often" being performed.

Deller (1993) studied the factors that women should be aware of and experiences that are important in their quest towards athletic administration. Fifty-four female Athletic Directors of NCAA Division I, II, and III member institutions indicated that education and experiences in athletics were the two most important factors. Respondents indicated that women must at least complete their master's degree and should have collegiate coaching and athletic administrative experience. In conclusion, women must strive for the educational and administrative experience to increase the number of women in athletic leadership.

In a study by Bonance (1995) on the perceptions of women candidates in athletic administration during the interview process, 92 percent of the 452 respondents (Faculty Athletic Representatives, Athletic Directors, Senior Woman Administrators) perceived the "old boys" network to be a minor barrier to the hiring of women. In conclusion, women are discouraged from seeking top management positions because they believe the "old boys" network decreases their chances.

Sweaney (1996) compared the factors affecting the career paths of male and female Athletic Directors of intercollegiate athletics. In this study, the researcher compared the results of 200 male Athletic Directors to the results of a study conducted by Deller in 1993. Results revealed that the average female respondent majored in Physical Education for her bachelor's degree and business for her master's degree, as opposed to the average male respondent who majored in Physical Education for both the bachelor's degree and master's degree. The study also revealed that 25 percent of female respondents held a doctorate degree and 27.5 percent of male respondents held doctorate degrees in the field of Physical Education. In conclusion, female and male respondents agreed that a bachelor's and master's degree and at least one year of experience in athletic administration were important for the path to becoming an Athletic Director.

Building on the Sweaney (1996) study, Grappendorf, Lough, and Griffin (2004) also examined career patterns of female Athletic Directors and also examined the demographic profile. Of the 23 NCAA Division I female Athletic Directors, 19 participated in the study. The results of the study revealed the average age of the population was 50.21 years and 94.7 percent (n=11) were European/American Caucasian and 5.3 percent (n=1) were African American. Results also found that 52.6 percent (n=10) of the population did not have children, 52 percent (n=10) indicated that a coach influenced their occupational choice, and 89 percent (n=17) competed in college athletics, noting that most Athletic Directors participated in team sports. In the area of education, the population majored in a sport-related field. Seventy-three percent

(n=14) felt their education adequately prepared them for their current position and 15.8 percent (n=3) felt a business focus would have better prepared them for the position. In conclusion, researchers believed it might be a challenge for women to balance a family and the career of a Division I Athletic Director. Because this position is predominately held by males, females who have attained the position of athletic director should mentor those who aspire to obtain this position.

Of the recent literature that examined female administrators in intercollegiate athletics, career paths were the main focus. Career paths defined from the results were general and did not include specific experiences. The research examined described the educational background and characteristics of existing female intercollegiate administrators, but offered very little insight for future female administrators. Grappenorph, Lough, and Griffin (2004) suggest research be conducted to provide a guide or career framework for aspiring female administrators in intercollegiate athletics.

### **Senior Woman Administrators**

Like those studies in intercollegiate athletic administration, none of the studies within the subsection of Senior Woman Administration were conducted specifically on organizational commitment. All the studies found on the Senior Woman Administrator were reviewed. The first three studies that are reviewed examine the role of the Senior Woman Administrator. These include studies by Swearingen (1999), Claussen and Lehr (2002), and Osborne and Shields (2002). Other studies in the review examined the characteristics, experiences, and perceptions of Senior

Woman Administrators (Dohrn, 2003; Hartfield, 2003; Hay, 2003; Sagas & Cunningham, 2004; Tiell 2005a, 2005b, 2005c).

The role of the Senior Woman Administrator is very vague and unclear to many SWAs. Swearingen (1999) conducted a study to examine the Senior Woman Administrator role in collegiate athletic departments. The sample for the study included 38 SWAs from NCAA Division I member institutions and 33 SWAs from NCAA Division III member institutions. The participants completed questionnaires and four SWAs were interviewed in an attempt to express the responsibilities and role of the SWA. The results revealed that SWAs of NCAA Division I member institutions and SWAs of NCAA Division III member institutions were significantly different ( $p < .05$ ) in the areas of female assistant coaches, annual and monthly evaluation of Title IX compliance, developing and implementing program changes for Title IX compliance issues, and prior years of athletic administering. Results from the interviewing revealed women's feelings of powerlessness, pigeon-holing, stereotypes, and male domination. In conclusion, many of the SWAs in the study were at a total loss to describe their duties and position.

Research has also studied the responsibilities of the Senior Woman Administrator. Claussen and Lehr (2002) conducted a study on the decision making authority of SWAs. The findings reported that most SWAs did not possess decision making authority, but were only consultants to decisions. Senior Woman Administrators did report having decision making authority in nurturing areas of the department such as student-athlete welfare and gender equity issues, rather than main function areas such as marketing, development, and business.

In an attempt to answer the question "What is a Senior Woman Administrator?" Osborne and Shields (2002) conducted a study at the 2002 NCAA compliance seminar. The study examined the position of the Senior Woman Administrator in NCAA athletic programs. The results of the study revealed that the typical SWA had the following characteristics: white female, 42 years of age, salary of \$54,000/year, an Associate Athletics Director, a graduate degree in PE/Health, 9.7 years as an athletics administrator, and 11.1 years as a collegiate coach. Senior Woman Administrators on the Division I level felt that their administrative input was considered in almost nine areas of responsibility, and SWAs on the Division II and III felt their administrative input was considered in seven areas of responsibility. In conclusion, SWAs felt they played a significant role in the overall decision-making process, however, Senior Woman Administrators felt their title was an add-on instead of a separate job with a unique job description. Senior Women Administrators also felt they were not acquiring administrative skills that would help them advance in the athletic department hierarchy.

One of the final studies examining the role of the Senior Woman Administrators was by Hartfield (2003). The study examined the difference in the perceived role of SWAs at the various NCAA Division I levels (Division IA, IAA, and IAAA), the differences in the perceived role of SWAs according to institutional category (public and private), differences in educational level, and differences in professional level. The study also examined the perceived role of SWAs toward their job title and job responsibilities. The subjects for the survey were 146 Senior Woman Administrators, Division IA (n=72), Division

IAA (n=49), and Division IAAA (n=24). The results of the study found no significant differences in the perceived role of SWAs and institutional classification. The study also examined the difference between public (n=102) and private (n=42) institutions. The study found no significant differences in the perceived role of SWAs and institutional category. The results also revealed no significant difference in the educational levels of SWAs, which included bachelor's degrees (n=11), master's degrees (n=120) and doctoral degrees (n=14). In conclusion, overall there were no significant differences in the perceived role of SWAs when compared against the various classifications.

Hay (2003) examined the perception of Senior Woman Administrators of NCAA Division III institutions on sexual discrimination. The researcher defined sexual discrimination as gender inequity and overt discrimination, sexual harassment, or artificial barriers in employment. Results revealed that randomly selected participants perceived no form of sexual discrimination in a global form in intercollegiate athletics. In conclusion, sexual discrimination was not perceived to have an effect on the low percentage of women in intercollegiate athletics.

Dohrn (2003) conducted a qualitative study to determine the experiences and initiatives Senior Woman Administrators need to have to be an effective voice and power within their respective athletic departments. Respondents felt that SWAs needed to have a seat of authority within the department and on committees. The respondents agreed that an SWA must earn her power and gain respect from the individuals she impacts. In conclusion, respondents also felt Athletic Directors appointed a female to administration (SWA) only because they were mandated.

Sagas and Cunningham (2004) examined the impact of supervisors' support on the perceived outcomes of Senior Woman Administrators. The researchers hypothesized that supervisor support would negatively relate to occupational turnover intent and supervisor support would positively relate to intent to become the Athletic Director. The researchers also hypothesized that there would be a negative relationship between supervisor support and that turnover would be partially mediated by career satisfaction. The sample for the study was 166 Senior Woman Administrators. From the sample, 99 SWAs were from NCAA Division I member institutions, and 67 SWAs were from NCAA Division II member institutions. The results from the study concluded a negative relationship between supervisor support and occupational turnover intent. Results revealed that supervisor support does not relate to the intent to become an Athletic Director and supervisor support was related to turnover intent and career satisfaction. In conclusion, the study demonstrated the importance of career supervisor support for understanding perceived outcomes of SWAs.

A series of studies is being conducted to determine the level of agreement between Athletic Directors (ADs) and Senior Woman Administrators (SWAs) in relation to roles, responsibilities and duties (Tiell, 2005a; 2005b). The study conducted on Division II institutions sampled 161 SWA and 142 AD. The results indicated that there were no significant differences between ADs and SWAs for the perceptions of whether SWAs generally performed roles and tasks primarily on behalf of gender neutral or gender focused programs, but there were significant differences ( $p < .01$ ) between the perceptions of ADs and SWAs for items



related to decision making and authority structure. The study conducted on Division III institutions sampled 232 ADs and 213 SWAs. The study revealed no significant difference between ADs and SWAs regarding their perception of whether SWAs performed roles and tasks primarily on behalf of men's programs, women's programs, or both men's and women's programs, but there were significant differences in 11 out of 17 statements from the 2002 SWA Brochure. In conclusion, a majority of the SWA participants (Division II and Division III) anticipated continuing in intercollegiate athletics.

In another study by Tiell (2005c), the results of an assessment of Division II Senior Woman Administrators analyzed by a NCAA project team was reported. The results indicated 96.8 percent of SWAs believed it was important to have the opportunity to be involved in decision making; however, only 53 percent of SWAs indicated that they have the opportunity on their campus. Additionally, 96.8 percent of SWAs indicated that it was important to have the opportunity to influence key decisions; however, only 48.4 percent of SWAs indicated that they have that opportunity; 81.8 percent of SWAs indicated that it was important to make decisions without approval of immediate supervisors; however, only 53.4 percent of SWAs have independent decision-making authority. Other results showed that 91.2 percent of SWAs indicated that it was important to have the opportunity to make decisions when unexpected problems arise; however, only 52.5 percent of SWAs indicated that they have this authority, 85.7 percent of SWAs indicated that it was important to have access to mentors in high positions; however, only 53 percent of SWAs indicated that they had access to a mentor. Furthermore, 92.1 percent of

SWAs indicated it was very important to have the opportunity for career/professional development, but only 52.6 percent of SWAs indicated that this occurred on a regular basis. And although 84.8 percent of SWAs indicated that it was important to have the ability to attend conferences and professional development, only 57 percent of SWAs indicated that they were able to attend professional development conferences. While 82.6 percent of SWAs indicated it was important to have the opportunity to attend workshops to enhance their abilities, only 50.8 percent of SWAs indicated they had the opportunity to attend. In conclusion, Senior Woman Administrators indicated that the position should involve making key decisions, attending workshops, and having mentors, but only a moderate number of SWAs had these opportunities.

Because the role of the Senior Woman Administrator was created in the last twenty-four years, there is a paucity of scholarly research on Senior Woman Administrators. Of the research that was found and reviewed, defining the role and responsibilities of this relatively new position was the main focus. Building this background and providing a clear definition of responsibilities of this important role will open the door for more analytical research.

### **Demographic Variables and Organizational Commitment**

When examining the demographic variables of ethnicity, marital status, current annual salary, age, years in present position, highest degree earned, and alumni status, several studies are discussed. The studies in the review vary in setting but provide valuable insight into the relation between the demographic variables and organizational commitment. In the following literature, the

term "race" is synonymous with the term "ethnicity," which is used in the present investigation. The term "tenure" is synonymous with the term "years in present position," which is used in the present investigation. Finally, the term "level of education" is synonymous with the term "highest degree earned," which is used in the present investigation.

Tsui, Egan, and O'Reilly (1992) conducted a study on relational demography and organizational attachment. The researchers used the self-categorization theory to test the hypotheses that the demographic diversity of individuals effects the individual's psychological and behavioral attachment to the organization. The demographic characteristics of sex, age, company tenure, education and race were used in the study. The sample for the study was 1,705 employees, from three different organizations, with an average age of 40 years, an average tenure of 11 years and an average education of 15 years. From the sample, 33 percent were women and 10 percent were minority group members. The dependent variable of organizational attachment was measured by a ten-item value commitment index (Angel & Perry, 1981) which was derived from Porter et al. (1974) organizational commitment scale. Absences were calculated from individual attendance records from the past 12 months. Intent to stay was measured with a two-item instrument. Relational demography was computed as the difference between an individual and all other individuals in the work unit on a specific demographic attribute. Results of the study revealed that the larger the difference in age, sex, and race, the lower the individual's psychological commitment to stay with the organization. Results also concluded that being different in race and gender had more of an effect on organizational

attachment than education and tenure. Finally, results revealed that being different has a more negative effect for men than for women and for whites than for non-whites. An interesting observation from the study was that men in homogenous units reported the highest level of organizational attachment.

