Job Satisfaction and Job-Related Stress among NCAA Division II Athletic Directors in

Historically Black Colleges and Universities

by

Linda Jean Bell

MBA, University of Phoenix, 2005

BS, St. Paul's College, 1996

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

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Abstract

The role of collegiate athletic directors has evolved from an honor granted to a successful coach at the end of their career to a multi-dimensional administrator with a robust business emphasis. Long-term employment at a single institution is not far-reaching, and the turnover rate for current athletic directors is perceived to be of concern. Job-related stress associated with athletic directors' positions is considered a contributing factor to the turnover issue. This study investigated the alignment between motivation and hygiene factors and job demands-control. It sought an understanding of the job-related stress experienced by athletic directors currently serving in the NCAA Division II HBCU conference Southern Intercollegiate Athletic Conference (SIAC), and the Central Intercollege Athletic Association (CIAA). Understanding the relationships between motivation-hygiene factors and job demand control and athletic directors' job-related stress is foundational for decreasing experienced job-related stress, thus extending professionals' tenure in these positions. This study was guided by Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory and Karasek's job-demand framework, which are prominent in organizational motivation and job-related stress research. They conceptualize job-rated stress as a predictor for job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and staff turnover. This study used a qualitative approach and phenomenological methodology. Participants were eight current working collegiate athletic directors with the SIAC and CIAA. Four themes were developed from the study: shared responsibility, empowering staff, limited resources to grow facilities and limited female participation. These were confirmed through semi-structured interviews.

The results from the participants' lived experiences indicated that both motivation-hygiene and job control demand factors predict the frequency of experienced job-related stress. Based on the results, recommendations for practicing and future athletic directors are presented.

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DEDICATION

To my daughters, Nia Bell and Lani Bell-Parker, I pray you to strive to give your best in everything you do. Effort does not cost you anything. I love you, and I pray you strive to make a great impression on the world.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

According to Beehr (1995, p. 10), job stress can be defined as "a situation in which some characteristics of the work condition are thought to cause poor psychological or physical health, or to cause risk factors making poor health more likely." For Judge (2009), stress can be considered a natural response for sports organizations, given the growing pressures originating from the financial aspects of sports, outside media, parental demands, and inquiry into athletic matters by numerous constituents. Unpleasant working conditions may cause turnover, burnout, inadequacy, and medical problems. Conversely, the appropriate management of stress at work equates to quality of life as well as quality of work production (Burton et al., 2006).

One position exposed to high levels of stress is that of the interscholastic athletic director. Railey and Tschauner (1993) argued that athletic directors (ADs) are more subject to stress than other employees in sports organizations because their occupation requires critical thinking. The AD's job can be motivating and overwhelming because of the everyday challenges and stressful situations faced in the workplace (Judge, 2009).

Background of the Problem

Psychosocial demands within the workplace have expanded drastically, adding to the risk of stress among staff (Sauter & Murphy, 1995; Rskaya, 2002). Studies have shown that administrative professionals' prolonged exposure to job-related pressures commonly results in burnout, manifested in the form of maladaptive reactions. These reactions include exhaustion, hostility, sickness, low efficiency, and emotional and physical withdrawal from the workplace (Burke & Greenglass, 1991; Greenglass, 1991;

Schaufeli et al., 1993; Ryska, 2002). Interscholastic ADs are exposed to particularly high feelings of anxiety and stress. Athletic administrators are powerless to avoid high-pressure situations, with Railey and Tschauner (1993) arguing that ADs are more likely to experience stress than other specialists because of the critical thinking skills required of them. Ryska (2002) suggested that the job demands of athletic personnel might generate higher stress levels than individuals found in other professions involving a high degree of interpersonal interaction.

Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) are higher learning institutions with varying demographics in attendance (Ryska, 2002). The present qualitative study uses a comprehensive analysis of athletic administrators at HBCUs to assess their job experiences. Differences in the administrators' experiences are related to different stressors that they face on the job. In other words, the potential reasons for contrasts among administrators' positions at various institutions are factors related to job-related stress and job satisfaction. Identifying these factors may allow researchers and athletic administrators to address and ameliorate the negative aspects of ADs' jobs. The research provides a better understanding of ADs' work environment to increase profitability and bind together athletic departments by shedding light on the managerial strategies needed to create successful college athletic programs at HBCUs.

Problem Statement

Historically Black Colleges and Universities receive resources for recruitment efforts, facility maintenance, advertising, program sustainability, and other initiatives related to their athletic programs. However, the distribution of these resources remains

unbalanced across the various institutions (Cheeks, 2016). The lack of resources adds to the stress experienced by athletic administrators at HBCUs when performance expectations for them parallel expectations for their counterparts (Cheeks, 2016).

The requirements for a successful AD can differ from institution to institution and from conference to conference (Sallee, 2013). One constant, however, is that properly addressing the needs of the coaching staff and students will help a program flourish. Ultimately, the job of an AD is not about wins and losses; it is about appropriately positioning the athletic department for long-term success (Sallee, 2013).

The present study addressed gaps in previous research by evaluating athletic administrators in Division II athletic programs at HBCUs. Previous studies have focused primarily on ADs from high schools or on Predominantly White Institutions (PWIs); by contrast, this study was based on interviews with athletic administrators interviewed from HBCUs in the Southern Intercollegiate Athletic Association (SIAC) and the Central Intercollegiate Athletic Association (CIAA). The general business problem addressed in this study centers on how the poor job satisfaction and job-related stress experienced by some ADs are due to limited resources and a failure to implement departmental and personnel managerial strategies to facilitate growth in athletic programs. The specific business problem addressed in the study centers on how poor job satisfaction and job-related stress experienced by some ADs in the SIAC and CIAA conferences are due to limited resources and a failure to implement departmental and personnel managerial strategies to facilitate growth in SIAC and CIAA athletic programs.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to explore the different strategies athletic administrators implement in order to foster successful athletic programs. The study used a qualitative method to investigate athletic administrators' perception and lived experience who make critical decisions in athletic departments. The study assessed persons' lived experiences and actions in positions of power within their respective institutions. They seek to promote change and implement strategies to assist with the advancement and maintenance of HBCU athletics. The study also aims to understand how resources, roster management, and facilities management in the domain of intercollegiate sports impact potential managerial strategies.

The study targeted 27 universities, but the researcher used a purposive sample consisting of university college athletic administrators in the Southern Intercollegiate Athletic Association Conference (SIAC) and the Central Intercollegiate Athletic Association (CIAA) with similar operational budgets. Using five to 25 subjects in a qualitative study is appropriate, according to Creswell (2017). Further, the sample included athletic administrators with five to 30 years of athletic administrative experience. Each sample institution has a minimum of 10 sponsored sports.

Nature of the Study

Decision-making is essential for those in positions to influence change and promote techniques that can support athletic department development and improvement (Copeland, 1995). As Copeland (1995) noted, there is an expanding body of literature on job satisfaction and job-related stress in intercollegiate athletics management. However,

there still appears to be a lack of discussion about job burnout in intercollegiate athletic departments. More specifically, although the previous literature has focused primarily on burnout in ADs at high schools or PWIs (Copeland 1995; Martin, 1999), there is a lack of research on the experiences of HBCU athletic administrators, particularly when it comes to their navigation of issues bearing on job satisfaction and job-related stress. HBCU athletics may conceivably be in danger of not continuing in the future, considering HBCUs' inability to achieve the financial security that other universities and programs have had the opportunity to establish (Copeland, 1995). The present study looked to provide a platform for identifying what might be pertinent to athletic administrators as they seek to develop different managerial strategies and explanations for understanding job satisfaction and job-related stress in the context of HBCU athletic departments.

Research Question

Over the past 20 years, work demands in this environment have added significantly to the pressure experienced by staff (Rskaya, 2002; Sauter & Murphy, 1995). Studies have extensively demonstrated that long-term exposure to stress typically results in burnout, often manifested in the form of maladaptive responses. These responses include weariness, antagonism with coworkers, low productivity rates, and mental and physical withdrawal from the work setting (Burke & Greenglass, 1991; Greenglass, 1991; Schaufeli et al., 1993; Ryska, 2002). The present study focused on job-related stress and job satisfaction to offer researchers and athletic administrators further insight into controlling the negative aspects of implementing managerial strategies.

In this explorative, phenomenological study, the following question was used to guide the research process:

RQ: What strategies do ADs at HBCUs implement to manage departments with limited resources?

Theoretical Framework

This phenomenological study aimed to examine the different managerial strategies athletic departments use to foster successful athletic programs. Athletic administrators conduct business within the athletic departments of the schools and colleges they serve (Hardin, 2013). Athletic administrators are prominent, influential experts, much like other top-level executives—and possibly more so because of the enthusiastic fan base that follows university sports. Athletic administrators face various issues that are inherent in major intercollegiate athletic programs (Judge, 2009).

The job demands placed on athletic administrative personnel, including a high level of interpersonal interaction (Ryska, 2002), may create more elevated stress levels than those found in other professions. Identifying the key factors at issue may give researchers and athletic administrators a way to address and ameliorate the negative aspects of their job. Understanding the ingredients for job satisfaction and job-related stress could enhance understanding of the work environment, increase profitability, and bring together athletic departments by shedding light on HBCUs in the context of college sports (Ryska, 2002).

As with other studies, particular theoretical or explanatory lenses guide the researcher's approach to this qualitative research (Creswell, 2013). For the present study,

an emphasis on Herzberg's (1959) and Karasek's (1979) theories complement its focus on

epistemological issues bound up with investigating ADs' experience of job satisfaction

and job-related stress. The third dimension of this study's investigative framework,

empiricism, can be defined as a commitment to gaining understanding through sensory

experience (Rudestam & Newton, 2007). Through this three-level schema, the researcher

explored ways to connect Herzberg's and Karasek's theories with an empirical

investigation of data from the field. In general, theoretical frameworks reflect the

"fundamental value commitments and personal preferences [that are embraced by the

researcher and] that are rarely modified based on additional data" (Rudestam & Newton,

2007, p. 24). Key components of the current study's theoretical framework were provided

by Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory and Karasek's job demands-control model

(Ryska, 2002).

Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory

One of the principal theories related to job satisfaction and working environments

is the motivation-hygiene theory proposed by Fredrick Herzberg (1959). The idea of job

satisfaction developed in Herzberg's theory suggests that job satisfaction and

dissatisfaction are framed by different work factors associated with work content.

Herzberg concludes that the specific work environment elements bring about job

satisfaction or its opposite (Mehrad, 2020).

The theory is separated into two significant parts. On the one hand, these parts are

job substance or motivation factors and employment setting or hygiene factors on the

other hand. The job content is recognizable in the form of "inside helpers," such as self-

awareness, achievement, affirmation, and feeling; meanwhile, the work setting includes "outer sparks," such as compensation and work conditions (Ahmed et al., 2010). These motivators create job satisfaction that, in turn, addresses human needs, for example, the need for self-actualization (Malik et al., 2010). Specifically, Herzberg distinguished between two types of factors:

1. *Motivating Factors:* The presence of motivators makes employees work more enthusiastically; these are secured inside the job itself.