Doherty and Chelladurai (1999) provided a theoretical framework on the impact of cultural diversity in sport organizations. The authors believe this topic needs to be explored because of the increase in cultural diversity in the workforce. The authors identify cultural as a combination of personal characteristics. The authors give examples of such cultures including the "youth culture," "gay culture," and "African American culture." Individuals possess many cultures, but according to Loden and Rosener (1991), individuals identify more strongly with cultures associated to fixed personal characteristics such as age, gender, race, and physical disability. Doherty and Chelladurai (1999) state that prior research has focused on the demographic attributes of age, race, and gender, which is the premise for cultural diversity in their article. The article brings results from various authors' research and theory. Milliken and Marten (1996) describe the benefits of a culturally diverse workforce as more cooperative, creative and productive of higher quality ideas. Advantages of a more homogenous ethnic and racial group include effective problem solving and alternative generated. Milliken and Martens (1996) concluded "that an organization is also at risk of increased ambiguity, complexity, and confusion caused by different perceptions and miscommunication resulting from cultural diversity" (Doherty & Chelladurai, 1999, p. 284). Bhagat (1985) and

Ford (1985) state that the ethnic and racial minority individuals within an organization are less satisfied with their career and consequently withhold their unique contributions to the group. Doherty and Chelladurai (1999) believe that cultural diversity is a function of managing the diversity within the organizational culture. Traditionally, the majority culture within an organization forced minority cultures to relinquish their unique values and attitudes. Doherty and Chellsurai (1999) offer a four-cell theoretical framework for the impact of cultural diversity within the organizational culture. Cell 1 identified considerable cultural diversity among members yet similarity is valued in the organization. The expectations in this situation include less cohesion, less communication and mistrust among members. Cell 2 identified considerable cultural diversity among members where diversity is valued within the organizational culture. Individuals are able to contribute their unique values and perspectives, and creativity and constructive conflict is fostered. Cell 3 is identified as little cultural diversity among members (a homogenous group) and the organization values similarity. The expectations include greater cohesion and less conflict among members. Cell 4 is identified as an organization with members who are culturally similar, yet an underlying organizational culture of diversity. A potential cultural diversity organization would benefit the organization.

Cox, Lobel, and McLeod (1991) examined the different behaviors among Anglo Americans and three other ethnic groups - Asians, Hispanic, and Black Americans. The researchers hypothesized that individuals from ethnic groups would display a more collectivist and cooperative

orientation to a task than Anglo Americans. The sample for the study included 136 graduate and undergraduate students from several academic majors from a large mid-western university. The sample included 75 Anglo Americans, 25 Asian Americans, 17 Black Americans, and 19 Hispanic Americans. There were 95 men and 41 women, and of the subjects 21 were born outside the United States. Subjects were randomly assigned to a combination of all Anglo American groups or ethnically diverse groups. The groups solved hypothetical situations within the group and then completed a 124-item instrument used to measure individualism or collectivism. The results of the pairwise analysis revealed that members of the minority ethnic groups had a significantly more cooperative orientation than Anglo Americans. The ethnically diverse groups also made significantly more cooperative choices than the groups comprised of only Anglo Americans. Some of the limitations addressed by the authors include the ideal of ethnic minority groups being bicultural, which includes their cultural heritage and the adoption of the Anglo American cultural. Another limitation was in the formation of the groups. The groups were equally balanced whereas real life organizations are not equally balanced. Finally the cross sectional design was deemed a limitation for the researchers. Groups develop over time and there is a development process which must be taken into account in the study.

Brady (1997) examined the organizational commitment of professional staff in health and human service organizations. The variables of age, gender, race/ethnicity, marital status, education, source of income, salary and years in the agency were examined in

relation to organizational commitment. The results of the study revealed that affective commitment was significantly related to age (.097) and annual salary (.19), but not related to years in position (.08). Results revealed that continuance commitment was not significantly related to age (.006), years in position (.026), or annual salary (.018). Normative commitment was not significantly related to age (.06), years in position (.03), or annual salary (.19). The study also investigated the differences between organizational commitment (affective, continuance, normative) and race/ethnicity, marital status, and level of education. Results revealed no significant difference between affective commitment and race/ethnicity (.37), marital status (.52), and level of education (.82). Results also revealed no significant difference between continuance commitment and race/ethnicity (1.80), marital status (.59), and level of education (5.17). There were no significant differences found between normative commitment and race/ethnicity (1.93), marital status (1.05), and level of education (1.76).

Valenti (2001) investigated the organizational commitment level of Generation X'ers between two different stages. Generation X'ers are individuals born between 1965-1978 and are assumed to be less committed to organizations than previous generations. To assess the differences, participants (n=315) completed the original Organizational Commitment Scale and a demographic survey to identify the variables of age, highest degree earned, marital status, and organizational tenure. In the study, Generation X'ers in stage 1 are beginning their entry into the adult world and are in the "Trial stage" of life, participants in this stage are under the age of 30 years. Stage 2 participants

are in the "Stabilization or Establishment" stage and are between the ages of 30 and 44 years. Results from the study revealed that participants in stage 2 had more affective and normative commitment than participants in stage 1. This was interpreted to mean that older employees are more committed (affective, normative). When identified by stage, there was a significant difference between stage 1 and stage 2 Generation X'ers for affective commitment (1.98) but not normative commitment (1.18) or continuance commitment (3.22). When identified by age, there was no significant difference between stage 1 and stage 2 Generation X'ers for affective commitment (-.70), normative commitment (-.046) or continuance commitment (.09).

Brookover (2002) examined the organizational commitment level of faculty at Clemson University in relation to the antecedents of age, gender, marital status, organizational tenure, salary, and alumni status. The study assessed attitudinal and behavioral commitment. Attitudinal commitment, which was measured by the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and has been proven to closely measure affective commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Dunham, Grube, and Casteñeda, 1994) and behavioral commitment was measured by the continuance commitment scale. The sample for the study consisted of 192 faculty. The results found no significant difference between age and attitudinal commitment (.65), but a significant difference between age and behavioral commitment (.02). There were no significant differences found between marital status and attitudinal commitment (.83) and behavioral commitment (.56). No significant difference was found between salary and attitudinal commitment (.12), but a significant difference was found between salary and behavioral



commitment (002). There was no significant difference found between tenure and attitudinal commitment (.44), but a significant difference was found between tenure and behavioral commitment (.01). Faculty that graduated from Clemson University had a higher level of attitudinal commitment (.005) than faculty that did not graduate from Clemson University. There was no significant difference found between graduates and non graduates of Clemson University for behavioral commitment. A significant difference was found for behaviorally committed faculty who were tenured versus non-tenured faculty.

Foosiri (2002) examined the relationship between organizational commitment (affective, continuance, normative) and the antecedents of age, education, and salary of Thai employees within the American Chamber of Commerce in Thailand. The original Organizational Commitment Scale using a seven point Likert scale was used to measure organizational commitment among the variables. Results revealed a significant relationship between affective commitment and education and salary, a significant relationship between continuance commitment and education, and a significant relationship between normative commitment and age and education. Results also revealed a positive correlation between age and affective, normative, and continuance commitment, a positive correlation between salary and affective commitment, and a negative correlation between education and continuance and normative commitment.

A limitation in this study was in the instrumentation. The instruments used in this study were the Organizational Commitment Scale, LMX-7 scale, and Dorfman and Howell scales. These instruments were translated into Thai which

may have altered the meaning and/or validity of the instruments.

King (2002) conducted a meta-analysis to summarize the relations between the three-component Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) and the organizational commitment questionnaire (OCQ) in their antecedents, correlates, and consequences. A meta-analysis is a quantitative empirical view from the results of a number of studies that will provide evidence of relationship among the defined variables (Hunter & Schmidt, 1990). The meta-analysis included 244 studies (179 published articles, 32 dissertations, 16 unpublished papers) representing 89,010 respondents. The results from the study revealed that affective commitment had a correlation of .05 to education, .16 to age, and .19 to tenure. There was a positive and significant correlation with OCQ and education (.04), but there was no significant correlation between OCQ and age (.18) and tenure (.10). There were no significant correlations found between continuance commitment and education (-.11), age (.16), and tenure (.22). There were no significant correlations between normative commitment and education (-.08), age (.17), and tenure (.18).

A limitation of the study is in the statistical analysis. Although meta-analysis is a useful technique to test (Hunter & Schmidt, 1990), researchers (Johnson, Mullen, and Salas, 1995; Wanos, Sullivan, and Malinak, 1989) argue that meta-analysis is a subjective process which involves judgment calls and may result in different conclusions.

Schneider (2003) investigated the relationship of selected demographics to organizational commitment. The revised OCS was used to assess the commitment level of

managers used in the study. The results revealed a significant relationship between AC and age and income, and NC and income. To further investigate if the variables would account for variance of affective and normative commitment, a stepwise multiple regression was conducted. Results revealed that income and education were predictors of affective and normative commitment. Regression analysis indicted that roughly 6 percent of variance in commitment (affective and normative) was accounted for by income alone and 3 percent when education was added to the equation (affective and normative). A limitation of the study may be found in the selection of sample from the populations. The sample for the study was produced by a stratified sampling method. The population consisted of a list of managers who worked for organizations with a minimum size of 200 employees throughout the United States. This list was retrieved by Dun and Bradstreet, a large mailing list supplier. Although specific management titles were coded on the list, indication of type of organizations was not identified for the sample.

Lim (2003) examined the variables of age, education, gender, and years of service in current organization in relation to organizational commitment. The organizational commitment was assessed by the Organizational Commitment Scale. The statistical test of a t-test was used to assess the organization commitment level of employees at a Korean private organization. The results revealed no significant differences for age and affective organizational commitment (.56), continuance organizational commitment (1.33), and normative organizational commitment (.94). Results also revealed no significant differences between educational level and affective organizational commitment (2.11),

continuance organizational commitment (1.72), and continuance organizational commitment (.69). Results revealed no significant difference between years of service in current organization for affective organizational commitment (2.35), continuance organizational commitment (1.05), and normative organizational commitment (2.42). There was a significant difference found for gender and affective commitment and continuance - males had higher affective and continuance mean scores than females. A limitation from this study was that the instrument was translated into Korean and a loss of validity and/or meaning may have occurred during the process.

Heinzman (2004) examined the relationship between the variables of age, tenure, and job satisfaction to organizational commitment. The sample for the study consisted of employees at two manufacturing firms. The revised OCS was used to assess the organizational commitment level of employees. The results of a Pearson Product Moment Correlation revealed that affective organizational commitment has a significant relationship to tenure (.22) but not age (.13), continuance organizational commitment has a significant relationship to tenure (.25) but not age (.14) and normative organizational commitment has a significant relationship to tenure (.17) but not age (.08). A limitation of the study may be found in the population used for the study. Meyer and Allen (1997) hypothesized that organizational characteristics, which include organizational size and structure, has an influence on affective commitment. The population for the study was comprised of two separate organizations of different organizational size (N=50, N=200) which may influence commitment level, which is combined in the study.

Huang (2004) investigated the level of organizational commitment among faculty at Taiwan's higher educational institutions. The study assessed the variables of age, marital status, and length of employment. The sample for the study included 354 faculty. The original OCS assessed faculty's commitment level to the institution. The results revealed no significant relationship between age and affective organizational commitment (.48), continuance organizational commitment (.09), and normative organizational commitment (.11). No significant relationship was found between marital status and affective organizational commitment (.81), continuance organizational commitment (.22), and normative organizational commitment (.02). Results also revealed no significant relationship between length of employment and affective organizational commitment (.81) and normative organizational commitment. There was a significant relationship found between length of employment and continuance organizational commitment ( $p < .005$ ).

A limitation was in the instrumentation. The instruments used in the study were translated to Chinese. After reviewing the responses to descriptors, the researcher indicated that "the translated questions in the affective commitment portion of the instrument did not appropriately measure what was occurring in the sample" (Huang, 2004, p. 88).

Al-Kahanti (2004) investigated the organizational commitment of faculty at the Institute of Public Administration in relation to the demographic variables of age, gender, education and job-related variables of job type, occupational level and salary. The revised Organizational Commitment Scale was used to measure

faculty's commitment level. Results revealed that age, gender, annual salary and organizational tenure significantly correlated with organizational commitment (affective, continuance, normative, overall). Results also revealed that education significantly related to continuance commitment. A limitation in this study was with the population. One of the institutions in this study was a women's branch of the institution. A women's branch may depict different organizational characteristics (structure, climate) than the traditional institution. If the organizational characteristics vary among the population, this will influence the organizational commitment of the sample.

### **Summary of the Literature**

Based on the review of literature, there have been only a few studies conducted on SWAs in the workplace (Claussen & Lehr, 2002; Dohrn, 2003; Hartfield, 2003; Hay, 2003; Osborn & Shields, 2002; Sagas and Cunningham, 2004; Swearingen, 1999; Tiell, 2005; Watson, 1994).

This chapter reviewed a small number of studies within the organizational commitment literature. The review included studies that correlate organizational commitment to various foci (job commitment, occupational commitment, and professional commitment), various bases (affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment), various constructs (job satisfaction, performance, and turnover), and within various time frames (new employees and tenured employees).

It can be concluded from the literature that organizational commitment is an important entity in

obtaining positive outcomes within an organization. This area of research is new and has been proven to be an area that will be continued to be researched because of its importance in the organizational commitment area. Although there are a few studies on the organizational commitment of females in administration/management and organizational commitment in sport/athletics, no studies were found on organizational commitment and females in athletic administration, specifically Senior Woman Administrators. This study will provide a foundation for knowledge in this area.

The examination of the organizational commitment of SWAs is essential if the field is to model its commitment to the inclusion of female administrators in the sport management literature. This paper is a part of a growing body of knowledge of organizational commitment research for the new and emerging field of sport management.

### **Research Questions**

The research questions were written in support of the purposes of the present investigation.

1. Are the demographic variables (ethnicity, marital status, current annual salary, age, years in present position, highest degree earned, alumni status) significantly related to SWAs perception of organizational commitment (affective, normative, continuance)?
2. Is there a significant difference in the mean scores of SWAs perception of organizational commitment (affective, normative, continuance) according to ethnicity?