2. *Hygiene Factors:* The absenteeism of hygiene factors will make workers do less work. Hygiene factors are absent from the actual job itself; however, they encompass the work.

Herzberg et al. (1959) suggested that job satisfaction is motivated by different elements. Job satisfaction is one of the standards for inspiration and satisfaction among staff in the work environment (Mehrad, 2020). Additionally, Vroom (1964) explained that motivation is derived from the Latin word *movere*, which refers to how to move. Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory establishes that job satisfaction is tenacious as a basic human need. Moreover, an essential part of achieving such satisfaction involves modifying employees' approaches and views concerning their work (Herzberg, 1964; Tan & Mehrad, 2020).

Karasek's Job Demands-Control Model

Karasek's (1979) job demands-control model is one of the most generally used occupational stress models. The essential thought behind the job demands-control model is that control shields the effect of job demands on strain (or stress), thus increasing

workers' job satisfaction and allowing them to participate in challenging tasks and learn new abilities. Karasek's demands-control model of occupational stress has influenced the job design and occupational health literature, in part because it is functional and testable (Jones & Bright, 2001).

According to Jones (2001), in Karasek's model, work environment stresses partially determine how demanding an individual's job is and how much control (prudence, authority or choice scope, etc.) the individual has over their obligations. Karasek's model leads to four types of occupations: passive, active, low strain, and high strain.

1. High-Strain Jobs (high demand, low control)
2. Passive Jobs (low demand, low control)
3. Active Jobs (high demand, high control)
4. Low-Strain Jobs (low demand, high control)

Occupation demands speak to the mental stressors in the workplace. These consist of factors such as interruption rate, time stress, clashing demands, response time required, the pace of work, the extent of work performed under pressure, the measure of work, level of focus needed, and the slowing down of work brought about by the need to delay one's efforts for the sake of other people (Jones, 2001). The fundamental thought behind the job demands-control model is that task control and skill use affect occupation demands and can help upgrade employees' job satisfaction by enabling them to take part in challenging tasks and learn new aptitudes. Karasek's (1979) conceptualization of job demands focused on mental work demands or remaining mental tasks at hand, which

include time demands, critical-thinking demands, and problem-solving demands. Karasek's request control model is used to show the connection between job-related stress and worker prosperity and well-being.

Definition of Terms

African American. An ethnic group of people with shared cultural experiences and a social history grounded in Africa and America, i.e., Americans of African ancestry (Martin, 1991; Smith, 1992).

Black. A socially constructed category used for persons of African descent (Martin; 1991; Smith, 1992).

HBCU. The modified Higher Education Act of 1965 defines Historically Black Colleges and Universities (commonly referred to as HBCUs) as accredited institutions of higher education founded before 1964 whose primary mission was, and continues to be, Black Americans' education (Brown, 2013).

Intercollegiate Athletics. A term used to describe the program by virtue of which a group of American higher education institutions compete in various sports at the amateur level.

NCAA. The National Collegiate Athletic Association is a voluntary association of about 1200 colleges and universities within three divisions; it comprises athletic conferences with the explicit purpose of administering intercollegiate athletics.

PWI. A Predominantly White Institution of higher education is an institution historically founded for White Americans' education.

SIAC. The Southern Intercollegiate Athletic Conference is an NCAA Division II conference comprised of 14 institutions primarily situated along the East Coast of the United States.

CIAA. The Central Intercollegiate Athletic Association is an NCAA Division II conference comprised of 13 institutions primarily located in the Eastern United States.

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

The assumptions, limitations, and delimitations of a study can have an impact on the research conducted (Creswell, 2017). Hence, there is a need to communicate the research possibilities without embellishing its actual or potential merits.

Assumptions

Several assumptions were made in the current study. One assumption supporting the investigation is that athletic directors would consent to participate. Additionally, there was an assumption that HBCU athletic directors would experience job dissatisfaction and job-related stress due to decreased funding, inadequate facility management, and inconsistent roster management. Finally, the study was based on the expectation that athletic directors would be straightforward and honest in responding to their current responsibilities and occupation questions.

Limitations

The study's limitations include the sample size and the geographic area from which the sample of athletic administrators was drawn. The sample size for the study is between eight to 27 interviews. However, it should be noted that this sample meets the criteria set by Smith et al. (2009) for gathering comprehensive data. Further, the study

focused on athletic administrators in HBCUs located solely in the SIAC and CIAA, at NCAA Division II institutions that sponsor a minimum of 10 sports with similar operational budgets. The other 23 conferences within the NCAA's Division II regions (South, South Central, Midwest, West, Northeast) are not represented in this research. Despite the restricted sample size and scope, this research provides foundations for future research as well as for practical changes to athletic administrators' management strategies.

Another limitation is the COVID-19 pandemic that is currently affecting the entire nation and world. As indicated by O'Brien (2020), ADs determine whether or not an athletic department will survive. At the same time, universities' medical executives and emergency response groups, and state and local medical officers are keeping senior authorities abreast of new developments in COVID-19 (O'Brien, 2020). COVID-19 affects all athletics departments and programs, and as a result, athletic administrators' decisions must be handled by each institution as a whole (O'Brien, 2020). The process of creating plans for restarting athletic programs during this time, and the effects on funding, facility, and roster management data, may have affected the present research, contributing to biased results.

Scope

The scope of the investigation corresponds to the overall orienting lens for the study (Creswell, 2017). The present study covered the personal experiences of athletic administrators at HBCUs. This focus may limit the generalizability of the outcomes to other athletic administrators and their personal experiences. That said, the eight interview

questions that were developed to address the impact of managerial strategies, resources, facility management, and roster management on job satisfaction and job-related stress among athletic administrators may provide data that are relevant in other settings.

Delimitations

The delimitations that may affect the present study's development include its phenomenological design, theoretical framework, and sample population. The interview questions were based on Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory and Karasek's job demands-control model (Hersey et al., 2013). The study excluded issues related to the coaching staff's job satisfaction, and job-related stress since the investigation focuses on athletic administrators.

<center>**Significance of the Study**</center>

According to Siriattakul (2019), job satisfaction research has focused on how jobs are planned and organized; this research attempted to characterize the various aspects of employment that anticipate job satisfaction, such as job stress. For instance, job control and independence have been shown to significantly affect both satisfaction and well-being outcomes (Spector & Jex, 1991). Vital to high satisfaction is the feeling that one has control over how the job is done and that one has enough control to fulfill one's obligations and satisfy responsibility standards. The capacity to make decisions that influence one's work, moreover, bears on job satisfaction. Workers who had little impact on the choices that affected their occupations were not as satisfied and were slightly more stressed (Robinson, 2003).

Reduction of Gaps

According to Pardee (1990), job satisfaction has customarily been researched from the perspective of one of several motivation theories: (a) the hierarchy of needs theory (Maslow, 1954), (b) the motivation-hygiene theory (Herzberg, 1959), and (c) the achievement theory. Maslow (1954) categorized human needs into a system of five progressively more expansive categories: physiological needs, security needs, needs related to belongingness, esteem needs, and self-realization needs. The smallest satisfied needs make the best inspiration, and people are slanted to fulfill those requirements, as indicated by the hierarchical order. Herzberg et al. (1959) recognized both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction elements and argued that satisfaction and disappointment with respect to these elements are not entirely mutually exclusive. Certain aspects of job content are motivators and primarily add to job satisfaction, such as accomplishment, acknowledgment, work itself as an obligation, and expert development. Other occupation content factors are recognized as hygiene-related, and they regularly add to work (dis)satisfaction—for example, strategy, organization, relational relations, working conditions, pay, status, and professional stability.

McClelland et al. (1976) suggested that needs are learned through the work environment. When an individual encounters a need, satisfaction fills in as inspiration to initiate behaviors that satisfy the demand. People who have a significant requirement for accomplishment are satisfied when that need is satisfied. Conversely, the inability to accomplish lessens the inspiration to work hard for an organization (Siriattakul, 2019).

The current study attempted to close a gap in the previous research in this area by focusing on managerial strategies that influence the job satisfaction and job-related stress of HBCU athletic administrators working in the context of two NCAA Division II conferences. The study examined participants' activities in positions of authority inside their organizations—positions that give them the capacity to advance change and execute systems to support the improvement of HBCU athletics. The study considered the effects of managerial strategies on resources, roster management, and intercollegiate athletics facilities.

Implications for Social Change

The social impact of this is that lower rates of success can be more prevalent when job satisfaction is lower due to having lower resources. Athletic administrators in HBCUs assume a crucial role in teaching the student-athletes in this country, according to Cheek (2016). The athletic administrators' purpose is to demonstrate the absolute best for competitors, coaches, and sports programs. These athletic administrators may be challenged with numerous obstacles, issues, and disappointments. How they feel about their employment and the degree of their satisfaction in managing responsibilities and personnel can directly impact the athletic department's total accomplishment under their administration (Cheeks, 2016).

The study investigated how managerial strategies influence job satisfaction and job-related stress in HBCUs. Another goal is to enhance the professional and personal awareness of the people responsible for managing university athletic programs. The study

aimed to help athletic administrators in HBCUs foster greater success in the contexts of athletic management and athletic departments more generally.

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

This section presents a review of the literature relevant to the present study, providing further background and theoretical foundations for the analysis. Reviewing previous research related to job satisfaction, job-related stress, funding, roster management, and facilities management, the section also presents previous work building on Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory and Karasek's (1979) job demands-control model.

Job Satisfaction

Employee turnover is a key issue for the US workforce (Harris, 2016). Jo (2008) noted that workers changed careers multiple times during their tenure. Ton and Huckman (2008) showed that the cost of turnover for a worker who is paid $8.00 an hour is somewhere in the range of $3500 to $25,000.00. Selesho and Naile (2014) noted that a high turnover rate could also be found in the higher education sector, where significant efforts have been made to bolster worker retention. Satisfaction among higher education staff depends on a number of factors, including morale, a feeling of civic duty, and connectivity with colleagues; these factors best predicted perceived levels of job satisfaction. Altunas (2014) connected employee job satisfaction to joy, efficiency, and a sense of accomplishment at work. Similarly, Peterson et al. (2011) pointed to opportunities for improvement and advancement as a significant source of job satisfaction among higher education staff. Rao (2010) stated that when employees

enjoyed job satisfaction, they experienced considerable excitement at the idea of going to work (Harris, 2016).

According to Siriattahul (2019), higher education institutions should concentrate on implementing various procedures to keep their employees satisfied (see also Jermsittiparsert et al., 2019). The satisfaction of employees is essential to increasing the revenue and overall well-being of the organization. For this reason, organizations should create various HR systems that help keep employees satisfied. A satisfied worker is a benefit for the organization since he or she will, in the end, help the organization to gain a competitive advantage (Siriattakul, 2019).