3. Are there significant differences in the mean scores of SWAs perception of organizational commitment (affective, normative, continuance) according to marital status?
4. Are there significant differences in the mean scores of SWAs perception of organizational commitment (affective, normative, continuance) according to highest degree earned?
5. Is there a significant difference in the mean scores of SWAs perception of organizational commitment (affective, normative, continuance) according to alumni status?
6. What is the relationship between the demographic variables (current annual salary, age, years in present position) and SWAs perception of organizational commitment (affective, normative, continuance)?

### **Definition of Terms**

The researcher will use both theoretical definitions and operational definitions. Theoretical definitions refer to definitions from the dictionary or theoretical frameworks. Operational definitions are provided from the NCAA.

#### Theoretical Definitions

Organizational Commitment: "A psychological link between the employee and his or her organization that makes it less likely that the employee will voluntarily leave the organization" (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 252).

Affective Commitment: "Affective commitment refers to an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with and



involvement in the organization" (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p.11).

Continuance Commitment: "Continuance commitment refers to an employee's awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization" (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 11).

Normative Commitment: "Normative commitment refers to an employee's feeling of obligation to continue with the organization" (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p.11).

Senior Woman Administrator: A Senior Woman Administrator is defined as "the highest-ranking female administrator involved with the conduct of a member institution's intercollegiate athletics program" (NCAA Manual, 2004, p. 22).

#### Operational Definitions

National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA): The National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) is a voluntary association of about 1,200 colleges and universities, athletic conferences and sports organizations devoted to the sound administration of intercollegiate athletics. The purpose of the NCAA is to initiate, stimulate and improve intercollegiate athletics programs for student-athletes and to promote and develop educational leadership, physical fitness, athletics excellence and athletics participation as a recreational pursuit. The National Collegiate Athletic Association is the largest athletic governing organization for four-year institutions (NCAA Manual, 2004).

NCAA Division I Member Institutions: Division I institutions are NCAA member institutions that compete at the highest level of intercollegiate competition in sports. Division I member institutions must sponsor at

least seven sports for men and seven sports for women with two team sports for each gender

([http://www.ncaa.org/about/div\\_criteria.html](http://www.ncaa.org/about/div_criteria.html)).

NCAA Division IA Member Institutions: NCAA Division IA member institutions must have a football program. The teams have to meet minimum football attendance which is one of the following: 17,000 attendees for home games, an average of 20,000 guests for football games in the last four years, a stadium with 30,000 permanent seats and an average of 17,000 attendants per game, an average of 20,000 attendees for all football games in the last four years, or be a member conference in which at least six conference members sponsor football or more than half of football schools meet attendance criterion. Division IA student-athletes may receive financial aid related to their athletic ability ([http://www.ncaa.org/about/div\\_criteria.html](http://www.ncaa.org/about/div_criteria.html)).

NCAA Division IAA Member Institutions: NCAA Division IAA member institutions must have a football program. The teams do not need to meet minimum football attendance requirements. Division IAA student-athletes may receive financial aid related to their athletic ability ([http://www.ncaa.org/about/div\\_criteria.html](http://www.ncaa.org/about/div_criteria.html)).

NCAA Division IAAA Member Institutions: NCAA Division IAAA member institutions do not host football programs. Division IAAA student-athletes may receive financial aid related to their athletic ability (<http://www.ncaa.org/about/divcriteria.html>).

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **METHOD**

The purpose of the present investigation was to examine Senior Woman Administrators perception of organizational commitment. This chapter contains the procedures used to investigate the organizational commitment of Senior Woman Administrators of NCAA Division IAA member institutions. This chapter is divided into the following sections: research design, questionnaire, study population, validity, procedures, and statistical data analysis.

#### **Research Design**

The research design used in the present investigation was a quantitative, non experimental, cross sectional research design. This research design was chosen for the present investigation because it allowed predictions in a large sample with limited resources. A cross sectional survey design was used to examine the demographic variables of ethnicity, marital status, current annual salary, age, years in present position, highest degree earned, and alumni status; of SWAs perception of organizational commitment.

#### **Instrumentation**

The questionnaire for the study consisted of two sections. Section One (Appendix D) was designed to identify the demographic variables of respondents. Section one of the questionnaire consisted of thirteen items. The demographic variables of ethnicity, marital status, current

annual salary, age, years in present position, highest degree earned, and alumni status were used as independent variables in the subsequent data analysis. Respondents were asked to respond to each statement either by checking the appropriate answer or writing their response.

Section Two of the questionnaire (Appendix E) was designed to measure Senior Woman Administrators perception of organizational commitment. The revised Organizational Commitment Scale developed by Meyer and Allen (1991) was used to assess respondents' perceptions of organizational commitment. The revised Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) is a self-reported instrument, which consists of three six-item scales (Affective Commitment Scale, Normative Commitment Scale, Continuance Commitment Scale).

A five-point Likert scale was used to measure respondents' perception of organizational commitment. Respondents were asked to choose one of five response options: 5=*strongly agree*, 4=*agree*, 3=*neutral/undecided*, 2=*disagree*, 1=*strongly disagree*. Likert scales are the most common questionnaire design used "to determine the relative intensity of different items" (Babbie, 2001, p. G6). McMillian and Schumacher (1997) advocate the use of a five-point scale with a neutral mid-point. "If the neutral choice is not included and that is the way the respondent actually feels, then respondent is forced either to make a choice that is incorrect or not respond at all" (p.285).

The OCS was found to better assess organizational commitment than the earlier measurement of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). The OCQ is a unidimensional measurement of organizational commitment that was developed by Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982). Researchers (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Dunham, Grube, and

Casteñada, 1994; King, 2002) have compared the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) to the Affective Commitment Scale of the OCS. With the OCS, the researcher is able to assess the connotation as to the type of commitment the employee has to the organization. The original Organizational Commitment Scale has 24 items, eight items per scale. A weakness in the original scale was that the Affective Commitment Scale and Normative Commitment Scale were closely correlated (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al. 2001). Culpepper (2000) examined the construct validity between the original and revised organizational commitment scale. A Confirmatory Factor Analysis determined a better discrimination between affective commitment and normative commitment using the revised scale.

### **Affective Organizational Commitment**

The Affective Commitment Scale measured affective organizational commitment. Affective commitment is defined as employees' attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The following questions from the Organizational Commitment Scale were designed to assess affective organizational commitment. (Note that *r* indicates a reversed-key item, which means scoring is reversed).

1. This university has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
2. I would be happy to spend the rest of my career in this university.
3. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my university. (*r*)

4. I really feel as if this university's problems are my own.
5. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my university. (r)
6. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this university. (r)

The internal consistency for the Affective Commitment Scale was .85 (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

### **Normative Organizational Commitment**

The Normative Commitment Scale measured normative organizational commitment. Normative commitment is defined as an employee's feeling of obligation to continue with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The following questions from the Organizational Commitment Scale were designed to assess normative organizational commitment. (Note that r indicates a reversed-key item, which means scoring is reversed).

7. I would feel guilty if I left my university now.
8. This university deserves my loyalty.
9. I owe a great deal to my university.
10. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer. (r)
11. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my university now.
12. I would not leave my university now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.

The internal consistency for the Normative Commitment Scale was .73 (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

### **Continuance Commitment Scale**

The Continuance Commitment Scale measured continuance commitment. Continuance commitment is defined as commitment based on the costs that employees associate with leaving an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The following questions from the Organizational Commitment Scale were designed to assess continuance organizational commitment. (Note that r indicates a reversed-key item, which means scoring is reversed).

13. It would be hard for me to leave my university right now, even if I wanted to.
14. I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this university.
15. If I had not already put so much of myself into this university, I might consider working elsewhere.
16. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this university would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
17. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my university right now.
18. Right now, staying with my university is a matter of necessity as much as desire.

The internal consistency for the Continuance Commitment Scale was .79 (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

### **Validity**

A panel of experts (Appendix F) was used to establish face and content validity for the questionnaire. The panel of experts consisted of university faculty at a NCAA Division IAA institution. Changes indicated by the expert panel were made and field-tested. The revised questionnaire

was field-tested using 44 athletic department personnel from a NCAA Division IAA institution. Meyer and Allen (1997) state, "By demonstrating that the pattern of empirical findings match the hypothesized patterns, further evidence is provided for the construct validity of the measure" (p.121).

### **Population and Sample**

The target population for the present investigation consisted of all (N=118) Senior Woman Administrators of NCAA Division IAA member institutions during the 2005-2006 academic year. NCAA Division I member institutions provide the highest level of academic quality and opportunity, and their athletic programs strive for regional and national excellence and prominence. Member Institutions classified as Division I must sponsor at least seven sports for both men and women (or six sports for men and eight sports for women). Division I programs are further sub-divided into three categories, A, AA, AAA. Division IA member institutions host a football program which must meet a minimum football attendance requirement of 15,000 per home game. Institutions classified as a Division IAA programs host a football team but are not required to meet a minimum football attendance requirement.

The Senior Woman Administrator is a required position at NCAA member institutions. The Senior Woman Administrator is "the highest-ranking female administrator involved with the conduct of a member institution's intercollegiate athletics program" (NCAA Manual, 2004, p. 22).



## **Data Collection Procedures**

The researcher used the mailing technique to obtain data. Borque and Fielder (2001) stated that mailed questionnaires receive a lower response rate than telephone and in-person interviews. A new concept of survey is the on-line presentation, but on-line surveying also presents low response rates because of accessibility, non-control, and social division. Some of the advantages of using mailing include distribution to a wider geographic population and a larger sample. With mailed questionnaires, participants are believed to answer truthfully to sensitive topics due to confidentiality.

A modified version of Dillman (2001) total design method was used in the administration of the mailing survey. The questionnaire and procedure used in the study were approved by the Chair of the Human Subjects Committee, Institutional Review Board through the Vice President for the Office of Research at Florida State University (Appendix A). The study was conducted from August 5, 2005 through October 7, 2005. The following were the procedures for data collection for the present investigation.

The researcher identified the target population for the study from the National Collegiate Athletic Association's official web site on August 2, 2005 (<http://www.ncaa.org>). The researcher assigned each institution a number ranging from 1 to 118. The questionnaires were then coded by placing the corresponding identification number on the back of each page of the questionnaire in the upper left-hand corner. A list of names and contact telephone numbers of the Senior Woman Administrators of the 118 universities was obtained from the 2005-2006 NCAA Directory of Member Institutions (NCAA,

2005). The researcher called each institution in an attempt to confirm the current names of Senior Woman Administrators. After confirming 92 percent of the Senior Woman Administrators names, the researcher prepared personalized cover letters using the Florida State University, Physical Education Department's letterhead. The researcher was not able to confirm all names due to vacancies or changes in this position at the time of inquiry. Cover letters that were not personalized were addressed as "Dear Senior Woman Administrator." Data collection occurred during the fall of 2005. The researcher mailed packets to Senior Woman Administrators of the NCAA Division IAA member institutions on August 5, 2005. The packet included a cover letter (Appendix C), a questionnaire which included the demographic characteristics (Appendix D), the Organizational Commitment Scale (Appendix E), and a self-addressed stamped envelope for the participants' responses. The return date for the first mailing was August 25, 2005. Non-respondents were sent a second packet, which include the cover letter (Appendix C), questionnaire, which included the demographic characteristics (Appendix D), the Organizational Commitment Scale (Appendix E), and a self-addressed stamped envelope on August 26, 2005 and asked to return it by September 14, 2005. Non-respondents were sent a third mailing, which included a cover letter, questionnaire with demographic characteristics (Appendix D), the Organizational Commitment Scale (Appendix E), and a self-addressed stamped envelope on September 15, 2005 and asked to return it by September 29, 2005.

Of the total number of questionnaires distributed (n=118), fifty green colored (first mailing), ten blue

colored (second-mailing), and six white colored (third-mailing) were returned. Three questionnaires were returned after September 29, 2005. Questionnaires were received from 66 Senior Woman Administrators, representing an overall response rate of 53 percent, and used in the study. According to Babbie (2001), "a response rate of 50% is adequate for analysis and reporting" (p. 256).

### **Statistical Analysis**

Descriptive statistics were given for the demographic variables. Data were analyzed using Pearson Product Moment Coefficient, point biserial correlation, Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA), and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). Data was entered and analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences, version 13 (SPSS, 2001).

To identify the demographic variables that were significantly related to Senior Woman Administrators perception of organizational commitment, the statistical methods of Pearson Product Moment Correlation and point biserial correlation were used. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used to examine the relationship between the interval variables of current annual salary, age, and years in present position to organizational commitment. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation is the most commonly used statistic for computing the relationship between variables (Thomas & Nelson, 2001). "The Pearson product moment correlation coefficient measures the degree to which there is a linear functional relation between the variables" (Siegal & Castellan, 1988, p. 225). The

coefficient, denoted by  $r$ , represents the degree of closeness to a perfect linear relationship (Brewer, 1996). The range of  $r$  is from -1 to +1 with  $\pm 1$  indicating the degree to a perfect linear relationship and zero indicating no relationship (Brewer, 1996).

The point biserial correlation was used to assess the correlation for the variables of ethnicity, marital status, highest degree earned and alumni status. The point biserial correlation method was used because the variables of ethnicity, marital status, highest degree earned and alumni status were dichotomous and organizational commitment was measured on an interval scale (Brewer, 1996). Marital status was collapsed into two categories for purposes of the investigation - married and single (single, divorced, widowed, domestic partner). Highest degree earned was collapsed into two categories - Bachelor's degree and advanced degree (Master and Doctorate). Pearson product moment correlation and point biserial correlation were used to answer research question 1: Are the demographic variables (ethnicity, marital status, current annual salary, age, years in present position, highest degree earned, alumni status) significantly related to SWAs perception of organizational commitment (affective, normative, continuance)?

The Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was used to examine the three components of commitment simultaneously (Babbie, 2002). The MANOVA tests the overall multivariate null hypothesis. The Wilke's Lambda was used to determine the significance of the model. A univariate Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) on each dependent variable was conducted upon the significance of the overall multivariate relationship. The ANOVA "determines the probability that

differences in means across several groups are solely due to sampling error" (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black, 1998, p. 332). The Tukey Multiple Comparison post hoc tests were used to simultaneously infer all pair-wise comparisons. The Partial Eta Squared (effect size) was used to test the multivariate strength of relationship indices (Tate, 2005). The MANOVA was used to answer research questions 2 through 5:

RQ2. Is there a significant difference in the mean scores of SWAs perception of organizational commitment (affective, normative, continuance) according to ethnicity?

RQ3. Are there significant differences in the mean scores of SWAs perception of organizational commitment (affective, normative, continuance) according to marital status?

RQ4. Are there significant differences in the mean scores of SWAs perception of organizational commitment (affective, normative, continuance) according to highest degree earned?

RQ5. Is there a significant difference in the mean Scores of SWAs perception of organizational commitment (affective, normative, continuance) according to alumni status?

A regression analysis was used to assess the relationship between the dependent variables (organizational commitment) and the selected demographic variables of current annual salary, age, and years in present position. Brewer (1996) stated that a simple linear regression could be used to predict dependent variables from independent variables.

RQ6. What is the relationship between the demographic

variables (current annual salary, age, years in present position) and SWAs perception of organizational commitment (affective, normative, continuance)?

## CHAPTER 3

### RESULTS

This chapter contains the results of the quantitative data analysis procedures outlined in chapter two and is divided into the following sections: reliability of the Organizational Commitment Scale(s), descriptive statistics, means and standard deviation of SWAs perceptions of organizational commitment, preliminary analysis, and the results of the research questions.

#### **Reliability of the Organizational Commitment Scale(s)**

To determine the internal consistency of the Organizational Commitment scale(s), the alpha coefficient (Cronbach) was calculated. The Cronbach alpha coefficients for the Organizational Commitment Scales are presented in Table 1. The Cronbach alpha level for the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS) was .72. The Cronbach alpha for the Normative Commitment Scale (NCS) was .83. The Cronbach Alpha level for the Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS) was .69. The alpha coefficient for the ACS and NCS met or exceeded the Cronbach alpha level of .70 recommended by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). However, the CCS did not meet the suggested Cronbach alpha level of .70.

Reliabilities associated with various populations are presented in Table 2. The reliability for the revised ACS ranged from .68-.87, the NCS ranged from .52-.82, and the CCS ranged from .73-.80. The differences in alpha coefficients may be due to the fact that past studies were conducted with a population of males and females and the

present population included only females. At present, studies have not been found that examined organizational commitment using the revised Organizational Commitment Scales for a female only population.

*Table 1*  
*Cronbach Alpha Coefficients for Organizational Commitment Scales*

	Items	Scale	Alpha
Affective Organizational Commitment	6	1-5	.72
Normative Organizational Commitment	6	1-5	.83
Continuance Organizational Commitment	6	1-5	.69

*Table 2*  
Internal Consistency Reliabilities for Revised Organizational Commitment Scales

ACS	NCS	CCS	Reference
.87	.73	.80	Brady (1997)
.80	.52	.81	Frauenhoffer (1998)
.80	.82	---	Kent & Chelladurai (2001)
.81	.78	.78	King (2002)
.78	.80	.73	Lim (2003)
.82	.73	.76	Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolyntsky ( 2001)
.68	.70	.73	Turner & Chelladurai (2005)

Note: ACS=Affective Organizational Commitment Scale, NCS=Normative Organizational Commitment Scale, CCS=Continuance Organizational Commitment Scale



## Descriptive Statistics

### Ethnicity

Table 3 displays the descriptive statistics for ethnicity of SWAs. Data revealed that there were 11 (16.7 percent) African American, 1 (1.5 percent) Hispanic, 1 (1.5 percent) Asian/Pacific Islander, and 53 (80.3 percent) Caucasian. For purposes of the present investigation, ethnicity was categorized as 13 (19.7 percent) Minority (African American, Hispanic, Asian/Pacific Islander) and 53 (80.3 percent) Caucasian.

*Table 3*  
*Ethnicity of Senior Woman Administrators*

Demographics	Frequency	Percent	Cum%
Ethnicity			
African-America	11	16.7%	16.7%
Native American	0	0.0%	16.7%
Hispanic	1	1.5%	18.2%
Asian/Pacific Islander	1	1.5%	19.7%
Caucasian	53	80.3%	100.0%
Ethnicity			
Minority	13	19.7%	19.7%
Caucasian	53	80.3%	100.0%
Total	66	100.0%	100.0%

## Marital Status

Table 4 displays the descriptive statistics for marital status of SWAs. Data revealed that there were 21 (31.8 percent) married, 10 (15.2 percent) divorced, 1 (1.5 percent) separated, 31 (47.0 percent) single, and 3 (4.5 percent) domestic partners. For purposes of the present investigation, marital status was categorized as 22 (33.3 percent) married (married and separated), 10 (15.2 percent) divorced, and 34 (51.5 percent) single (single and domestic partner).

Table 4

*Marital Status of Senior Woman Administrators*

Demographics	Frequency	Percent	Cum%
Marital Status			
Married	21	31.8%	31.8%
Divorced	10	15.2%	47.0%
Separated	1	1.5%	48.5%
Single	31	47.0%	95.5%
Widowed	0	0.0%	95.5%
Domestic Partner	3	4.5%	100.0%
Marital Status			
Married/Separated	22	33.3%	33.3%
Single	10	15.2%	48.5%
Other	34	51.5%	100.0%
Total	66	100.0%	100.0%

## Current Annual Salary

The minimum current annual salary was \$34,000 and the maximum current annual salary was \$100,000. The mean

current annual salary for the sample was \$62,322 with a standard deviation of \$17,663.

**Age**

The minimum age was 25 years and the maximum age was 68 years. The mean age for the sample was 42 years with a standard deviation of 10 years.

**Years in Present Position**

The minimum years in present position was 0 years and the maximum years in current position was 26 years. The mean years in current position for the sample was 8 years with a standard deviation of 7 years.

**Highest Degree Earned**

Table 5 displays the descriptive statistics for the highest degrees earned by SWAs. Data revealed that 13 (19.7 percent) reported bachelor degrees, 46 (69.7 percent) reported master degrees, and 7 (10.6 percent) reported doctorate degrees as the highest degree earned.

*Table 5  
Highest Degree Earned by Senior Woman Administrators*

Demographics	Frequency	Percent	Cum%
Highest Earned Degree			
Bachelor	13	19.7%	19.7%
Master	46	69.7%	89.4%
Doctorate	7	10.6%	100.0%
Total	66	100.0%	

## **Alumni Status**

Table 6 displays the descriptive statistics for the alumni status of SWAs. Data revealed that 24 (36.4 percent) were alumni and 42 (63 percent) were non-alumni of the university in which they were currently employed.

*Table 6*  
*Alumni Status of Senior Woman Administrators*

Demographics	Frequency	Percent	Cum%
Alumni of University			
Yes	24	36.4%	36.4%
No	42	63.6%	100.0%
Total	66	100.0%	

## **Means and Standard Deviations**

Appendix G displays the means and standard deviations for the Organizational Commitment Scales.

Table 7 displays the means and standard deviations for the ethnicity of SWAs. Results revealed that the category Minority had mean scores of 3.76 on the ACS, 3.20 on the NCS, and 2.33 on the CCS. Results revealed that the category Caucasian had mean scores of 3.89 on the ACS, 3.20 on the NCS, and 2.73 on the CCS.

Table 8 displays the means and standard deviations for marital status of SWAs. Results revealed that married/separated had mean scores of 3.83 on the ACS, 3.03 on the NCS, and 2.44 for CCS. Results revealed that

divorced had mean scores of 3.82 on the ACS, 3.37 on the NCS, and 2.48 on the CCS. Results revealed that single/domestic partner had mean scores of 3.89 on the ACS, 3.26 on the NCS, and 2.84 on the CCS.

*Table 7  
Means and Standard Deviations for Ethnicity of Senior Woman Administrators*

<u>Variable</u>	Minority (n=13)		Caucasian (n=53)	
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Affective Organizational Commitment	3.76	1.07	3.89	.70
Normative Organizational Commitment	3.20	.97	3.20	.94
Continuance Organizational Commitment	2.33	.69	2.73	.84

*Table 8  
Means and Standard Deviations for Marital Status of Senior Woman Administrators*

<u>Variable</u>	Married/ Separated (n=22)		Divorced (n= 10)		Single/ Domestic Partner (n=34)	
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Affective Organizational Commitment	3.83	.80	3.82	1.06	3.89	.71
Normative Organizational Commitment	3.03	.98	3.37	.82	3.26	.96
Continuance Organizational Commitment	2.44	.87	2.48	.70	2.84	.82

Table 9 displays the means and standard deviations for highest degree earned of SWAs. Results revealed that the category of Bachelor's had mean scores of 3.87 on the ACS, 3.45 on the NCS, and 2.83 on the CCS. Results revealed that the category Master's had mean scores of 3.92 on the ACS, 3.22 on the NCS, and 2.62 on the CCS. Results revealed that the category Doctorate had mean scores of 3.45 on the ACS, 2.59 on the NCS, and 2.50 on the CCS.

Table 10 displays the means and standard deviations for alumni status of SWAs. Results revealed that the category Alumni had mean scores of 4.24 on the ACS, 3.51 on the NCS, and 2.64 on the CCS. Results revealed that the category Non-alumni had mean scores of 3.65 on the ACS, 3.03 on the NCS, and 2.66 on the CCS.

*Table 9*  
*Means and Standard Deviations for Highest Degree Earned of Senior Woman Administrators*

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Bachelor</u> (n=13)		<u>Master</u> (n=46)		<u>Doctorate</u> (n=7)	
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Affective Organizational Commitment	3.87	.62	3.92	.78	3.45	.99
Normative Organizational Commitment	3.45	.63	3.22	.90	2.59	1.45
Continuance Organizational Commitment	2.83	.62	2.62	.87	2.50	.89

Table 10

Means and Standard Deviations for Alumni Status of Senior Woman Administrators

<u>Variable</u>	Alumni (n=24)		Non-alumni (n=42)	
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Affective Organizational Commitment	4.24	.56	3.65	.81
Normative Organizational Commitment	3.51	.77	3.03	.99
Continuance Organizational Commitment	2.64	.87	2.66	.81

### **Preliminary Analysis**

Tate (1998) outlined the essential preliminary analyses used to detect missing subjects/data and case analysis. To search for possible violations, the following three assumptions must be met/or not for robust violations: (a) independence, (b) normality, and (c) constant variance.

To detect a violation of the independence assumption a logical analysis was conducted (Tate, 2005). The sampling method also indicated that the sample met the assumption of independence.

To detect violations of normality, frequency distributions were analyzed for each dependent variable and group. Normality was assessed by analyzing a scatter plot and a histogram and its reflection of skewness and kurtois. Scatter plots display the studentized residuals versus the standardized predicted Y values, assessing normal distribution. A scatter plot, or patterns of the residual

plots, reflect normal or non-normal distribution. Bands of points approximately centering the horizontal axis and reflecting approximately equal width over the range of predicted Ys exhibit normal distribution.

A histogram also detects normal or non-normal distribution for continuous data. A histogram displays the distribution of the variables. A normally distributed histogram displays a normal curve, most of the values (68 percent) lie within  $\pm 1$  standard deviation of the mean, 95.5 percent of the values lie within  $\pm 2$  standard deviations of the mean, and 99.7 percent of the values lie  $\pm 3$  standard deviations from the mean.

Kurtosis measures the "peakedness" or "flatness" of the distribution, the normal curve (George & Mallery, 1999). A kurtosis value near zero represents a normal distribution. A positive kurtosis value indicates that the normal curve on the histogram is flatter than normal. A negative kurtosis value indicates that the normal curve on the histogram is more peaked than normal (George & Mallery, 1999). A kurtosis value of  $\pm 1$  is excellent, but values between  $\pm 2$  are acceptable in many cases (George & Mallery, 1999).

Skewness measures the extent to which the values deviate from the mean. A zero represents a normal curve, indicating a balance between the distribution in relation to the mean. A positive skewness indicates many of the values are smaller than the mean. A negative skewness indicates many of the values are larger than the mean. A skewness value between  $\pm 1$  is excellent; however, skewness at values  $\pm 2$  are acceptable.

To detect a violation of constant variance, a Levene's test was conducted. The Levene's test determines the



variance differences for each dependent variable (Tate, 2005). Values over the significant level of .05 meet the assumption. Appendix H displays the histogram and Levene's test for each subscale confirming the assumptions of independence, normality, and constant variance.

## **Results**

### **Research Question 1**

The purpose of research question 1 was to determine if the demographic variables (ethnicity, marital status, current annual salary, age, years in present position, highest degree earned, alumni status) were significantly related to SWAs perceptions of organizational commitment (affective, normative, continuance). The Pearson Product Moment Correlation and point biserial correlation were used to answer research question 1. Tables 11 and 12 display the results of research question 1. The results revealed that the demographic variables of marital status ( $-.28, p < .05$ ), current annual salary ( $.281, p < .05$ ), and age ( $.393, p < .01$ ) were significantly related to SWAs perceptions of affective organizational commitment. The demographic variable of ethnicity ( $.21, p < .05$ ) was significantly related to SWAs perceptions of normative organizational commitment. The demographic variable of alumni status ( $.16, p < .05$ ) was significantly related to continuance organizational commitment.