Higher education plays a significant role in helping institutions enhance job satisfaction (Siriattakul, 2019). Human resources (HR) departments establish hiring and training protocols to accomplish a university's ideals and goals. HR departments, in this way, help make an educational organization productive by assisting with the hiring and training of qualified personnel (Siriattakul, 2019).

The employees working in an institution of higher education can be innovative, provide insight into the organization, and assume a critical role in meeting the organization's responsibilities (Sireattahul, 2019). Therefore, the top administration of the organization must address HR-related issues. HR personnel should be prepared to train, maintain, and properly develop administrators within an organization (Sireattahaul, 2019). Job satisfaction (JS) is a parameter gauged by multiple measures: the employee's satisfaction is revealed through his or her attitudes toward an organization's strategy, professional stability, pay, colleagues, and administrators (Sireattahaul, 2019).

Researcher Edwin Locke has assigned substantial significance to JS (Judge et al., 2002). As his research indicates, there is a mix of negative and positive emotions toward job satisfaction within the workplace. When an employee is recruited, there is an effort to fill a position with a candidate whose individual experience, wants, and needs correspond to the organization's requirements. Satisfaction refers to the degree to which the employee meets the expectations on both sides. The individual's conduct is firmly connected to the satisfaction level of the employee, with job satisfaction essentially involving the employee's feeling of progress and accomplishment at work. When experiencing JS, an employee appreciates the work in his/her job and puts forth the effort needed to accomplish personal and organizational goals (Siriattakul, 2019).

Employees' satisfaction level while working in groups is often higher than working alone (Siriattakul, 2019). In addition, employees who have less experience gain skills contributing to their professional development while working within the organization. To improve the productivity of the organization, a significant level of cooperation among employees is the key. Moreover, organizations can improve in quality and profitability by using various methods to enhance employees' job satisfaction (Siriattakul, 2019).

According to Siriattakul (2019), organizations need to grasp the connections between JS and organizational climate (OC). OC can be characterized in terms of recurring examples of the behavior, attitudes, and feelings that reflect life in the organization. OC is an organizational quality recognized by members of the organization (Castro & Martins, 2010; Siriattakul, 2019). In contrast, an organization's culture will, in

general, be stable. Although culture and climate are connected, the climate frequently demonstrates a powerful influence on all facets of the workplace, from productivity to personal relationships (Siriattakul, 2019). Understanding the links between JS and OC is important for any organization's HR division. To this end, prior studies in the higher education sector have focused on the relationship among different segments of OC and JS.

Administrators play an essential role in achieving the vision and mission of a college or university (Stkavska, 2017). Bentley et al. (2013) noted, in this connection, that understanding an employee's role at a university is vital for the organization's success. Administrators can help make clear that grasping an employee's role is the key to job satisfaction. A positive, growing administrative structure will expand on the staff's job expectations. In the process, a healthy administrative atmosphere in higher education will not just enhance personnel job satisfaction but also improve learning conditions and increase employee productivity (Gordana Stankovska, 2017).

According to Gordana Stankovska (2017), employee satisfaction encompasses both intrinsic and extrinsic characteristics. Job satisfaction is a complicated phenomenon since JS results from a range of causal factors, including, for example, individual, social, natural, and money-related components (Gordana Stankovska, 2017). Job satisfaction is a gratifying emotional state, coming about through examining one's job and developing a disposition towards one's career. Job satisfaction hinges on the assortment of sentiments and convictions employees have about employment. Employees' general disposition

toward their job could similarly be viewed as employment satisfaction (Gordana Stankovska, 2017).

Job satisfaction research has focused on how jobs are designed and structured. Thus, Robinson's (2003) study defined different job design elements that forecast worker satisfaction and job stress. For example, job control and autonomy have been shown to profoundly affect both satisfaction and health outcomes (Spector & Jex, 1991). Imperative to high satisfaction is the sense that one has control over how one's job is completed and that one can meet one's responsibilities and satisfy accountability standards. Making decisions that impact one's work also plays a central role in this job design characteristic. Cardell (1982) found that workers who had little influence on the decisions that affected their jobs were less satisfied and more stressed. In an intervention study focusing on job redesign among youth treatment facilities, Sarata (1984) found that higher job satisfaction levels occurred when greater control was incorporated into the job. Eisenstat and Felner (1984) studied 168 workers in human service programs, and their findings agreed with those of Sarata (1984). This research suggests that by increasing job involvement through the degree of participation in decision-making and enhancing employees' autonomy with respect to how work is performed, employees will experience increased job satisfaction (Robinson, 2003).

Although previous research has been conducted on "the emotional state subsequent from assessing one's job or job experience" (Locke, 1976, p. 1300), studies of the job satisfaction of athletic administrators, particularly those in NCAA Division II conferences, remain scarce. The study of this topic by Robinson et al. (2001) found that

generally speaking, NCAA Division III athletic administrators are satisfied except when it comes to promotion. Meanwhile, there were significant differences between male and female NCAA Division III athletic administrators with respect to the issue of pay. Overall, previous job satisfaction studies focusing on intercollegiate athletic administrators have generally omitted those working at schools in Division II conferences and instead focused on those working at Division I institutions (Parks et al., 1995); alternatively, the studies have compared athletics administrators at Division III institutions with those at Division I schools (Freyberg, 1988).

Motivation

Motivation, derived from the Latin word for "mover," relates to the process of getting oneself or others to act or move (Gordana Stankovska, 2017). Motivation is the internal drive that pushes people to act or perform; it is also the mental procedure that stimulates behavior. As such, it can be difficult to investigate or measure this process (Locke & Lethem, 2004). Colquitt (2009, p. 1) clarified, "Motivation is basic thought since job performance is the capacity of two variables: Motivation and environment."

Pinter (1998) characterizes job motivation as the set of inner and outside powers that start job-related conduct and decide the structure, demeanor, dynamics, and duration of work. Job motivation can be clarified to invigorate an individual or group of individuals to facilitate their accomplishing the organization's objectives (Gordana Stankovska, 2017). Job motivation is an essential aspect of employee commitment. Tan and Wahid (2011) also relate motivation to job satisfaction, developing a framework for studying job satisfaction from this perspective. The role of employee satisfaction has

been taken into account by many job motivation theories that have endeavored to explain the impact of JS (Gordana Stankovska, 2017).

Intrinsic and extrinsic characteristics of JS, according to Gordana Stankovska (2017), are stimulating factors that influence job satisfaction, shape employee oversight, affect social connections inside the working group, and determine how much the individual succeeds or fails in his or her job (Daft, 2005). The difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation lies in the purpose for doing something. People can participate in the same behavior for different purposes, and therefore, different motivations. Intrinsic psychological rewards drive intrinsic motivation. Psychological or tangible rewards can drive extrinsic motivation. While tangible rewards are always external, psychological rewards can at times come from within (Gordana Stankovska, 2017). With respect to athletic program staff, both intrinsic and extrinsic factors influence satisfaction.

Other studies have recommended that employees put more emphasis on inherent satisfaction (Place, 1997), though other research indicates that a mixed system of intrinsic and extrinsic satisfiers is the best predictor of employees' job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1987; Bentley, 2013). At the same time, extrinsic variables have been related to staff satisfaction, including pay, support from administrators and coworkers, and accessibility of college resources, among others. Experts have inferred that motivated, satisfied employees are more likely to show up for a job, have higher execution levels, and remain with their educational organization (Daft, 2005). These employees display both stronger motivation and better job capacity (Gordana Stankovska, 2017).

According to Stokowski (2018), to build job satisfaction, understanding employees' work motivations is crucial. Work motivation comprises elements inside a person's social world (i.e., central values, level of assurance, degree of ability, endurance, wants) that determine that person's work environment demeanor (Latham & Pinder, 2005; Pinder, 1998). Motivation can be divided into five explicit thought processes: intrinsic motivation, coordinated regulations, distinguished regulations, recognized regulations, and outside regulations (Gagné et al., 2010).

Intrinsic motivation is characterized as the desire to finish an action since it gratifies the requirements of autonomy, competence, and purpose (Reeve, Deci, & Ryan, 2004). The more autonomy, ability, and reason people feel, the more intrinsically motivated they are and the more engaged they are in the internalization. Thus, action or behavior is not complete it becomes influential in any form, but rather becomes fascinating to the person who does it (Ryan & Deci, 2004).

Integrated regulation is the type of extrinsic motivation closest to intrinsic motivation (i.e., it turns into the most individually self-determined). Though extrinsically motivated, the conduct is autonomous and completely lines up with a person's beliefs, interests, and objectives (Gagné & Deci, 2005). However, an individual does not finish the behavior for individual interests; because the behavior is instrumental to the achievement of individual objectives and congruency with one's self-appreciation, it can never exist as intrinsic motivation (Gagné & Deci, 2005).

Less lined up with individual interests is the extrinsic motivational form of identified regulation. This behavior type includes the idea that individuals feel a greater

sense of autonomy because the behavior aligns more with their thinking and beliefs; it includes intentionally valuing a goal or directive to acknowledge that the goal or directive is acknowledged as personally significant (Gagné & Deci, 2005). The action benefits them, and they appear to relate to it, yet less significantly than incorporated guidelines.

Further toward the simply extrinsic end is interjected regulations, which is a kind of regulation that has been followed by an individual but has not been declared as a component of her/his own motivation (Gagné & Deci, 2005). In this sort, the regulations the individual, as opposed to the individual acting over the regulation. One such example would be social difficulties applied to a person to considered deserving of a presence inside that society or culture.

The most directed type of extrinsic motivation is external regulation, where a person's activities are totally constrained by the presence of external factors (Deci & Ryan, 1985a; Gagné & Deci, 2005). In this type of extrinsic motivation, activities are only completed when they ensure desirable ends or avoid undesirable ones. This type of extrinsic motivation is the most controlled and consequently the least self-determined.

At the same time, a few basic standards apply to these five processes in their role as self-governing and controlled motivators (Gagné et al., 2010). Autonomous incentives (for example, identification, integration, and intrinsic motivation) affect job satisfaction, while controlled motivators have various impacts (Gagné et al., 2010). Therefore, the more self-sufficiency people have within their positions, and the more opportunity they encounter from outside factors, they are more likely to be happy with their work (Stokowski, 2018).

Estimating degrees of motivation and employee satisfaction can be difficult; however, administrators, managers, and directors of all organizations (athletic programs and recreational facilities included) are forced to play many roles and handle many tasks (Skemp-Arlt, 2007) related to employee satisfaction. The athletic administrator's leadership capability will affect his or her organization's climate and, ultimately, success. Employee performance is a function of motivation and expertise. To advance or maintain organizational effectiveness, athletic administrators need to know their employees and increase or maintain the employees' job satisfaction. The athletic administrator's responsibility is to inform the staff about how to accomplish both individual and departmental goals. To this end, the administrator should construct a positive working climate that will encourage and develop self-motivation, emphasizing the pre-eminence of self-motivation in a physical activity setting. Athletic department employees thus need to know the current theories and principles that go into developing a motivation-oriented workforce (Skemp-Arlt, 2007).

Leadership in Higher Education

Research on leadership in higher education has been expanding in recent years (Alonderiene, 2016). Issues of leadership intersect with those of socioeconomics, globalization, innovation, and work practices. Previous studies have analyzed how leadership affects organizational execution and also how different leadership styles influence corporate culture, employee capability, performance, maintenance, inspiration, and satisfaction among administrative staff (Chang & Lee, 2007; Fernandez, 2008;

Griffith, 2004; Mosadegh Rad & Yarmohammadian, 2006; Shaw & Newton, 2014; Siddique et al., 2011; Yang & Islam, 2012; Yang, 2014).

Nonetheless, there is a gap in academic research about leadership in higher education institutions (HEIs) (Bryman, 2007). The focus on leadership in HEIs has raised concerns about whether a similar type of leadership is appropriate across all HEIs. Another question is whether the same system of assumptions and protocols used in business organizations applies to the higher education area (Alonderiene, 2016; Amzat & Idris, 2012; Eacott, 2011; Siddique et al., 2011; Spendlove, 2007).

According to Alonderiene (2016), administrators' attempts to measure staff job satisfaction have increased. Employees in HEIs are generally pleased with their staff positions (7.18 out of 10). Employees are happier with the inherent components (7.28) than the external components (7.06) of job satisfaction, while their managers display the inverse pattern. From the perspective of personnel managers, the outcomes demonstrate that staff has lower job satisfaction (7.02) than administrators (7.18). Employees gave the highest assessment for "the real employment itself" (8.28) and the least for "level of pay" (5.56). When job satisfaction issues are considered with respect to gender and sexual orientation, the outcomes demonstrate that men rank their job satisfaction (7.36) higher than women (7.19). With respect to public versus private colleges, employees report being more satisfied with their positions at private institutions than public ones (8.08 compared with 7.02). Likewise, in both private and state-funded colleges, the staff's intrinsic job satisfaction (8.22 in private institutions; 7.11 in public) is higher than their extrinsic job satisfaction (7.82 in private institutions; 6.91 in public) (Alonderiene, 2016).

Alonderiene (2016) noted that previous research indicates that diverse leadership styles have distinctive effects on worker job satisfaction (Lok & Crawford, 2004; Chang & Lee, 2007; Frooman et al., 2012; Oner, 2012; Siddique et al., 2011). For instance, the pressure placed on athletic administrators to create and organize a successful athletic program can result in counterproductive consequences (Orlando, 2012). Specifically, the enormous pressure to succeed affects how athletic administrators administer their leadership and develop their ethical capabilities. According to Mahony et al. (2002), the pressure to produce equal opportunity may have possible leadership repercussions for athletic administrators seeking to dispense allocated funds to all men and women's athletic programs. Given their legal obligation to maintain equal opportunity in women's sports under Title IX, athletic administrators are sometimes forced to reduce and eradicate budgets for men's non-revenue generating sports (Mahony et al., 2002).

The social pressure of producing a successful athletic program can affect athletic administrators' leadership and ethical capabilities by impacting office culture. In a study conducted by Scott (1999), several theoretical frameworks were used to survey athletic administrators and their head coach employees regarding their self-perceptions of leadership styles and organizational climates. Interestingly, there was a divergence in assessments of the leadership styles of head coaches versus departmental staff by athletic administrators (Scott, 1999).

Frederick Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory

According to Sanjeev (2016), organizations face challenges associated with merchandising, service markets, and the world's limited labor markets. There is a

requirement for continuous determination to cultivate and hold on to employees with the right kind of ability, with employee retention versus loss being the primary source of variation in organizations' levels of success. Job dissatisfaction brings about the loss of workers' contributions to competitive advantage and, eventually, the organization's market standing. As stressed by Henry Fayol (1949) in his 14 principles of management, an established and stable staff will help organizations in their efforts to accomplish business objectives. In a self-motivated business condition, organizational performance might be influenced by extraneous variables.

However, extraneous variables are common to participants in the industry and, under such circumstances, these factors differentiate a winner from others to help create a motivated, satisfied, and steady workforce (Sanjeev, 2016). Herzberg's (1959) two-factor theory, which reflects a social-sciences approach to management issues, holds enormous pertinence even today when it comes to determining employees' level of motivation. People have specific thought processes that drive them to take a job, and not every one of these intentions may be realized in the work environment, leading to job dissatisfaction. Nevertheless, the thought processes involved may have changed since the two-factor theory was first introduced (Sanjeev, 2016).

Herzberg first presented the two-factor theory in 1974, according to Khanna (2017). In Herzberg's theory, work itself is the most significant indicator of job satisfaction; it profoundly impacts job satisfaction among an organization's personnel. In Herzberg's account, job satisfaction occupies one side and job dissatisfaction the opposite side of the model. Herzberg recognized that the attributes of work are diverse, both in the

case of job satisfaction and in the case of job dissatisfaction. Herzberg's (1959) theory emphasizes that two sorts of factors are important—motivations and hygiene factors—when developing job satisfaction among personnel.

On the one hand, motivators can be used to open doors for development and improvement, acknowledgment, and accomplishment (Khanna, 2017). On the other hand, hygiene factors such as relationships, pay/compensation, and working conditions should be taken into account by the organization to avoid job dissatisfaction among workers (Khanna, 2017). Motivators are considered intrinsic factors, while hygiene factors are considered extrinsic (Khanna, 2017). Further, motivators impact job satisfaction, while hygiene factors influence job dissatisfaction (Srivastava, 2002).

When motivators are acceptable, satisfaction will rise, and when hygiene is acceptable, job dissatisfaction will be less (Srivastava, 2002). However, the elimination of problematic hygiene factors does not ensure job satisfaction (Khanna, 2017). Also, a decrease in motivators will not add to job dissatisfaction. Job satisfaction relies upon both the intrinsic and extrinsic attributes of the work to satisfy personal self-actualization necessities (Khanna, 2017). In this way, Herzberg's two-factor theory takes into account both the intrinsic and extrinsic attributes of work.

Srivastava (2002) analyzed the connection between job satisfaction and job modification and found that balanced workers are progressively more satisfied with their job. Foam and Jain (2005) discovered a critical positive connection between job satisfaction and motivational needs at various administrative levels. Dhawan (2015) studied the effect of factors affecting job satisfaction and found that stress due to role

expectation conflict is the highest. Singh and Jaiswal (2016) found a positive connection between job satisfaction and staff's sense of obligation, job appreciation, and responsibility (Khanna, 2017).

The conversation surrounding job satisfaction and dissatisfaction has evolved since the time of Herzberg's pioneering contributions. In his approach, Herzberg assumed that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are entirely separate issues, according to Islam (2013). Low compensation can cause a representative to feel unhappy; conversely, a high salary will make an employee happy. For Herzberg, motivation factors or satisfiers are the job factors that enhance satisfaction or motivation when they are in place, yet their nonexistence does not entail dissatisfaction. These satisfiers encompass work itself, a sense of obligation, acknowledgment, work success, and employee development.

In contrast with these satisfiers, hygiene factors are called dissatisfiers. Examples of dissatisfiers are organization strategy, pay, working conditions, and management. An organization must manage both satisfaction and dissatisfaction with work.

Satisfaction and dissatisfaction can eventually affect efficiency, just as much as employees' competence or business obligations can. In general, workers' competence is necessary for the improvement of an organization, with the goal being that workers will also have a positive attitude toward their jobs. Employees' general dispositions or attitudes toward the job, organization, and life do affect the evaluation of job satisfaction. Therefore, understanding the components of job satisfaction is helpful for organizations, with more satisfied workers bringing more prominent enjoyment and more self-awareness to their jobs (Islam, 2013).

According to Sanjeeve (2016), Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory separates job satisfaction issues into two separate continua. In turn, research based on the theory identifies one set of employment factors (motives) that lead to job satisfaction while focusing on how deficiencies with a different set of job characteristics (hygiene) lead to job dissatisfaction. By contrast, Herzberg's two-factor theory presents a single continuum characterized by satisfaction and dissatisfaction at the two opposing extremes. Originally, Herzberg held that the thought processes involved in carrying out a responsibility caused either satisfaction or dissatisfaction. With the two-factor theory, however, issues related to job satisfaction were situated along two continua. One continuum, constrained by hygiene factors, placed dissatisfaction at one side of the continuum and no-dissatisfaction at the other side. The other continuum, measured by motivating factors, set no-dissatisfaction at one side and satisfaction at the opposing end (Sanjeeve, 2016).

When they are absent, the hygiene factors cause dissatisfaction with the job, whereas the motivating factors cause satisfaction when present (Sanjeeve, 2016). In Herzberg's account, there was no dissatisfaction when these motivating factors were missing, requiring managers to consider two job arrangements: one that satisfied the workers and one that did not disappoint the employees. Herzberg's two-factor theory resulted from a study supported by the Buhl establishment in Pittsburgh in 1957 (Sanjeeve, 2016). The study utilized critical techniques that permitted members to rate occurrences for their effect on job attitudes. The occurrences were ordered into two kinds: high-succession and low-arrangement occasions. The high and low series of events were equally limited, except for compensation. The pay was later categorized as a high-

sequence measure and gratitude as a low-sequence measure since pay is viewed as compensation in the investigation. The high-succession occasions were marked as hygiene factors and did not cause job satisfaction when present, yet they brought about dissatisfaction when missing. The low-succession occasions were marked by motivators and caused job satisfaction (Sanjeev, 2016).

According to Kalleberg (1977), Khanna (2017), and Maddox (1981), the theory explained the significance of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction for an individual worker, as well as for organizations. Crucially, Herzberg's two-factor theory of satisfaction and dissatisfaction shows that the inverse of job satisfaction is not necessarily work dissatisfaction. Instead, it is a lack of job satisfaction (Herzberg, 2003). Further, Herzberg's theory characterizes motivation as an internal strength, which drives a person to accomplish individual and organizational goals.

Mullins (1996) discusses motivation as a procedure that may direct employees toward job satisfaction. Schermerhorn (1993) describes job satisfaction as a passionate reaction to different perspectives on and qualities of a worker's job. Spector (1997) describes job satisfaction in terms of how individuals see and consider their jobs. Ellickson and Logsdon (2002) define job satisfaction as simply the degree to which workers like their jobs.