Table 11

Summary of Pearson Product Moment Correlation Matrix

	<u>Salary</u>	<u>Age</u>	<u>Position</u>	<u>AOC</u>	<u>NOC</u>	<u>COC</u>
Current annual salary	1.00	.529**	.501**	.281*	.120	.039
Age		1.00	.652**	.393**	.052	-.006
Years in present position			1.00	.155	-.064	.063
AOC				1.00	.453**	.069
NOC					1.00	.094
COC						1.00

\*p<.05, \*\* p<.01, \*\*\* p<.001; AOC = affective organizational commitment, NOC = normative organizational commitment, COC = continuance organizational commitment

Table 12

Summary of Point Biserial Correlation Matrix

	<u>Ethnicity</u>	<u>Marital</u>	<u>Degree</u>	<u>Alumni</u>	<u>AOC</u>	<u>NOC</u>	<u>COC</u>
Ethnicity	1.00	--	--	--	.51	.21*	-1.54
Marital status	--	1.00	--	--	-.28*	-1.04	-1.45
Highest degree earned	--	--	1.00	--	-.38	1.49	-.91
Alumni status	--	--	--	1.00	-3.22	-1.99	.16*
AOC					1.00	--	--
NOC						1.00	--
COC						--	1.00

\*p<.05, \*\* p<.01, \*\*\* p<.001; AOC = affective organizational commitment, NOC = normative organizational commitment, COC = continuance organizational commitment

## **Research Question 2**

The purpose of research question 2 was to determine if there were significant differences in the mean scores of SWAs perception of organizational commitment (affective, normative, continuance) according to ethnicity. The one-way MANOVA was used to answer research question 2. The MANOVA procedure utilizing Wilke's lambda indicated no significant differences between the ethnicity categories: Wilkes' lambda .958,  $F(3, .907)$ ,  $p=.44$ .

## **Research Question 3**

The purpose of research question 3 was to determine if there were significant differences in the mean scores of SWAs perception of organizational commitment (affective, normative, continuance) according to marital status. The one-way MANOVA was used to answer research question 3. The MANOVA procedure utilizing Wilke's lambda indicated no significant differences between the marital status categories: Wilkes' lambda .934,  $F(6, .711)$ ,  $p=.64$ .

## **Research Question 4**

The purpose of research question 4 was to determine if there were significant differences in the mean scores of SWAs perception of organizational commitment (affective, normative, continuance) according to highest degree earned. The one-way MANOVA was used to answer research question 4. The MANOVA procedure utilizing Wilke's lambda indicated no significant differences between highest degree earned: Wilkes' lambda .918,  $F(6, .886)$ ,  $p=.51$ .

### **Research Question 5**

The purpose of research question 5 was to determine if there were significant differences in the mean scores of SWAs perception of organizational commitment (affective, normative, continuance) according to alumni status. The one-way MANOVA was used to answer research question 5. The MANOVA procedure utilizing Wilke's lambda indicated significant differences between the alumni status categories: Wilkes' lambda .856,  $F(3, 3.483)$ ,  $p=.021$ , effect size  $=.14$ . The one-way ANOVA was used to determine the differences among the dependent variables (affective, normative, and continuance organizational commitment) and the independent variable of alumni status. The results revealed significant differences between the alumni status categories. The results revealed a significant difference between alumni and non-alumni for affective organizational commitment:  $F(1, 5.318) = 9.917$ ,  $p = .002$ .

The results revealed a significant difference between alumni and non-alumni for normative organizational commitment:  $F(1, 3.507) = 4.133$ ,  $p = .046$ . The results revealed no significant difference between the alumni status of SWAs for continuance organizational commitment:  $F(1, 6.013E-03) = .009$ ,  $p = .926$ .

The results reflected that the means for SWAs alumni status were different, or not similar to each other, for affective and normative organizational commitment. However, results reflected that the means for alumni status were not different, or similar to each other, for continuance organizational commitment.

### Research Question 6

The purpose of research question 6 was to assess the relationship between organizational commitment (affective, normative, continuance) and the demographic variables of current annual salary, age, and years in present position. Table 13 presents the regression results for affective commitment. The overall model was statistically significant ( $F= 4.770$ ,  $p<.01$ ) and  $R=.43$ . The betas were significant for the independent variable of age.

The overall model for Normative Organizational Commitment was not statistically significant ( $F=.869$ ,  $p=.462$ ). The overall model for Continuance Commitment was not statistically significant ( $F=.181$ ,  $p=.909$ ).

Table 13. Regression Results, Affective Organizational Commitment

Model	Unstandardized		Standardized		
	Coefficient		Coefficient		
	B	Std Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(constant)	2.132	.475		4.485	.000
salary	6.603E-06	.000	.149	1.074	.287
age	3.504E-02	.012	.456	2.872	.006
position	-2.139E-02	.015	-.217	-1.396	.168

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, and RECOMMENDATIONS**

The present study used the Organizational Commitment Scale(s) to examine Senior Woman Administrators (SWAs) perceptions of organizational commitment. The Senior Woman Administrator is a relatively new position (1991) that was mandated by the NCAA for member institutions. The NCAA explained that the benefit of having a Senior Woman Administrator was the diversity of a female's perspective in the decision-making process within the athletic department's sport management team. In an effort to assess the progress and continued development of the Senior Woman Administrator position, research must examine all aspects of this population. This study will contribute to the limited literature on Senior Woman Administrators. The remainder of this chapter will be sectioned according to discussion of findings, practical implications, conclusions, limitations, and recommendations.

#### **Discussion of Findings**

The purpose of the present investigation was to examine Senior Woman Administrators perception of organizational commitment. The study assessed the relationship between SWAs perception of organizational commitment and the demographic variables of ethnicity, marital status, current annual salary, age, years in present position, highest degree earned, and alumni status. Meyer and Allen's (1997) theory of organizational commitment suggested that "by understanding when and how

commitments develop and how they shape attitudes and behaviors, organizations will be in a better position to anticipate the impact that change will have and to manage it more effectively" (p. ix). The present investigation provides information on the population of SWAs in NCAA Division IAA universities, as well as insight into SWAs commitment to the organization. The results of this investigation may provide baseline data for the hiring practices of SWAs and the value of SWAs within the organizational structure. The results provide a measuring tool for factors for Human Resource Management to consider in hiring Senior Woman Administrators or athletic personnel.

The research questions guiding this study have been outlined in chapter 1. The discussion of findings will focus on the demographic variables, as set forth by the theoretical framework of Meyer and Allen (1997), to understand SWAs perception of organizational commitment. In discussing the findings of the present study, all variables have been represented; however, emphasis has been placed on variables that were significantly related to SWAs perception of organizational commitment or were found to have significant differences.

### **Research Question 1**

The purpose of research question 1 was to identify if the demographic variables (ethnicity, marital status, current annual salary, age, years in present position, highest degree earned, alumni status) were significantly related to SWAs perception of organizational commitment.

**Ethnicity.** The results revealed that ethnicity was

significantly related to normative organizational commitment (NOC) but not to affective organizational commitment (AOC) or continuance organizational commitment (COC). Similar findings were reported by Taylor (2003). Concerning ethnicity within organizations, Milliken and Martins (1996) stated, "Few organizational studies have examined how diversity based on underlying attributes or nonobservable characteristics such as cultural values affects individuals or groups in the organization" (p. 284). Doherty and Chelladurai (1999) described ethnicity as a part of one's culture. An example is that in addition to one's ethnicity (i.e., African American, Polish American) being a part of one's culture, other cultural characteristics can include religion (e.g., Catholic, Baptist), gender (male, female), age, sexual orientation, physical disability, or other characteristics, such as mother, student, or coach. Lane and DiStefano (1988) believed it would be an "ecological fallacy" and a form of stereotyping to believe that every individual possesses all the characteristics of a particular cultural group. Because individuals may identify themselves with more than one cultural group, they may have diverse values, beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors shared by each culture. Cultural diversity has been shown to have advantages within an organization. However, Doherty and Chelladurai (1999) believed that "the positive or negative impact of cultural diversity is a function of how that diversity is managed" (p.293).

Tsui, Egan, and O'Reilly (1992) concluded in their study that homogeneous groups are more likely to experience higher satisfaction and lower turnover and to outperform heterogeneous groups because individuals interact more with



members with whom they identify. Psychological commitment may be influenced by similarity in demographic characteristics, i.e., ethnicity or gender. Cunningham also supported the influence demographic similarities have on individuals. Cunningham (2006) believed "a high degree of demographic similarity will in turn have a positive influence on subsequent affect, attitudes, and behavior" (p.129).

**Marital Status.** With regard to marital status, results revealed that marital status was significantly related to AOC but not to NOC or COC. Similar results occurred in studies by Huang (2004), Meyer et al. (2001), and Mathieu and Hamel (1989) that found that marital status was positively correlated to organizational commitment. Lee and Maurer (1999) offered a possible explanation for the significance of marital status to organizational commitment. In addition, Lee and Maurer (1999) stated that "sociological evidence suggests that these family characteristics can control its members' behaviors by exerting social pressures and prompting allocation decisions on the time and energy available between work and family" (p. 507). Hrebenick and Hutto (1972) believed married employees were more likely to be committed to their organization than single employees, supporting the results of the present study.

The researcher agrees that marital status may influence SWAs commitment; however, it was hypothesized that marital status would be related to continuance organizational commitment to the organization. Senior Woman Administrators who are married may be more continuance committed to the organization because there is a financial cost associated with moving the family to another location,

a cost of time for relocating, risk of job mobility for dual income households, and a loss of invested time by the SWA and her spouse to their respective organizations.

**Current Annual Salary.** In studies examining salary and organizational commitment, varying results have been found. Results of the present study revealed that current annual salary is significantly related to AOC but not to NOC or COC. Several studies (Al-Kahanti, 2004; Brady, 1997; Ritzer & Trice, 1969; Schneider, 2003) found positive relationships between the level of pay and organizational commitment. Though studies examining the relationship between salary and organizational commitment have shown a stronger correlation to continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997), Foosiri (2002) also found that salary was positively related to affective commitment, not continuance or normative commitment, which remains consistent with the findings of the current study.

In reviewing the mean scores, it can be interpreted that as SWAs salaries increase so does their desire to stay with the university. As organizations acknowledge their expertise and contributions to the success of the organization, SWAs desire to stay may increase. As employment with an organization continues, SWAs invest more of their energy and ideas into obtaining the goals of the organization, which equates to higher affective commitment.

Ironically, current annual salary was not related to continuance organizational commitment even though continuance commitment is based on the cost associated with not remaining with the organization. The researcher was not surprised that current annual salary was significantly related to affective organizational commitment. Salary is seen as a type of acknowledgment. If an SWA sees that her

contributions to the organization are being recognized, monetarily or otherwise, she may feel she is contributing to the goals of the organization, which influences her affective commitment. Likewise, SWAs who feel their contributions are not rewarded at rates similar to the rates of other individuals in their same position may not be as apt to contribute to the organization or work hard to achieve its stated goals. If SWAs compare salaries with other SWAs, they must consider such varying factors as job responsibilities, living expenses per region, type (public or private) of university, strength of contribution from alumni to the university, and the financial strength of the university.

**Age.** The results from prior research revealed a correlation between age and affective organizational commitment (Al-Kahanti, 2004; Brady, 1997; Foosiri, 2002; King, 2002; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002; Schneider, 2003; Steers, 1977), although a few studies (Heinzman, 2004; Huang, 2004) indicated no significant correlation between age and affective commitment. The reasons for a discrepancy in the findings may be in the instrument and sample. The instrument used in the study by Huang (2004) was translated into Chinese. The sample used in the Heinzman (2004) study was a mixed (large and small) sample of a manufacturing firm. It has been hypothesized that organizational characteristics are an antecedent to organizational commitment, which may have altered the findings. Unlike previous studies, the results of the present investigation were for a population designated for women, which may have altered the findings.

Sheldon (1971) stated that the findings might be summarized as indicating that age is an investment and binds one more tightly to the organization. Sheldon also stated that an increase in age also reduces opportunities for inter-organizational mobility. A recent article (Black Enterprise, 2005) reported that companies find older candidates more valuable because they offer a wealth of practical life experiences. In a recent study from the Society for Human Resource Management, "72% of human resource professionals said older workers provide invaluable experience, 69% said they had a stronger work ethic than younger workers, and 68% said they were more reliable" (Black Enterprise, 2005). It may be assumed that younger employees have not fully established self-worth, middle aged employees' behavior is engaged towards stability, and older employees' behavior encourages stability.

The researcher believed that age would be significantly related to SWAs perception of affective organizational commitment and also believed the results would reveal significant differences in the categories of age. It can be assumed that with age comes experience and work ethic, which would increase one's desire to use her knowledge resources to obtain the goals of the organization.

It was surprising to find that SWAs perception of continuance organizational commitment were not related to age. Allen and Meyer (1990) suggested that age would have a stronger positive relationship to continuance commitment than to affective commitment. It can be assumed that as one gets older, she feels her alternatives for employment are

limited and she should stay with their current organization. It can also be assumed that after one has worked for a company for an extended period of time, she feels that by leaving the organization, because of her commitment level, she will forfeit her invested time and livelihood to the organization, as well as personal relationships, retirement, and pension opportunities. Additionally, as individuals age, employment opportunities may become less available.

Overall, older SWAs may feel that they have established their foundations around the organization, have invested time in the organization, and have no sense of leaving the organization because they are emotionally attached. Therefore, they choose to remain in the same organization until retirement.