As previously noted, certain job variables that cause satisfaction have been termed satisfiers or motivators (Deci, 2005; Hackman & Oldham,1976; Rathavoot & Stephen, 2003). Motivators are those elements of a job that spur individuals to perform and which cause satisfaction among individuals. Simultaneously, hygiene variables can be

characterized as those parts of a job that may cause dissatisfaction if they are not overseen appropriately. According to the investigations led by Hackman and Oldham (1976), hygiene factors encompass, for the most part, the workplace environment of an organization, including working conditions, managerial strategies, and interpersonal issues.

In general, research on employee job satisfaction and dissatisfaction is primarily indebted to the theories of motivation proposed by Maslow and Herzberg (Islam, 2013). Job satisfaction is the result of various proclivities controlled by a worker with respect to his or her job. These proclivities might be identified with job factors, such as professional stability, organizational or management strategies, job condition, type of job, compensation, probabilities of progression and growth, awareness of others' expectations, and other supplementary benefits. In this way, one can characterize an employee's job satisfaction in terms of conduct that has emerged in response to different requirements of job duties. An employer can help create feelings about how great a job is by taking every opportunity to satisfy the employees' needs (Islam, 2013).

According to Islam (2013), motivation has been characterized as the person's internal procedure that motivates, directs, and upholds the person's behavior to address issues and help achieve specific goals. In other words, motivation is the power that makes people act with a particular goal in mind, whether that goal is constructive or not. Employees' sense of assurance is a significant factor related to motivation, a factor that mirrors their perceptions regarding their job, their supervisors, and the organization itself. Workers with a high motivational drive will be progressively more dedicated to

employment and the organization. In turn, such dedication originates from positive attributes such as being well-regarded in the organization and being monetarily compensated. By enabling employees to keep in mind the organization's best interest, motivation allows workers to be fulfilled while carrying out their responsibilities.

Job-Related Stress

Job-related stress has acquired extraordinary significance in the management literature. Organizations continually monitor their internal procedures to prevent upsetting the delicate balance required to accomplish a goal (Mahmood, 2017). Anything that impedes or hinders their workers' performance or productivity, such as job-related stress, is thus all the more important for an organization to resolve. Job-related stress has forced organizations and their administrators to investigate and seek to ameliorate this phenomenon (Mahmood, 2017). Stress influences the efficiency of work in both positive and negative ways, according to Zakrizevka (2015). It should also be noted that job-related stress has been extensively studied in the context of higher education institutions (Motowidlo et al., 1986; Weissbourd, 2003).

According to Zakrizevska (2015), job-related stress is frequently characterized as mental or physical overwork caused by the inconsistency between the worker's job demands and his or her actual abilities (Roja et al., 2006). There is a perception that job-related stress can improve job quality and profitability (LBAS, 2010). Suppose an employee has demonstrated high work performance. In this case, he/she is frequently expected to keep up a similar level, which may bring about a high feeling of anxiety and

may, in the long run, lead to burnout (Volti, 2008). Stress cannot be considered a motivational factor overall (LBAS, 2010; Zakrizevska, 2015).

Colleges and universities can be considered as organizations that, in some instances, repudiate the human factor (Hirigoyen, 2006). Working in an unsociable and undesirable organizational environment generates negative feelings that influence all the parties involved (Lipman-Blumen, 2006). An unhealthy work environment can create reactions of disappointment, avoidance, evasion, unconcern, and distance from work, prompting professional stress (Ghodsy, 2008). Many administrators work without decent compensation; their pay barely covers costs, and this financial weakness turns into another reason for stress (Zhuravlev & Sergijenko, 2011). Work impacts character; one's occupation molds perspectives and moral values, and organizational culture affects individuals' mental self-image and self-esteem. Professional bias progressively develops through professional action, throwing certain qualities and individual attributes (Zakrizevska, 2015).

Job-related stress can be characterized as the interface between the worker and his/her workplace. Stress is experienced when workplace demands outperform the worker (Lizda, 2011). Among the principal reasons for job-related stress are work expectations, tight deadlines for performing tasks, and high work-quality requirements (Ozolina-Nucho & Vidnere, 2004). As per Zhdanov (2008), some employees feel "stuck in the frame" as a result of ridiculous work guidelines: strict control of workers evokes frustration, outrage, and reluctance to work (Zakrizevska, 2015).

Stress is a significant indicator of employees' efficiency and satisfaction in HEIs (Eagan & Garvey, 2015; Gmelch et al., 1986; Hendel & Horn, 2008; Jacobs & Windslow, 2004). Stress can arise from private sources such as childcare difficulties or the lack of individual funds. As past research affirms, stress can prompt dissatisfaction and reduce productivity, prompting turnover in the institution (Barnes et al., 1998; Padilla-Gonzalez & Galaz-Fontes, 2015). As an administrator's work develops to fulfill the needs of a shifting higher education landscape, researchers and administrators should know how best to help the staff. With staff being vital to higher education organizations' capacity, an absence of adequate personnel help can be averse to a college or university's achievement. Higher education institutions try to maintain and retain a high-quality staff, and a proper understanding of the issues involved can positively impact workplace feelings of stress (Barnes et al., 1998). Hence, researchers need to investigate what influences levels of workforce stress (Berebitsky, 2018).

According to Berebitsky (2018), stress can arise from several sources, influencing profitability and organizational performance. Studies have indicated that employees distinguish various intrinsic conditions related to academe as stressful (Doyle & Hind, 1998; Thorsen, 1996; Winefield, 2000). These conditions take both long-term and immediate shape (Buckholdt & Miller, 2013). Unintended factors may create significant stress and lead to innovation changes, rising demands for accountability, desires for increased profitability, far-reaching developments in student socioeconomics, and a modification in personnel appointment practices (Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006). Other stressful conditions include the absence of time to fulfill all employment requirements,

inadequate transparency in work expectations and opinions, and the challenges

introduced by balancing work and life commitments (Berebitsky, 2018; Dey, 1994;

Gmelch & Wilke, 1991; Olsen & Near, 1994).

Job-related stress has been studied in-depth for at least the past four decades. The

unfavorable effects of organizational and work-related stress on employees have raised a

number of concerns (Khan, 2018). Job-related stress is associated with the rapport (or the

lack thereof) among employees and their workplace. When job demands surpass

employees' abilities, job-related stress happens (Khan et al., 2017; Maslach, 2003). Such

organizational issues negatively affect people's relationships with work (Maslach et al.,

2001), causing a lack of engagement, decreased performance, and exhaustion (Khan,

2018).

According to Khan (2018), previous studies have measured job-related stress

according to three dimensions: emotional fatigue, depersonalization, and diminished

individual achievement. Maslach et al. (1996, p. 4) suggest that job-related stress can be

characterized "as a disorder of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and decreased

individual achievement that can happen among people who work with individuals in

some capacity." An element of job-related stress is emotional fatigue; such fatigue results

from employees' "work-related demand stressor[s]." Fatigue of this sort increases non-

attendance and withdrawal from the profession (Khan, 2018). The second factor,

depersonalization, leads to an adverse disposition toward clients, colleagues, and

administrators. The last job-related stress factor, individual achievement, stems from

disregarded desires for accomplishment and job uncertainty, leading to the decay of employees' sense of skill and accomplishment in their work activities (Khan, 2018).

Job-related stress seems to be an unavoidable repercussion of life and is inevitable in organizations (Selye, 1956). Newman and Beehr (1979) characterized work stress as "a circumstance wherein job-related elements interact with the employee to change their mental and additionally physiological condition to such an extent that the individual is compelled to stray from ordinary work functions" (p. 72). Clincher (2007) and Vermut and Steensma (2005) clarify job-related stress as a feeling of harshness between environmental requirements (stressors) and individual capacities to meet these requirements (Mahmood, 2017).

Job-related stress has a negative effect on employee performance. Morris and Long (2002) state that stress associated with organizational work has a negative impact on the proficiency of an organization since it prevents employees from carrying out their obligations effectively. Sui'O (2002) indicated that inadequate job performance, reduced job satisfaction levels, a decrease in the morale and motivation of employees, absences from work, mental and physical issues, employee turnover, and unusual behavior are the outcomes of a long-term working environment stress. The UK's Health and Safety Executive estimated that a million employees experience job-related stress levels that make them sick (Mahmood, 2017).

There have been limited studies on factors that are pertinent for acclimatizing to, controlling, or lowering job-related stress, according to Mahmood (2017). Restructuring jobs to adjust work-environment stressors (Bond & Bunce, 2000), increasing employees'

decision-making ability (Jackson, 1983), and forming colleague support groups (Carson et al., 1999) have emerged as potential managerial strategies in this connection. An investigation by Indoo and Ajeya (2012) showed that job-related stress impacts could often be mitigated through single components, such as improving employees' capacity to control difficulties and work environment factors, empower teamwork activities, or support workers.

Karasek's Job Demands-Control Model

One of the most notable and influential models of job-related stress was proposed by Karasek (1979), who believed that the impacts of employment demand are directed by work discretion or decision opportunity. The model's essential focus is the mental strain and physical ill-health that can arise from the collaboration of job demands and job choice. According to Karasek (1979), people work in four stress categories. "High strain" jobs are those with a mix of high job demands and low degrees of job choice. "Low strain" jobs have low degrees of interest and elevated levels of discretion. High job demands with an elevated level of circumspection would not be conducive to strain because these are "dynamic jobs," which permit the person to create defensive practices. "Passive jobs," marked by low interest and low discretion, will not energize such practices, bringing about decreased movement and educated powerlessness. A vital component of the model is the synergistic correlation between demands and choice. The end goal is the mix of high demand and lack of control, which develops a strain effect greater than the additive effect of the two variables (Fletcher, 1993).

Karasek's (1979) work demands-control model theorizes two workplace components—work demands and work control. These components affect a person's degree of prosperity and the nature of his or her working life. The model proposes that mental stress results not from either part of the workplace alone but rather from the joint impacts of the two factors (Sargent, 2000). In particular, the model predicts that job stress results from the connection between employment demands and work control. As indicated by Karasek (1979), work demands mirror the measure of work required from the worker and the degree to which the person in question needs to work under time constraints, while work control alludes to the degree to which the employee can apply influence over tasks and responsibilities during an ordinary working day. Occupation stress exists when elevated employment demands and low authority levels over these demands (Sargent, 2000).

According to Fletcher (1993), the Karasek model has been extensively tested with respect to mental stress and job dissatisfaction. However, the model has run into difficulties in authentic, naturalistic working environments. Ganster and Fusilier (1989) criticized the model in a point-by-point analysis because the operationalization of the idea of job discretion consolidated control with skill variety. Other criticisms highlight the focal concept that demands and choice produce interactive rather than additive effects, and still, other research does not support the idea of job discretion (Landsbergis, 1988; Payne & Fletcher, 1983; Spector, 1987; Warr, 1991). A study by Perrewe and Ganster (1989) offered partial backing, but Dwyer and Ganster (1991) found that the idea of job discretion countenances both absenteeism and job satisfaction.

Karasek (1979) suggested that work circumstances could be classified in terms of the balance they offer among the workers' demands and the level of control an employee can apply to those demands. The aim was to understand the connection between the type of work and health (Bal Tastan, 2016). The model was extended to study support at work, resulting in the demand-control-support, or DCS model. High demands and low choice latitude capture many types of work, while low help diminishes health and well-being. A single resource adding to mental resilience may be inversely related to work stress.

In contrast, work overload as a job demand will be strongly related to work stress. Karasek's model proposes that having authority will diminish the degree of employment stress and organizational support. By contrast, having support from the organization, coworkers, and administrators will be negatively related to perceived work stress (Bal Tastan, 2016).

The job demands-control-support (DCS) model was expanded to take into account support and the demands of the job the individual faces in the working environment, according to Bal Tastan (2016). Work characterized by high demands, low choice latitude, and low help leads to diminished worker health and prosperity (de Jonge et al., 2000; Dollard & Winefield, 1998). Psychological work demands, or job-related tasks, are characterized by Karasek (1979) as mental stressors present in the workplace (e.g., high weight of time, high working pace, troublesome and intellectually demanding work). The idea of "work choice latitude" has been depicted as the employee's capacity to control his/her exercises and expertise use (Karasek & Theorell, 1990). As per the DCS model view, mental stress is an outcome of the joint impacts of a job's demands and the latitude

of employer control (de Jonge & Kompier, 1997). These collective impacts are also called interaction effects. The DCS model suggested that most strong adverse strain reactions, such as sudden weakness and decreased prosperity, will occur when job demands are high, and workers' control is low. Moreover, the model proposed that work motivation, wealth, learning, and development will happen in circumstances where job demands and employee control are high (i.e., in dynamic jobs) (Bal Tastan, 2016).

Furthermore, the extended three-dimensional DCS model hypothesis contended that starting points of work stress were arranged in the organizational parts of the workplace instead of the broader socioeconomic environment (Karasek, 1979). The model indicated that employees with jobs merging high demands, low control, and low help from managers or collaborators were at the highest risk for work stress (Bruin & Taylor, 2006; Johnson & Hall, 1988).

Interestingly, when elevated occupation demand and control levels exist, the job is portrayed as "dynamic," implying that the demands operate as a source of challenge and recovery rather than mental and physical pressure. Karasek's (1979) work demands-control model's focal claim is that elevated work control levels shield the worker from the unsafe impacts of demanding work. Conversely, a work setting low in work demands and control is viewed as "detached." After some time, employees may develop the inability to make decisions, manage problems, and meet people's high expectations. Karasek's model's fourth quadrant indicates that workers with elevated levels of control and insignificant work demands will encounter "low stress." This sort of workplace may

prompt weariness and skill atrophy, from which adverse health outcomes are conceivable (Dwyer & Ganster, 1991).

As noted by Sargent (2000), various researchers have thought about how other organizational and dispositional qualities may direct the impacts of high work pressure and low work control by employees. In this vein, Fletcher (1991) suggested that job stress is a function of three noteworthy job attributes: demands, limitations (e.g., work control and independence), and supports (e.g., physical, scholarly, specialized, and social assets). If assistance is available in the organizational framework, less energy is required to adapt to high employment demands under low control states. Additionally, Karasek and Theorell (1990) reconfigured the demands-control model to incorporate social help. The demands-control-support model predicts worker stress should be the highest when high work pressure is accompanied by low degrees of work control and social support (Sargent, 2000).

NCAA Athletics Programs

According to Copeland (1995), the work-related demands placed on sports administrators in the NCAA (i.e., the National Collegiate Athletic Association, the athletic organization comprising Division I, II, and III colleges and universities) are increasing. The development of college athletics has required athletic administrators to proceed with the traditional business functions of planning, employing, and advertising. For example, athletic administrators are responsible for identifying emerging tasks, complying with gender and administrative guidelines, monitoring licensing requirements, and securing external resources. The impact of an increasingly pragmatic and complex

profession has affected administration training (DeSensi et al., 1990; NASPE, 1987). As part of their organizational structure, more than two-thirds of NCAA Division I and II schools presently utilize compliance officers to help with internal operations (Copeland, 1995).

In 1973, the NCAA, an independent organization, was divided into Divisions I, II, and III (Bass, 2015). The top revenue producers were grouped into Division I, where competitors were eligible to receive full athletic grants covering educational and lodging costs. Division II competitors could receive fractional athletic grants, whereas Division III competitors could not receive grants dependent on athletic legitimacy (Yost, 2010). In the late 1990s, Division I was restructured into the Division I-A, I-AA, and I-AAA categories, with income as the primary filtering mechanism (Yost, 2010). Eventually, the NCAA's divisions were pegged to the financing of athletic projects, grants for student-athletes, and fan awareness (Bass, 2015).

According to Bass (2015), Division II membership consists of more than 110,000 Division II student-athletes across 300 Division II membership institutions. The most notable contrast between the Division II model and the other NCAA divisions is the student-athletes grant and aid model. Division II institutions follow the fractional grant model for student-athletes. In some cases, under a system called an "equivalency" framework, each sport is granted various full grants awarded to student-athletes. For instance, at the Division II level, every football team receives what amounts to 36 full grants, and teams are permitted to divide this allocation across a roster that may approach 100 student-athletes (Bass, 2015).

The Division II financial operating model gives NCAA schools a practical technique to regulate athletic programs (Bass, 2015). The technique has reduced operating expenses compared to the Division I level, leading, for example, to lower enrollment and travel uses and more affordable offices and mentors. Division II schools can work without huge payments from TV agreements and ticket sales (Bass, 2015).

Background on Historically Black Colleges and Universities

After the Civil War, more than one hundred public and private higher academic institutions were established to serve African American students in the south and some border states (U.S. Department of Education, 2020). These universities and colleges are referred to as Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs). HBCUs have gained fiscal help and program funding from their rivalries with Predominantly White Institutions (PWIs), although the allotment increases for African Americans enrolling in HBCUs have consistently declined from 18.4% in 1976 to 10.6% in 2007 (National Center for Education Statistics, 2011). Black students and administrators have been actively recruited by the better supported and increasingly prominent PWIs that once barred or overlooked these students (La Noue, 2014).

According to La Noue (2014), a significant part of ethnic culture consists of athletic competitions combined with musical shows and other social events at many HBCUs. A Grambling versus Southern game, frequently held in the Louisiana Superdome, is a significant cultural display, where the marching bands are as competitive as the football teams (Davis, 2003). Such contests have been brought into public awareness by numerous regular-season Southeastern Conference games attended by a

median of 76,719 fans in 2011 (Jonson, 2011). Since desegregation, vast numbers of

athletes playing for Southeastern Conference institutions are African American, a pattern

that would not have been conceivable in the Jim Crow period (La Noue, 2014). Presently,

there are 107 HBCUs (U.S. Department of Education, 2011). Preceding integration, these

institutions delivered professional athletes in numbers out of proportion to their

enrollment or facilities. A total of 47 different HBCUs have had players drafted into the

NBA. From 1947 (the year the NBA draft started) to 2011, 7527 players were drafted

from universities and colleges to play in the NBA. Of these, 176 originated from HBCUs,

or roughly 2.3% of all players drafted into the NBA from HEIs (La Noue, 2014).

   With the end of segregation, highly skilled black athletes became actively selected

into initially all-white organizations, while HBCUs battled to remain competitive (La

Noue, 2014). Integration has reshaped many universities in the US. Still, HBCUs played

a significant role in African American students' life and training when the fight for

opportunity and equity was still in progress. HBCU students continue to accomplish more

with less and deliver prominence beyond what is expected of them (La Noue, 2014).

The Role of the Athletic Director

   Athletic director (AD) positions are often categorized as either external or

internal, depending on how they function with managerial support groups (Wood, 2018).

For example, external positions involve advertising, upgrades, ticket deals, and media

relations, highlighting the AD's philanthropy skills as well as the fundraising,

negotiating, planned communication, sponsorship deals, and managerial abilities

expected of the position (Suggs, 2005). Internal positions involve compliance, business

activities, scholastics, and life skills. Office administrators have not been viewed as fringe employees, meaning that an administrator could turn into an assistant or associate athletic director. However, making the transition to an AD position can be difficult (Wood, 2018).

According to Wood (2018), ADs are expected to raise money, organize contractual agreements, oversee lead trainers, and provide budgetary oversight. The job of present-day university athletic administrators thus resembles that of a corporate CEO. Because of athletic departments' changing demands, college presidents hope to recruit applicants with a wide scope of skills and experience since they are accountable for self-supporting entertainment organizations while keeping up satisfactory scholastic performance by student-athletes (Duderstadt, 2003). Business educators Piercy and Forbes (1991) proposed that effective decision-makers typically take on such roles. Their useful ability, or range of capabilities, can influence their upward mobility in the business world.

Forester (2015) noted that ADs across the country had felt the impacts of a stressed economy. An ever-increasing number of athletic programs are being compelled to work with reduced funding. Car washes, bake sales, and other modern money-making fundraising goals do not deliver adequate funds to help an interscholastic sports program. Athletic leaders are thus turning to subsidized grants, sponsorships, and in-kind gifts. Athletic program leaders must recognize accessible financing opportunities and find a way to make a unique, viable plan (Forester, 2015).

According to Cheeks (2016), HBCU athletic programs face enormous challenges, both socially and economically, in intercollegiate sports. HBCU athletic directors and their administrative staff have had to redefine their position collectively, reshaping how they are perceived under the NCAA's present organization. Furthermore, they have highlighted what is entailed by being an HBCU and the social ramifications that accompany this designation. HBCU athletic programs have been generally minimized in the NCAA structure because of limited resources (Cheeks, 2016). HBCUs must thus counter the negative views associated with low-resource institutions that are disparately represented in the NCAA (Cheeks & Carter-Francique, 2015). Likewise, the systemic racism underlying foundational resource hardship requires a re-evaluation of what procedures can be used to achieve full equality (Cheeks, 2016).

The funding resources for interscholastic athletic projects across the nation are well-known, becoming increasingly restricted (Forester, 2015). Reduction in finances (Popke, 2003) and Title IX consistency (Bravo, 2004; Howard & Crompton, 2004) are just two of the numerous budgetary issues for NCAA Division II athletic departments. Accordingly, coaches and athletic directors' range of abilities should now include sound budgetary administration. Coaches and athletic administrators need to know where to search for other subsidizing sources. Funding sources may be either public or private. Public sources of financing involve legally restricted dollars. Private sources incorporate grants, sponsorships, and gifts subsidized by revenue-driven organizations. Private financing frequently incorporates support from numerous charitable associations, as well (Forester, 2015).