**Years in Present Position.** A number of studies (Al-Kahtani, 2004; Blackhurst, Brandt, and Kalinowski, 1998; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Sheldon, 1971, Wahn, 1998) have noted that there is a positive relationship between length of time in an organization and organizational commitment. Meyer and Allen (1997) believed the reason for this relationship is that the longer an employee works with an organization, an attachment to the organization occurs which is perceived as affective organizational commitment. However, results of the study revealed there was no significant relationship between years in present position and AOC, NOC, or COC.

King (2002) suggested that one would expect years in present position or tenure to be significantly related to continuance commitment because of the cost of time put into the organization. Results from the study revealed that as

the number of years increased for the SWAs employment at the university, so did their attachment to the university.

The researcher was surprised that the number of years in present position was not found to be significantly related to SWAs perception of affective organizational commitment. The researcher believed that because this variable was highly correlated to age, similar results would be found.

**Highest Degree Earned.** The results of the study revealed that the highest degree earned was not significantly related to AOC, NOC, or COC. Many studies have examined educational level in relationship to organizational commitment, but results have been contradictory. King (2002) found education to be significantly related to affective commitment but not related to normative commitment and continuance commitment.

Research indicated that educated individuals invest their time and effort to advance their careers. Because of their level of training and background, highly educated individuals are in demand and can afford to change organizations based on their needs. Ritzer and Trice (1969) believed that employees with a higher education level may not be as committed to an organization as employees with a lower educational level because they have opportunities to work elsewhere because of their training. Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) believed that individuals with a high educational background have high expectations for their careers and certain organizations may not be able to fulfill those expectations. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) conducted a meta-analysis on the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment and found

that employees with higher levels of education show less commitment to the organization.

Unlike Mathieu and Zajac's (1990) findings, King's (2002) meta-analysis on the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment found the correlation between affective, continuance, normative, and overall commitment and education to be very weak or zero, but a commitment nonetheless. Meyer and Allen (1997) found no consistent relationship between educational level and organizational commitment. Foosiri (2002) found education to relate negatively to organizational commitment. Al-Kahtani's (2004) results revealed education to correlate significantly only in the area of continuance organizational commitment and that education level predicted affective, normative, and overall organizational commitment. Findings from the present investigation were not similar to findings from Brady (1997) and Foosiri (2002) in that education is significantly related to normative organizational commitment.

**Alumni Status.** The researcher found few studies that examined alumni status in respect to organizational commitment, which limits the discussion in relation to prior studies. Brookover (2002) conducted a study assessing the organizational commitment of faculty at Clemson University. Although Brookover (2002) did not examine the relation between the variables, results revealed that alumni had higher levels of attitudinal commitment (affective commitment) than non-alumni. The results of the present study are somewhat similar to Brookover (2002) in that alumni had higher levels of attitudinal commitment, which is highly related to affective commitment to the university.

It was assumed that SWA alumni acquired the goals and values of the university during their undergraduate or graduate experiences. Becoming employees of the university strengthens this attachment and provides opportunities for alumni to give back to the university. Alumni who received a scholarship from the university may also see opportunities for working for the organization as repayment for their acquired knowledge and may feel obligated to the university. The researcher felt one reason for this may be that the SWA felt she owed the university for providing an enriching and knowledgeable experience. Working for the university and successfully achieving its goals may be seen as a type of repayment. In addition to this "repayment," the SWA may have obtained a love for the university and a desire for the university to succeed in reaching its goals, which would explain the relationship to affective commitment.

The results of the present study revealed that alumni status was significantly related to affective and normative organizational commitment. Human resource administrators can use this information in hiring practices, knowing that alumni are significantly more committed than non-alumni to staying with the organization because they are attached to the university and, unfortunately, feel obligated to stay with the university.

## **Research Question 2**

The purpose of research question 2 was to determine if there were significant differences in the mean scores of SWAs perception of organizational commitment (affective, normative, continuance) according to ethnicity. Results found no significant differences in the mean scores of



Caucasian SWAs and Minority SWAs. However, the mean scores for AOC and COC were higher for Caucasians than for Minorities, while the mean scores for NOC among Caucasians and Minorities were the same. Results from prior studies revealed mixed findings in terms of differences in commitment level based on ethnicity (Brady, 1997; Sagas & Cunningham, 2004; Tsui, Eagan and O'Reilly, 1992). Sagas and Cunningham (2004) and Tsui et al. (1992) focused on the self-categorization theory that explains that individuals who are different from the larger group have lower organizational attachment, which may be a consequence of "(1) social isolation and lower interpersonal attraction due to attitudinal differences associated with demographic dissimilarity, and (2) incongruence stemming from one's self-categorization of the group and it's actual demographic composition" (Tsui, Egan, and O'Reilly, 1992, p. 554.)

The researcher agreed with the findings of the current study: ethnicity may not have a bearing on how committed an SWA is to her organization. Even so, ethnicity was examined because it is a primary demographic characteristic. Ethnicity was also examined due to its identification in employment applications. Although applicants are told that they will not be discriminated against by employers because of their ethnicity or race, employees must be reassured that this characteristic is not related to the commitment a future SWA will have to the organization.

### **Research Question 3**

The purpose of research question 3 was to determine if there were significant differences in the mean scores of SWAs perceptions of organizational commitment (affective,

normative, continuance) according to marital status. The results of the study revealed no significant difference in the mean scores of SWAs perception of AOC, NOC, and COC according to marital status. These findings were similar to Brady (1997).

Turner and Chelladurai (2005) found a significant difference between the mean scores of married women coaches and single women coaches. The results of this study agreed with the Turner and Chelladurai (2005) study in that single women had a higher mean score than married women for affective commitment (only scale reported) but did not support the finding that there was a significant difference between the different marital statuses.

Different findings may be attributed to the different classification of married (married and domestic partner) and single (single divorced, widowed). Turner and Chelladurai (2005) based their grouping on "the notion that the responsibilities associated with being committed to others would lessen an individual's commitment to the organization" (p.207) whereas the classification in the current study was based on legal terminology.

Brookover (2002) found marital status had no difference in attitudinal commitment, was highly related to affective commitment and behavioral commitment, and highly related to continuance commitment. King (2002) found no significant differences in the scores of faculty on the ACS, NCS, and CCS in relation to organizational commitment.

#### **Research Question 4**

The purpose of research question 7 was to determine if there were significant differences in the mean scores of SWAs' perceptions of organizational commitment (affective,

normative, continuance) according to highest degree earned. The findings from the present study revealed that SWAs with a doctorate degree disagreed with items indicating they had no other job alternatives and needed to stay with the university.

This finding may be explained by the theories of Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) and Ritzer (1982) that individuals with a high education or advanced degrees have more career options than those with general degrees. Employees with higher degrees are less likely to be committed to an organization because their obligation is not to the organization but to themselves. Employees with higher degrees feel they have made an investment in themselves and seek the highest return for their investment. If an organization has not met their needs and/or expectations as employees, employees become less committed and may subsequently leave to find an organization that fulfills their needs. With increased career options and a better educational level, these individuals can choose to work for organizations that meet their (changing) needs even if it entails changing organizations.

The findings of the current study revealed no significant differences in SWAs perception of organizational commitment according to highest degree earned. It can be interpreted that educational status does not "totally" dictate how and why SWAs are committed to their organizations.

#### **Research Question 5**

The purpose of research question 8 was to determine if there were significant differences in the mean scores of

SWAs perception of organizational commitment (affective, normative, continuance) according to alumni status. Results revealed a significant difference in SWAs' perceptions of affective and normative organizational commitment according to alumni status. The findings concerning why alumni mean scores were significantly different from non-alumni mean scores can be attributed to the same reasons as why alumni status is related to organizational commitment: Alumni have more of a historical attachment to the organization.

### **Research Question 6**

The purpose of research question 9 was to assess the relationships between organizational commitment (affective, normative, continuance) and the demographic variables of current annual salary, age, and years in present position. The results of the present investigation are similar to findings by Foosiri (2002). The results indicated that age was a predictor of Affective Organizational Commitment. Results showed that as SWAs increased in age, so did their perception of affective organizational commitment. An explanation for age being a predictor of Affective Organizational Commitment can be concluded by Allen and Meyer's (1993) "maturity explanation" in that as people get older they become more committed. Frauenhoffer (1998) also suggested that older employees view their work experience more positively than younger employees. Studies (Foosiri, 2002; Huang; 2004) suggest that age would predict continuance commitment in that older employees had more invested in the organization (seniority, status, personal relationships). These findings were not supported in the present investigation.

## **Practical Implications**

According to Buchanan (1974), organizational commitment is a prerequisite for the success of an organization. Meyer, Bobocel, and Allen (1991) stated employees who have higher levels of behavioral commitment (or continuance commitment) become complacent and do what they have to or work at a level to maintain employment. Organizations should concentrate on developing affective organizational commitment because of its desired consequences of better performance (Angle & Lawson, 1994; Meyer, Allen, and Smith, 1993; Meyer, Paunoen, Gellatly, Goffin, and Jackson, 1989; Somers, 1993; Somers & Birnbaum, 1998), lower organizational turnover (Angle & Perry, 1981; Lubich, 1997; Nah, 1997; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983; Somers, 1995), and lower absenteeism (Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Somers, 1995). Meyer and Allen (1997) stated, "Employees with strong affective commitment to the organization work harder at their jobs and perform them better than do those with weak commitment" (p. 28).

The reason employees with higher affective organizational commitment perform better than those with lower affective organizational commitment is because they have a desire to contribute to the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Although normative organizational commitment also has the desired outcome of on-the-job behaviors, employees are only committed because they have a sense of obligation instead of a desire to contribute to the organization. Organizations should avoid fostering continuance organizational commitment because employees who have higher levels of behavioral commitment (or continuance commitment) become complacent and do what they have to or

work at a level to maintain employment (Meyer, Bobocel, and Allen, 1991).

Studies should be conducted to better understand the commitment process in order to develop committed employees who can obtain organizational goals. Organizations should strive to develop and maintain employees' commitment because employees with high commitment levels identify with the organization and work harder to achieve organizational goals, whereas uncommitted employees can be a danger to innovation and a threat to achieving organizational goals. Also, the weak bond may lead to turnover, which may cause a disruption in the organizational climate.

Doherty and Chelladurai (1999) concluded that diversity (i.e., age, gender, race, ethnic background, religion, sexual orientation, physical ability, marital and parental status) is increasing in the general workforce. "Because sport organizations are not immune to the influence of environmental changes, increasing diversity can be expected in these organizations" (Doherty & Chelladuria, 1999, p. 281).

The Civil Rights Act of 1964 Title VII mandates equal employment opportunity advancing diversity in the workplace. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 Title VII states:

- (a) It shall be unlawful employment practice for an employer-
  - (1) to fail or refuse to hire or to discharge any individual, or otherwise to discriminate against any individual with respect to his compensation, terms, conditions, or privileges of employment, because of such individual's race, color, religion, sex, or national origin; or
  - (2) limit, segregate, or classify his employees or applicants for employment in any way which would deprive or tend to deprive any individual of employment opportunities or otherwise adversely affect his status as an employee, because of such

individual's race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. (Alexander & Alexander, 1992, p. 847)

Due to the Civil Rights Act, the Age Discrimination Act, and the Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990, human resource management cannot discriminate based on ethnicity and age, which were examined in the present study. However, human resource management and/or administrators hiring SWAs should note that a significant difference in the commitment of Minorities and Caucasians was not found for SWAs of NCAA Division IAA universities. In reference to age, a significant difference was found between age categories for affective organizational commitment, but work experience—not particularly in intercollegiate athletics—may exhibit the same relationship towards organizational commitment.

The study revealed that SWAs in the lowest current annual salary category did not equally agree with the items on the ACS. Given this information, organizations may want to recognize SWAs contributions through rewards. Administrators should communicate expectations and human resource management practices, such as pay level, merit system, fringe benefits, and career development, to SWAs.

The study implies that SWAs who have worked more than five years have a higher agreement with the affective organizational commitment items than those who have worked less than five years. An orientation program within the athletic department for new hires may assist newly hired (>5 years) SWAs to become more committed to the university and department. An orientation program which focuses on the background and history, mission and goals, accomplishments, policies, and values of the university and athletic department may help SWAs quickly feel attached to the

university through hearing about the university from a representative of the university. SWAs may feel as if they have become a part of an organization, or family, working together to reach its goals.

### **Conclusion**

Although the NCAA has provided women a guaranteed opportunity to enter the intercollegiate athletic administration arena, further steps must be taken to clarify definitions and roles. Tiell (2005a) advocated that the NCAA eliminate the Senior Woman Administrator title from the bylaws and an "amendment should stipulate that every intercollegiate athletic department sponsoring women's sports must make a concerted effort to have a female on staff who occupies a formal position on the senior management team" (p.1). Tiell (2005) further stated that the phrase "make a concerted effort" should be replaced with "required."

This amendment would offset the confusion of the role and responsibilities of the SWA. With this amendment, a Senior Woman Administrator would be highest ranked on the sport management team and not simply the "highest-ranking female administrator involved with the conduct of a member institution's intercollegiate athletics program" (NCAA Manual, 2004, p. 22). With the present definition, a female serving as the Sports Information Director or Director of Academic Advisement could be the highest ranked female involved with the conduct of the intercollegiate athletics program but not have the decision-making authority needed to serve appropriately as SWA despite being considered the SWA according to definition. However, according to the proposed amendment by Tiell, the various administration



positions defined by the NCAA (Appendix Q) would not qualify as Senior Woman Administrator without the decision-making authority capabilities.

Tiell's proposed amendment mandates that only institutions sponsoring women's sports have a female on the sport management team, eliminating a guaranteed opportunity for women to serve on the sport management team of institutions not sponsoring women's sports. However, with this proposed amendment, future litigation may arise because of failing or refusing to hire males because of their gender.

Another confusing aspect of the title and definition of Senior Woman Administrator is that the position should be held by a woman, hence Senior Woman Administrator. At the time of data collection, there were two males serving as SWAs. According to Rosie Stallman, the NCAA Director of Education Outreach, a female athletic director may appoint a male to serve as the SWA (personal communication, August 21, 2004). A male serving as the SWA contradicts the current definition of Senior Woman Administrator. Judith Sweet, the NCAA Senior Woman Administrator/Senior Vice President of Championships and Education Services, stated that the intent of the position is for a female to be included in the administration and leadership of intercollegiate athletics but that the NCAA does not mandate that a female athletic director appoint a female to this position. However, the title would indicate that a woman should fulfill this position (personal communication, June 20, 2006).

Judith Sweet said that if the NCAA becomes aware of a male serving in the position of SWA, the NCAA would communicate with the institution in an effort to have a

woman appointed to the position. As it stands, the title of Senior Woman Administrator is contradictory in that a male may serve as SWA.

In addition to the contradictory title of the position, the researcher was also informed that the institution has control of the duties and responsibilities of the SWA. If an athletic department has only one female working in the department and she happens to be the ticket manager, she could, for definition purposes, be designated the SWA because she would be the highest-ranked female within the athletic department. Institutional control dictates if the SWA has or does not have the power outlined in the Senior Woman Administrator Brochure (NCAA, 2005). The brochure indicates that the SWA should act as a key decision maker and participate on the sport management team; but according to Judith Sweet, these are only guidelines for the institution. It is stated that SWAs would give intercollegiate athletics a female perspective on issues and act as role models for female student athletes and coaches.

According to Judith Sweet, the NCAA has proposed a change in the definition of the Senior Woman Administrator. The proposed definition states, "An institutional senior woman administrator is the highest ranking female involved with the **management** (emphasis added) of a member institution's intercollegiate athletics program." An additional proposal change reads, "An institution with a female director of athletics may designate a different female administrator involved with the management of the member's program as a fifth representative to the NCAA governance system." The intent of the proposed changes is

to ensure female administrators have active involvement on member institutions' athletic management teams.

The position has helped to break the barrier of the glass ceiling allowing more females (at least one per NCAA member institution) to serve as administrators within intercollegiate athletics. Lemons (2003) stated that providing more role models and providing mentors for females may help to break the glass ceiling as well.

A longitudinal study by Acosta and Carpenter (2006) showed that the lack of female administrators in women's athletic programs has decreased from 31.6 percent in 1984 to 14.5 percent in 2006, but studies have not shown that there is any relationship to the Senior Woman Administrator/Primary Woman Administrator position. Concerted efforts must now be made to ensure that qualified women not only serve as administrators within intercollegiate athletics but have decision-making authority as well.

### **Limitations of the Study**

The following limitations of the present investigation must be considered when interpreting the results. The small sample size and characteristics (female) of the current sample may have influenced results.

1. The results of the study may be subject to response bias. The results of the study may not truly reflect all Senior Woman Administrators of NCAA Division IAA institutions. Because the entire population did not return questionnaires, results only reflect the commitment to the organization by those who responded.

2. The responses to the self-reported questionnaire may have been subjected to social desirability. Social desirability may have occurred when participants responded to questions and/or descriptors the way they thought the researcher wanted them to respond.
3. The correlate of job satisfaction has been found to have a relationship to organizational commitment. This study did not assess the correlate of job satisfaction and the effect it may have on the organizational commitment of respondents.
4. The respondents may have completed the questionnaire during a part of the year that was overwhelming, during a heavy season, or during a "down time." The time in which the respondents completed the questionnaire may have influenced their commitment to the organization.
5. Organizations experience ongoing restructuring to accomplish the mission and goals of each department. Restructuring may be the result of a new administration or a change or addition to responsibility and duties. If respondents experienced a recent or current restructuring in their organizations, that may have influenced their organizational commitment.

### **Recommendations**

Future studies may compare the commitment of Senior Woman Administrators across the different levels within the NCAA. This study may provide insight on the impact of the organizational structure (i.e. size of institution, number of sports, support of fans) in relation to organizational commitment.

Qualitative studies are needed in all fields to explain or give meaning to results. A qualitative study would give explanation to Senior Woman Administrators commitment to the organization. A qualitative study would also provide insight on the consequences of organizational commitment for Senior Woman Administrators. Because the goals of athletic departments vary (generate finance, winning teams), a qualitative study will give indication of particular goals being met and the commitment level of the Senior Woman Administrators. In addition, information of the antecedents can be explored by gathering information on the entire multidimensional model.

To explore the effects of increases in salary, age, and years in position in relation to organizational commitment, the researcher suggests longitudinal studies. A longitudinal study examining the relationship between organizational commitment and the demographic variables used in the present study would confirm that age is a predictor of Affective Organizational Commitment. A longitudinal study would also give insight into the continuous variables of salary and years in present position over time or deny that the level of organizational commitment, particularly affective and continuance organizational commitment, increases over time due to age and/or organizational tenure.

**APPENDIX A**

**APPROVAL FROM HUMAN SUBJECTS COMMITTEE**



Office of the Vice President For Research Human Subjects Committee  
Tallahassee, Florida 32306-2763  
(850) 644-8633. FAX (850) 644-4392

**REAPPROVALMEMORANDUM**

Date: 6/8/2005

To:

Donya Andrews-Little 3453 Exmouth Lane Tallahassee, FL 32317

Sports Management. Recreation Management, and Physical Education

From: Thomas L. Jacobson, Chair

Reapproval of Use of Human subjects in Research:  
Organizational Commitment of Senior Woman Administrators

Dept.

Re:

Your request to continue the research project listed above involving human subjects has been approved by the Human Subjects Committee. If your project has not been completed by 6/23/2006 please request renewed approval.

You are reminded that a change in protocol in this project must be approved by resubmission of the project to the Committee for approval. Also, the principal investigator must report to the Chair promptly, and in writing, any unanticipated problems involving risks to subjects or others.

By copy of this memorandum, the Chairman of your department and/or your major professor are reminded of their responsibility for being informed concerning research projects involving human subjects in their department. They are advised to review the protocols of such investigations as often as necessary to insure that the project is being conducted in compliance with our institution and with DHHS regulations.

Cc: Jerome Quarterman HSC No. 2005.425-R

**APPENDIX B**

**APPROVAL TO USE INSTRUMENT**

~'m\_~ **TheIJNIVER 8m ofWESI~~IW ONTAiilO**  
*Faculty of Social Science. Department of Psychology*

May 3, 2004

Ms Donya Andrews-Little 3453 Exmouth Lane Tallahassee, Fl. 32317

Dear Ms Andrews-Little

As requested, please be advised that you have my permission to use the Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment Scales for research purposes. Please properly cite the relevant paper in your thesis. When you have completed your research, I would very much appreciate hearing about your findings.

Good luck with your project!

Sincerely,



Natalie J. Allen, PhD Professor

## APPENDIX C

### QUESTIONNAIRE COVER LETTER

August 3, 2005

Dear Senior Woman Administrator,

My name is Donya Andrews-Little and I am a doctoral student in the Sport Management program at Florida State University. I am in process of conducting a research study on the organizational commitment of Senior Woman Administrators at NCAA member institutions. As a graduate student and potential researcher in the field of sport management, I am asking you to participate in this research study examining this most relevant topic. Your input is critical in assisting me with this study.

It should take no more than 15 minutes to complete this questionnaire. Your responses on the questionnaire will be anonymous. All returned questionnaires will be kept confidential and stored in a locked file cabinet. You may withdraw from the study at any point and may refuse to answer any questionnaire items that make you feel uncomfortable. There are no correct or incorrect responses to any of the questionnaire items.

The results of this investigation will be used for the development of my doctoral dissertation and possible publications in national peer reviewed journals. Your responses will assist in developing a more scientific knowledge base for teaching and research in the new and emerging field of sport management.

Your cooperation and participation in my study will be greatly appreciated. By filling out this questionnaire, you are giving your consent to participate in this study. If you have any questions or concerns about the research study, please call me at (850) 402-1444 or e-mail me at [donyalittle@hotmail.com](mailto:donyalittle@hotmail.com). Also you may contact my academic advisor, Dr. Jerome Quarterman at Florida State University. He can be reached at (850) 644-9560 or e-mailed at [quarter@coe.fsu.edu](mailto:quarter@coe.fsu.edu). If you have questions about your rights as a subject/participant in this research, or if you feel you have been placed at risk, you can contact the Chair of the Human Subjects Committee at (850) 644-8673.

All questionnaires will be kept confidential by the primary researcher to the extent allowed by law. The questionnaires will be kept in a locked file cabinet. Only the researcher will have access to the cabinet. A numbering system will be used only for mailing and for the researcher to analyze the data. After the study is completed, all questionnaires will be destroyed. I do plan to publish the results in Scholarly publication; however, only aggregated data will be published.

Please complete and return the survey in the enclosed stamped envelope by August 25, 2005. I thank you in advance for your participation.

Sincerely,

Donya Andrews-Little  
Graduate Student  
Florida State University



APPENDIX D

DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY

<b>Section I</b>	<b>Demographic Characteristics</b>
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(No individual or institution will be identified in this scientific study.)  
(all responses will be kept confidential by the researcher.)

Please answer the following statements by placing a check or response:

1. Gender (check one): Male \_\_\_\_\_ Female \_\_\_\_\_
2. Ethnicity (check one): African-American \_\_\_\_\_ Native American \_\_\_\_\_ Hispanic \_\_\_\_\_  
Asian/Pacific Islander \_\_\_\_\_ Caucasian \_\_\_\_\_ Other (specify) \_\_\_\_\_
3. Marital status (check one): Married \_\_\_\_\_ Divorced \_\_\_\_\_ Separated \_\_\_\_\_  
Single \_\_\_\_\_ Widowed \_\_\_\_\_ Domestic partner \_\_\_\_\_
4. Current annual salary .....
5. Age .....
6. Total year of work experience in intercollegiate athletics .....
7. Number of years in present position .....
8. Number of years as Senior Woman Administrator .....
9. Earned Degrees  

	Year Awarded	Major (specify)
Bachelor's Degree	_____	_____
Master's Degree	_____	_____
Doctorate Degree	_____	_____
Other (specify)	_____	_____
10. To what administrative position do you report \_\_\_\_\_
11. Are you an alumnus of the current university for which you are employed Yes\_\_ No\_\_
12. Did you compete in athletics for the organization you are currently employed Yes\_\_ No\_\_
13. Which of the following best describes your current status as an employee?  
Full time faculty .....  
Part time faculty .....  
Full time staff (no teaching responsibilities) .....  
Full time coach (no teaching responsibilities) .....

**APPENDIX E**

**ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT SCALE**

<b>Section II</b>		<b>Organizational Commitment to the</b>		Please indicate your feelings		
towards the university by circling the appropriate numbers on the right hand side of each descriptor.		Of the 18 descriptors, <i>RANK</i> them	from 1= most important to 18= least important			
agree		AND		5= strongly		
4= somewhat agree						
3= undecided						
2= somewhat disagree						
1= strongly disagree						
5	4	3	2	1	This <i>university</i> has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	#
5	4	3	2	1	I would be happy to spend the rest of my career in this <i>university</i> .	#
5	4	3	2	1	I do not feel like “part of the family” at my <i>university</i> .	#
5	4	3	2	1	I really feel as if this <i>university</i> problems are my own.	#
5	4	3	2	1	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my <i>university</i> .	#
5	4	3	2	1	I do not feel “emotionally attached” to this <i>university</i> .	#
5	4	3	2	1	I would feel guilty if I left my <i>university</i> now.	#
5	4	3	2	1	This <i>university</i> deserves my loyalty.	#
5	4	3	2	1	I owe a great deal to my university.	#
5	4	3	2	1	I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.	#
5	4	3	2	1	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my <i>university</i> now.	#
5	4	3	2	1	I would not leave my <i>university</i> right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	#
5	4	3	2	1	It would be very hard for me to leave my <i>university</i> right now, even if I wanted to.	#
5	4	3	2	1	I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this <i>university</i> .	#
5	4	3	2	1	If I had not already put so much of myself into the <i>university</i> , I might consider working elsewhere.	#
5	4	3	2	1	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this <i>university</i> would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	#
5	4	3	2	1	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my <i>university</i> right now.	#
5	4	3	2	1	Right now, staying with my <i>university</i> is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	#

APPENDIX F

PANEL OF EXPERTS  
(returned packets)

Dr. Steve Chandler  
Department of Health Physical Education and Recreation  
Florida A&M University  
Tallahassee, Florida

Dr. Brian Hickey  
Department of Health Physical Education and Recreation  
Florida A&M University  
Tallahassee, Florida

Dr. Sarah Price  
Department of Health Physical Education and Recreation  
Florida A&M University  
Tallahassee, Florida

Dr. Denethia Sellers  
Department of Health Physical Education and Recreation  
Florida A&M University  
Tallahassee, Florida

## APPENDIX G

### MEANS and STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR THE ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT SCALES

Participants were asked to rank each item on the three scales for Organizational Commitment using the following scale: 5=*strongly agree*, 4=*somewhat agree*, 3=*undecided*, 2=*somewhat disagree*, 1=*strongly disagree*.