Funding

Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) have customarily educated much of the country's African American population. HBCUs continue confronting significant difficulties while endeavoring to upgrade their scholastic and research capacities, according to Johnson (2013). These institutions face various challenges, such as maturing resource frameworks, restricted access to advanced and remote systems administration innovation, the lack of top equipment, low compensation structures, small grants, and constrained assets for personnel improvement and new scholastic projects for their students. Similar problems exist across a range of different organizations; nonetheless, these issues have become increasingly salient in HBCUs (Johnson, 2013)

In recent years, HBCU athletic programs have experienced significant changes. In 2015, NCAA Division II school Paine College dropped the football program, according to Elliott and Kellison (2019). Stillman College moved from an NCAA school to an NAIA university after a year and cut everything except for four sports. In 2017, Savannah State University dropped down from a Division I organization to a Division II institution. When significant changes like these happen at HBCUs, a deficiency of resources and fiscal responsibility are the typical reasons given to disappointed students, alumni, and fans. For instance, Paine College's suspension of their football program was cast as a strategy to "immovably set up the school's financial strength" (Davis, 2015, para. 3). Likewise, Savannah State's transition to Division II came because "it wasn't monetarily practical to keep playing in [the] NCAA Division I" context (Heath, 2017, para. 2).

HBCU administrators refer to funding college programs as the top difficulties confronting their colleges (Elliott & Kellison 2019).

Student-athletes at HBCUs have higher Federal Graduation Rates (FGRs) than the general student population (Johnson, 2013). In this connection, Johnson (2013) overheard one university president say, "perhaps we ought to solicit [all] our students to become student-athletes" (p. 6). Expanding these achievements to the general student body at these campuses presents some fascinating challenges. There are critical resource challenges at HBCUs and other limited-resource institutions, though limited resources may not represent the entirety of the gaps created by institutional mission differences and other financial variables. In any case, resource impediments impact an institution's ability to develop and actualize academic success programs (Johnson, 2013).

The athletic programs at four HBCUs spent under $5 million in costs in 2011, according to (The NCAA Division I Athletic Funding Crisis, 2015). Each of the four institutions indicated that at least half of their income originated from distributed sources. HBCUs, in general, required the appropriation of over 80% of their funding needs from designated sources to keep their athletic programs operational. The four schools just mentioned created a consolidated figure of $410,083 in commitments during 2011, or 2% of their yearly costs. By contrast, the seven majority-white schools that spent more than $100 million in this same year created $222,149,705 in contributions or 28% of their annual expenses. The gap in commitments between the groups is not surprising, as the top seven schools have more games, competitors, and coaches to help than the latter four schools (The NCAA Division I Athletic Funding Crisis, 2015).

Moreover, the gap in the amount of cash raised by the two groups of institutions is not surprising, considering the advantages received (e.g., desired tickets, parking spaces, access) for commitments to PWIs, together with their relative prominence and visibility. For instance, a PWI in Texas received more than $42 million in rights and licensing charges in 2011 (Elliott & Kellison, 2019). There is also a major difference in the levels of support the two groups of institutions receive from boosters. Therefore, student charges and state reserves are propping up the four schools with under $5 million in costs. However, these schools generate next to no income inside the division and must work to gather significant commitments (The NCAA Division I Athletic Funding Crisis, 2015).

Elliott and Kellison (2019) noted that major changes to HBCU athletic divisions have occurred over the past 20 years. Because HBCU athletic contests are something other than athletic occasions, with these social encounters including the battle of the bands, parades, and school fairs (Cianfrone et al. 2010), many HBCUs derives a considerable part of their annual income from "football classics" held yearly at neutral destinations and featuring games between rival teams. An example of this productive undertaking, and the most established HBCU classic, is a game that pits Tuskegee University against Morehouse College and that is held annually in Columbus, Georgia. The classic has been played each year since 1902, and the income that it generates helps bolster the schools' athletic department spending plans for the entire year (Seymour, 2006). Despite the financial benefits of such occasions, numerous HBCU athletic departments have detailed budgetary deficiencies (Trahan, 2016).

Given the constrained financial resources available to HBCU athletic departments, administrators in these offices regularly experience elevated stress levels (Elliott & Kellison, 2019). Job insecurity and the lack of financial resources are two primary factors that have caused stress among administrators in HBCU athletic offices (Robbins et al., 2015). HBCUs' financial strain can be hazardous for athletic administrators, especially when attempting to pull in the best coaches and student-athletes (Cooper & Hawkins, 2012).

According to Dunn (2013), one could reasonably contend that HBCUs' financing disparities, involving similar schools within the same conferences, comes down to institutional priorities. Some schools will continue spending whatever is necessary for them to have winning teams. With an end goal in view, some low-resourced schools will look for new income streams, including more access to institutional assets. However, looking for new income can be stressful, given the growing concerns about student expenses, rising educational costs, and diminishing state support. For this reason, other low-resourced schools may decide to hold their course while attempting to compete, recognizing that winning at all costs has its disadvantages (Dunn, 2013).

According to Elliott and Kellison (2019), some institutions may choose to drop down a division where the expenses are not as high or align with a conference marked by lower expenditures. There can be no disputing that there is a vast imbalance in financing opportunities for athletic programs. The distinctions are evident nationally and among the institutions making up the HBCU and PWI subgroups. Indeed, when conferences were

first proposed, the idea was to have groups aligned according to institutional profiles, geographic areas, and related monetary assets (Elliott & Kellison, 2019).

Each NCAA Division member body has a faculty athletics representative (FAR) who fills in as a contact between the athletic office and college authorities (Bass, 2015). Institutional leaders know about the athletic division's income and working costs. While a few athletic programs are housed under their own institutions' umbrella, other athletic divisions work independently as an auxiliary unit in many HBCU institutions (Clotfelter, 2011; Thelin, 1996). Due to an athletic division's characteristic dependence on outside elements, such as corporate patrons, ticket deal incomes, and transmission payouts from its athletic meetings, athletic offices resemble a business more closely than other college departments (Clotfelter, 2011). Athletic department budgets can be equivalent to professional schools on campus, including engineering, law, or medicine (Thelin, 1996). On occasions in which income related to athletic office money does not meet working costs, athletic divisions get appropriations from the college (Bass, 2015).

Facility Management

In the United States, Black college athletes take an interest in nearly all intercollegiate sports programs. Black college athletes have established significant participation in the two highest revenue-generating sports: football and men's basketball (Wiggins, 2003). Despite these patterns, African American student-athletes' participation has not reflected their opportunities for participation and inclusion in the broader US society. In order to understand the current racial, athletic, and financial imbalances

among intercollegiate athletic facilities at PWIs versus HBCUs, it is necessary to look at the origins and development of these programs (Cooper, 2014).

According to McCarthy (2017), attempting to upgrade the facilities of an athletics program at a college or university on a limited budget can bring many problems. Research on the issues influencing students' decisions to attend HEIs is relevant in this connection (Reynolds 2007). Studies have concentrated on understanding the stages of the choice procedure and the individual, financial, and other factors that impact enrollment decisions. A significant number of these investigations have taken into account how institutions' physical condition can be a deciding factor (Reynolds, 2007).

Students at public and private schools differ in their views about the facilities that had the greatest effect on their choice (Reynolds, 2007). Students going to public institutions stated that off-campus private facilities, facilities in their major, "innovation" facilities, building and science labs, recreation, and athletic facilities were more significant in their enrollment choice than their counterparts at private institutions. Students going to private institutions stated that private facilities nearby, study halls, varsity athletic facilities, and "public space" facilities were essential to their enrollment choice. As for the library, student association, and "other" facilities, the students' preference rankings were similar. Students at private institutions were more interested in nearby living arrangement facilities than their peers at public institutions; thus, 87.3% of the students going to a private institution lived nearby in their first year, contrasted with 60.7% at public institutions (Reynolds, 2007).

As noted by Theune (2016), public HBCUs depend on state funding and student enrollment for income. As state and government appropriations decrease, HBCUs face the resource burden caused by ever-growing expenses. Athletic administrators face spending cuts, cutbacks, rising educational costs, and monetary difficulties. Division II colleges and universities must sponsor five sports for men and five for women (or four for men and six for women), including two team activities for each gender. Each playing season is represented by both men's and women's teams (NCAA, 2014). In contrast to collegiate sports in general, Black student populations have almost no involvement with or interest in golf, tennis, and swimming (Dees, 2004) because of racial or financial issues. These trends affect students' access to the facilities and funding that influence sports support patterns (Hodge et al., 2008).

As Cooper (2014) argues, HBCUs have been shamefully disadvantaged since their inception because of the racialized chain of command in the US and the proliferation of discriminatory social, financial, instructive, and political practices. Lee and Jones (2013) have pointed to the unjust impoverishment and other difficulties confronting HBCUs in the 21st century. Institutions underfunded and under-resourced for more than 100 years do not suddenly wake up to find that they have what they need when it comes to facilities, infrastructure, and funding, such that they can match institutions with a 100-year head start. Because HBCUs have not had a viable budget in past years, suddenly coming into those funds would be like running the 100-yard dash with one contender beginning in the locker room while the other begins near the finish line (Cooper, 2014).

Roster Management

Athletics can have a meaningful direct effect on enrollment at smaller universities and colleges. The presence of various sports teams can attract new students to a university or college (Wright, 2017). Numerous small universities and colleges have used sports as a means to achieve the end goal of expanding overall enrollment (Asburn, 2007; Kurz et al., 2007; Mills, 2014; Sander, 2008). In any case, it is important to consider both the advantages and the costs when it comes to growing enrollment through athletic programs (Wright, 2017).

There is the perception that athletic grants are granted to colleges and university students based on their apparent ability in a chosen sport (Beaver, 2014). Athletic grants have been standard practice at the majority of colleges in the United States for many years. The number of athletes on campus usually represents a small percentage of the regular student body. Their peers often view athletes as specialists who execute a service in support of the college. The circumstances are somewhat different at Ivy League and similar institutions that regularly get many applications for a predetermined number of slots in the freshman class yet fill large athletic teams. Being an athlete can give a significant advantage in gaining admission to these institutions, given that the universities must fill their teams' rosters (Beaver, 2014).

Thus, according to Beaver (2014), institutions select athletes to increase or balance out enrollments. However, this technique has been introduced quite recently, and only a few studies have examined the phenomenon as institutions in different divisions use sports to grow enrollments. Higher education costs make recruiting sufficient

numbers of students for each class difficult, and sports speak to a possible solution (Beaver, 2014).