Table 19

*Means and Standard Deviations for Affective Commitment Scale, Normative Commitment Scale, and Continuance Commitment Scale of Senior Woman Administrators*

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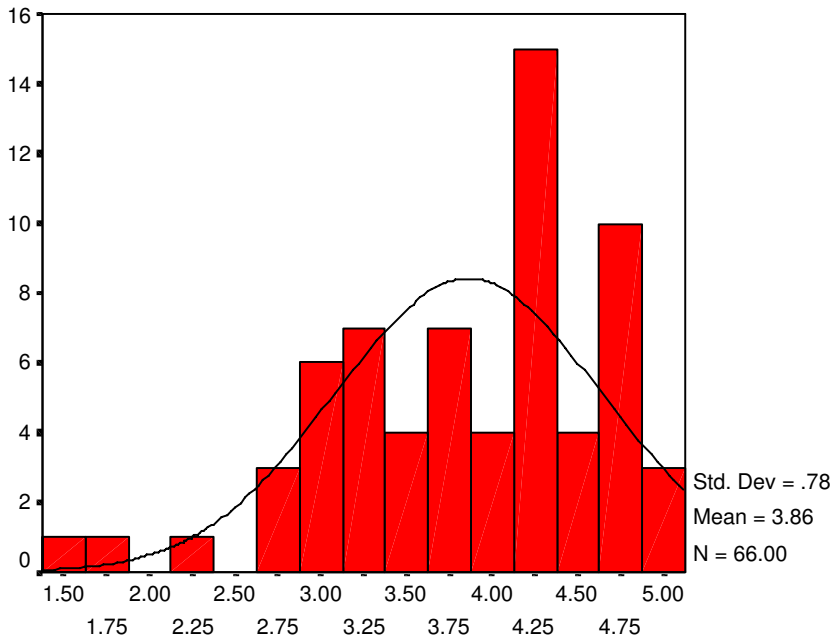
Item	Mean (SD)	n	Range	Median
Affective Commitment Scale	3.85(.76)	66	3.00	4.00
Normative Commitment Scale	3.42 (.85)	66	4.00	4.00
Continuance Commitment Scale	2.65 (.82)	66	4.00	5.00

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APPENDIX H

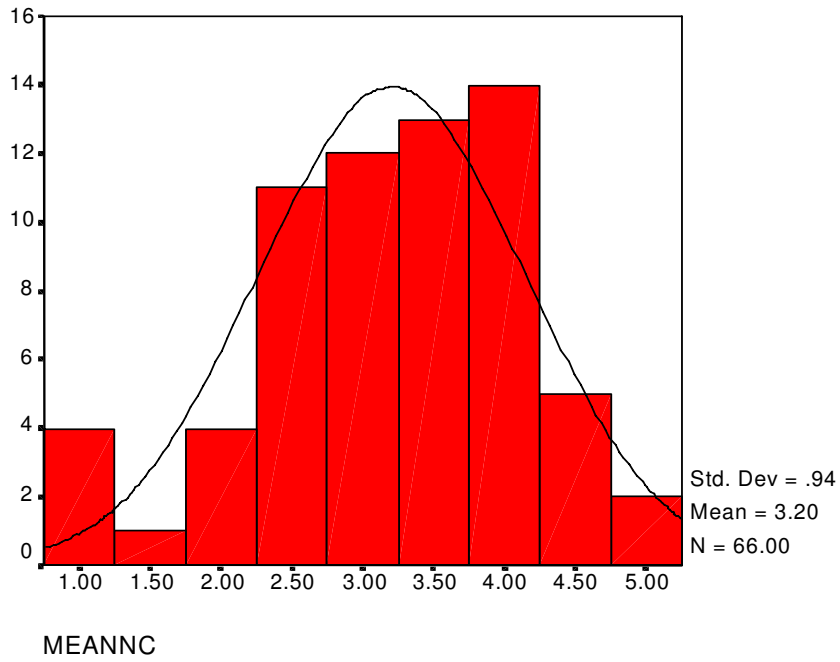
Histograms of Organizational Commitment Scales

Histograms of Affective Organizational Commitment

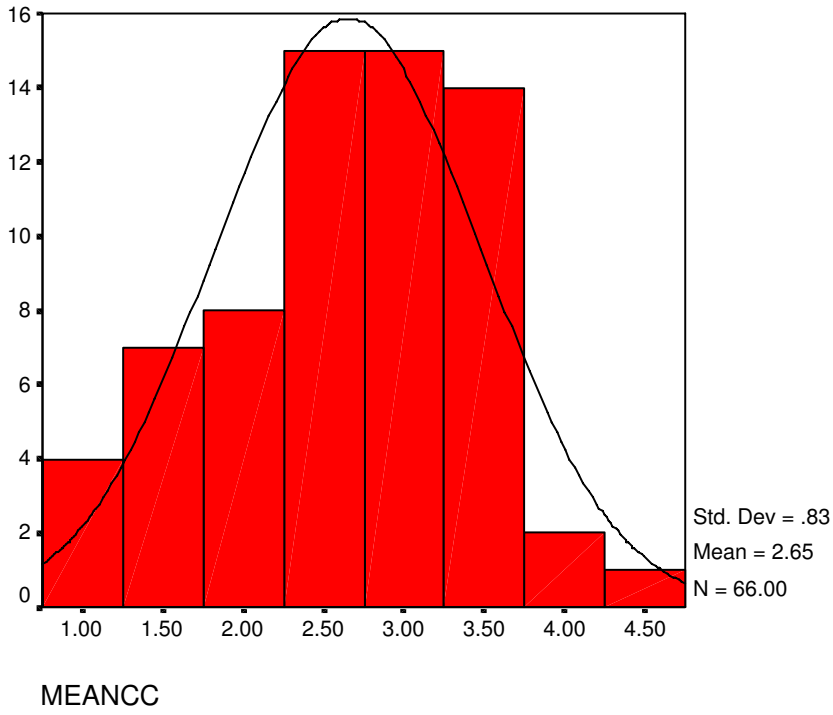


MEANAC

### Histograms of Normative Commitment



### Histograms of Continuance Commitment



**APPENDIX I**

**Levene Scores of Organizational Commitment Scales**

*Table 20*

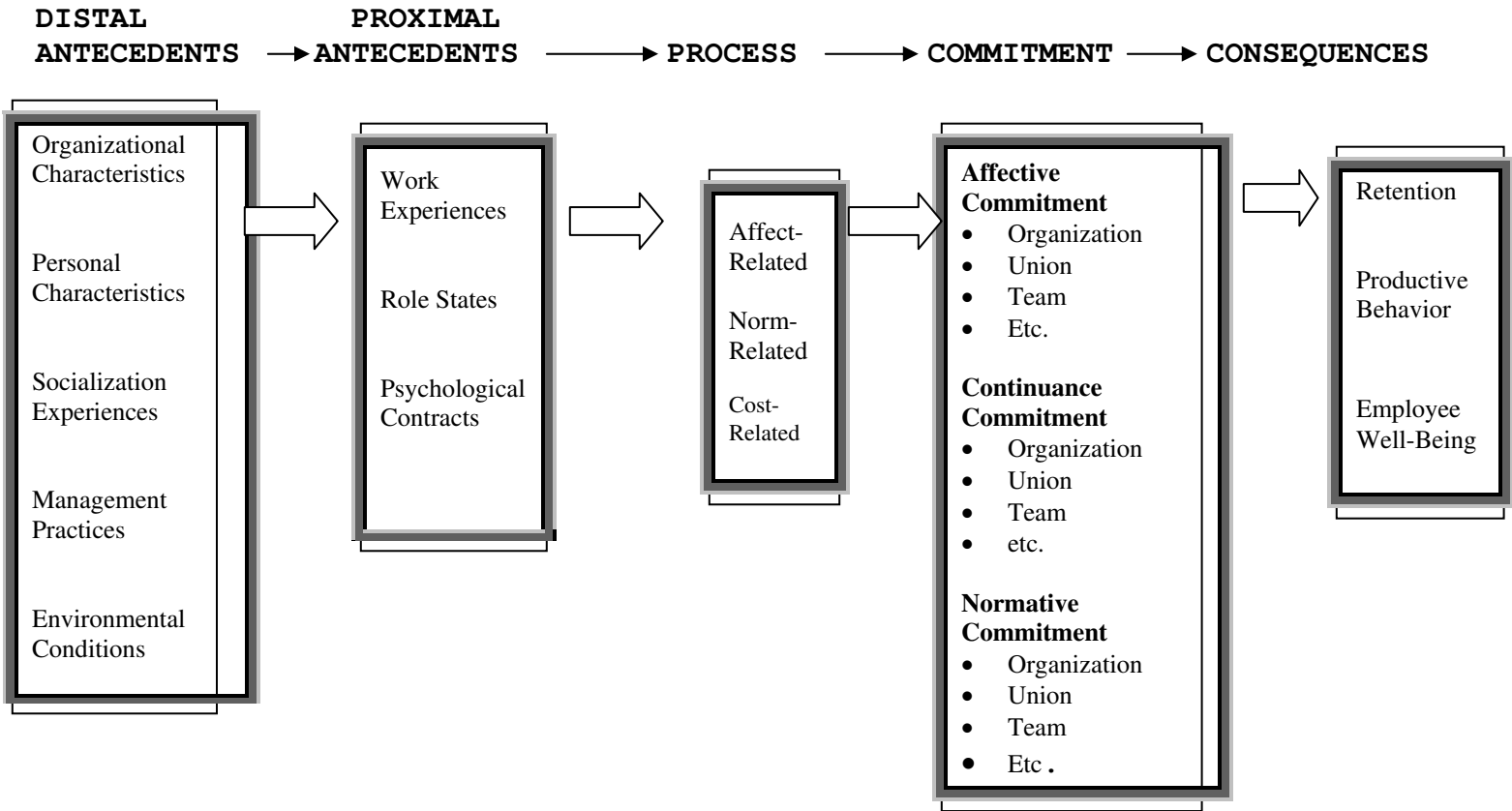
*Levene Scores for Affective Commitment Scale, Normative Commitment Scale, and Continuance Commitment Scale according to Demographic Variables*

Demographic Variable	Affective Organizational Commitment	Normative Organizational Commitment	Continuance Organizational Commitment
Ethnicity	.07	.73	.45
Marital status	.22	.91	.70
Current annual Salary	.15	.29	.60
Age	.34	.98	.98
Years in present Position	.28	.86	.17
Highest degree Earned	.33	.09	.08
Alumni status	.05	.45	.95



APPENDIX J

MODEL OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT



A multidimensional model of organizational commitment, its antecedents, and its consequences (Meyer and Allen, 1997).

## **APPENDIX K**

### **ATHLETIC ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF**

According to the NCAA, the athletic administrative staff includes the following positions:

Director of Athletics  
Associate Director of Athletics  
Assistant Director of Athletics  
Senior Woman Administrator  
Administrative Assistant  
Academic Advisor/Counselor  
Business Manager  
Compliance Coordinator/Officer  
Equipment Manager  
Fundraiser/Development Manager  
Facility Manager  
Faculty Athletic Representative  
Promotions/Marketing Manager  
Sports Information Director  
Assistant or Associate Director of Sports Information  
Strength Coach  
Ticket Manager  
Head Athletic Trainer  
Assistant or Associate Athletic Trainer

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**Doctor of Philosophy Degree**, Sport Management, Florida State University, Tallahassee, Florida, 2007

**Master of Education Degree**, Counselor Education, Florida A&M University, Tallahassee, Florida, 1993

**Bachelor of Science Degree**, Elementary Education, Florida A&M University, Tallahassee, Florida, 1991

### **PROFESSIONAL EXPERINCE**

#### **Teacher**

**Florida A&M University**, Tallahassee, Florida

*Guest Lecturer*, Sports/Leisure Facilities Management (multiple sections), spring 2005

*Guest Lecturer*, Health and Modern Living, spring 2003

*Guest Lecturer*, Track and Field Class, spring 2003

*Guest Lecturer*, Track and Field Class, spring 2002

**National Youth Sport Program**, Tallahassee, Florida,

*Instructor*, Alcohol and Drug Prevention, summer 2002

#### **Coach**

**Florida A&M University**, Tallahassee, Florida

*Head Cross Country, and Track and Field Coach*, 1999-2005

*Assistant Cross Country, and Track and Field Coach*, 1998-1999

*Graduate Assistant Cross Country, and Track and Field Coach*, 1992-1994

**National Youth Sports Program**, Tallahassee, Florida

*Soccer Coach*, summer(s) 1991-1993

*Track and Field Coach*, summer(s) 1994-1997, 1999, 2001

**Dixie Hollins High School**, St. Petersburg, Florida

*Head Boys Track and Field Coach*, 1996-1998

**Lake Vista Community Center**, St. Petersburg, Florida  
*Recreation coach*, summer 1994

**Counselor**

**Middle Ridge Elementary School**, Covington, Georgia,  
*Guidance Counselor*, 2006-present

**Apalachee Elementary School**, Tallahassee, Florida  
*Assistant Guidance Counselor*, 2006

**Woodlawn Elementary School**, St. Petersburg, Florida  
*Guidance Counselor*, 1995-1998

**Garrison-Jones Elementary School**, Clearwater, Florida  
*Guidance Counselor*, 1994-1995

**Administrative**

**National Youth Sports Program**, Tallahassee, Florida  
*Liaison Officer*, summer(s) 2003, 2004

**Martin Luther King Christian Academy**, San Jose, California  
*Assistant Director*, 1986-1988