Meanwhile, as Davies (2015) notes, college athletic administrators have had to adjust to a significant level of competition in the face of cost-cutting measures implemented by their institutions. There is considerable pressure on athletic departments to deliver conference and national titles, especially in revenue-producing sports such as men's basketball and football. The national recognition that results can help enhance the visibility of the entire institution. Athletic departments serve as brand ministers by being one of the most noticeable divisions on campus and functioning as significant income generators. Universities and colleges support NCAA sports in order to promote athletic accomplishments, increase national acknowledgment, sell tickets, boost incomes, raise institutional support more generally (Martinez et al., 2010; Meer & Rosen, 2009), and improve enrollment numbers (Chressanthis & Grimes, 1993; Jones, 2009; Judson, 2004; Letawsky et al., 2003; McEvoy, 2006; Toma & Cross, 1998). Despite generous financial plans, however, most HBCU athletic departments work in a deficit when it comes to accomplishing these operational benefits (Davies, 2015).

Athletic departments face pressure to realize the monetary and reputational gains that come with succeeding at the national level (Davies, 2015). To contend at a significant level, considerable funds are allocated to recruiting the best student-athletes. The top 35 spenders on student-athlete recruitment at the Division I level spent somewhere in the range of $1,000,000 and $2,229,600 for the 2011 recruitment year (Jessop, 2012). The programs outside of this group of high spenders cannot allocate the

same level of funding to their recruitment endeavors, and this disparity puts them at a distinct competitive disadvantage. The rewards earned from winning programs are encouraged by a mixture of components, including coaches, facilities, and monetary support. However, even the most skilled and inspirational coaches will be unsuccessful if they lack talented recruits (Judson, 2004). Hence, as noted by Judson (2004), athletic departments must recruit effectively if they are to achieve competitiveness.

There is an extensive body of literature concerning the elements that influence choices among colleges and universities by general first-year students as well as student-athletes (Garbert et al., 1999; Judson et al., 2004; Letawsky et al., 2003; Mathes & Gurney, 1985). Critical factors for first-year students' college decisions include institutional attributes such as cost, size, distance from home, the range and quality of academic programs, and the availability of aid (Avery & Hoxby, 2004; Long, 2004; Montgomery, 2002; Niu et al., 2006). Athletic programs have become a focal point for students investigating the general social climate of a given campus (Toma & Cross, 1998). Likewise, researchers have distinguished among various decision-making factors for student-athletes. Letawsky (2003) categorized these decision factors into four classes: (a) athletic and scholastic reputation of the university, (b) qualities of recruiting team and head coach, (c) attributes of the institution experienced during the campus visit, and (d) global impacts of family, friends, and broader social networks. Studies have shown that potential student-athletes consider a school's overall institutional qualities as much as the elements that affect them directly in their role as student-athletes (Davies, 2015).

One key advantage of sports is name recognition and exposure (Cook, 2013; Goff, 2000). Such benefits accrue to nationally prominent athletic programs (Wright, 2017). Yet small universities, too, can profit from the exposure created by athletic teams. Exposure by nearby media can expand name recognition for a university or college both locally and nationally. Contingent upon the degree of athletic achievement, even national acknowledgment is conceivable. Achievement in the athletic domain can create enthusiasm from potential students who otherwise might not have known about the school. Another advantage comes in the form of student enrollment. Suppose the student-athletes who were recruited had not gone to the university or college. In that case, without the existing athletic programs, there would be fewer students enrolled at the university overall. Because not all student-athletes are on a fully-funded grant, their enrollment grows the university's income (Wright, 2017).

Further, coaches and administrators for the athletic teams fill in as recruiters for the university or college (Wright, 2017). Coaches can spread the university or college name a lot farther than might otherwise be possible via exposure from athletic events. They can also focus on an entirely new segment of potential student-athletes who may not have considered the institution an option before their recruitment. It is not just that the recruitment of student-athletes will increase enrollment at the university; what is more, there will likely be the additional enrollment of friends and classmates of the student-athletes. Given the impact of verbal exchanges in the decision-making process (Kerin & Hartley, 2016, p. 102), positive statements about the university or college by student-athletes could bring about a vast increase in participation by their friends.

A further advantage of using athletics to boost enrollment is improving student life through athletics programs (Wright, 2017). Numerous students consider participation at athletic events to be a significant piece of the university experience. To the degree that an athletic program enriches students' lives on campus, athletics might likewise contribute to increased student enrollment. If a university has an exceptionally productive athletic program, participation at athletic events will produce income for the establishment. Successful athletic programs may likewise create funding commitments from private sources (Wright, 2017).

Transition and Summary

Chapter 1 outlined the background to the problem. There is a lack of research on job-related stress experienced by athletic administrators in particular. This phenomenological study investigated athletic administrators' experiences and their perception of job satisfaction relative to job-related stress. The study seeks to close a gap in previous research by focusing on how athletic administrators' managerial strategies are influenced by resources, facilities management, and roster management and how those strategies affect job satisfaction and job-related stress. In addition to providing the background for the research, the study's key problem and purpose, the research questions, nature and significance of the study, and the theoretical framework for the research, the chapter also presented the study's assumptions, limitations, and delimitations. The key terms were also defined to provide a better understanding of the analytic approach.

The literature review covered how the stress of ADs is an essential issue in collegiate sports. Administrators' managerial stress can be influenced by strategies related to resource-related pressures, outside media, and program-related demands by colleagues (Judge, 2009). While unwanted conditions may cause turnover, stress, incompetence, and medical issues, burnout at work can lead to a better work-life balance and increased productivity (Burton et al., 2006). Railey and Tschauner (1993) stated that administrators are likely to experience more stress than their coworkers due to their occupations. The everyday managerial challenges or stressors that athletic administrators face in their working environment can be interesting and intense, depending upon the event or occasion (Judge, 2009). Previous research on job satisfaction, job-related stress, funding, facilities, roster management, and the nature of the AD's role was also discussed.

Chapter 2 addresses the main research questions of this study and presents information about the research method used to study HBCU administrators' managerial strategies and their influence on job satisfaction and job-related stress. Further, the chapter discusses the researcher's role, the research method and design used for the study, and the population sample on which the analysis is based. In addition, it details the demographic characteristics of the participants, data collection procedure, and strategies used for analyzing the participants' responses. Other aspects of the study discussed in this chapter include the sampling techniques used and the reliability and validity of the findings. Chapter 3 presents the main research findings, the applications of the study to professional practice, and the wider implications of the research.

CHAPTER 2: THE PROJECT

According to Adebayo et al. (2001), HBCUs have assumed a significant role in improving the Black community, past and present. From their inception in 1837, these institutions have given opportunities to numerous students of color who otherwise might not have received an opportunity to get an advanced education. HBCU athletic departments have also celebrated the institutions' heritage; sadly, however, these departments today face numerous difficulties within an overarching NCAA structure that places HBCUs at a disadvantage when it comes to managing facilities, engaging athletes, and gaining the opportunity to increase revenue (Cheeks, 2015).

Recognizing the legacies of racial intolerance in American culture situates the inconsistencies among HBCU institutions in a legitimate socio-authentic setting, according to Cheeks (2015). HBCU sports and their counterparts at PWIs continue to operate with a logic based on the opposition between the "haves" versus the "have not's"—a logic founded on racial oppression (Cheeks & Carter-Francique, 2015). Issues of job satisfaction and job-related stress, and the connection between racism and the appropriation of resources in HEIs in the United States, shed further light on the difficulties faced by HBCUs (Cheek, 2015).

Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory and Karasek's job demands-control (and, later, DCS) model provide a framework for investigating these issues in the context of HBCUs' athletic departments. Using this framework, the present study explores the managerial strategies and points of view of HBCU athletic administrators. More specifically, it examines their ideas of job satisfaction and job-related stress in the current

SIAC and CIAA structure. The study illuminates the decisions of persons in positions of power, with a view to creating progressive change and implementing strategies that support the development and persistence of HBCU athletics.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of the study is to raise awareness of how managerial strategies used by athletic administrators employed at NCAA Division II HBCU institutions affect job satisfaction and job-related stress. The research analyzed the responses of administrators who are in a position to promote change and execute strategies that help with the advancement and preservation of HBCU sports. The study intended to show how the effects of operational and HR-related managerial strategies made by athletic administrators with limited resources can affect efforts to develop a successful athletic program in intercollegiate sports.

According to Summer (2010), purposive sampling permitted the researcher to choose a range of study participants with characteristics that meet the study's condition. The present investigation was based on a purposive sample of college and university athletic administrators in the SIAC and CIAA conferences. The sample included athletic administrators from the SIAC and CIAA conferences with one to thirty years of athletic administration experience. The institutions where the study participants are employed feature at least ten sponsored sports, including football.

Role of the Researcher

The study used a qualitative phenomenological approach to examine how athletic administrators implement managerial strategies to establish and maintain successful

athletic programs. Ensuring the rigor and credibility of the research process is the responsibility of the researcher in a qualitative study, according to Creswell (2017). The primary role of the researcher is to develop questions that, by drawing on the lived experience of participants, address the central concerns of the study. Specifically, questions should model a constructive interpretation of reality (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The bracketing process allows the researcher to separate his or her own perceptions of a phenomenon from those of the participants (Creswell, 2017). By the same token, the bracketing process enables participants to express their individual experiences and perceptions (Creswell, 2017). The researcher must create a constructive environment and exhibit professionalism while interacting with each participant through verbal expressions, tone of voice, and active listening without prejudgment. The researcher's role is to ensure the interviewee stays focused on the interview questions and responds to those questions based on their lived experiences. The researcher protected participants' privacy and confirmed each participant's permission to have their answers recorded accurately with a digital recording device (Creswell, 2017).

The researcher is currently an athletic administrator at a Division II HBCU and, more than 25 years earlier, was an HBCU three-sport athlete at Saint Paul's College. Saint Paul's College was excluded from the study site selection since it is no longer a viable institution; however, the study includes one participant from the university where the researcher is currently employed. The researcher anticipates becoming a leader by learning from the participants' lived experiences with job satisfaction and job-related stress, thus reducing the possibility of researcher prejudgment. A phenomenological

approach allows the researcher to investigate participants' lived experiences and regular daily happenings (Moustakas, 1994). In this case, the participants who share their lived experiences may contribute to social change.

Participants

The participants targeted for this study are athletic administrators at HBCUs situated in the NCAA's Division II. The athletic administrators represent HBCU athletic programs with membership in the Southern Intercollegiate Athletic Association (SIAC) and the Central Intercollegiate Athletic Associate (CIAA). A directory of athletic administrators was compiled from NCAA and used to identify the participants targeted for this study.

Research Method and Design

The study relied on qualitative methods, collecting data through an interview process. The main research questions focus on HBCU athletic administrators' lived experiences to determine the different managerial strategies they have used to establish and maintain successful athletic programs. To address these research questions, the study relied on semi-structured interviews consisting of eight questions.

Research Method

The study used a qualitative research method based on in-person interviews with the study participants (Creswell, 2017). A qualitative methodology is frequently used for exploring lived experiences in studies involving the constructive interpretation of reality (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). A qualitative method is appropriate in this case since there is a lack of research regarding different managerial strategies

implemented by HBCU athletic administrators to establish and maintain successful athletic programs.

A qualitative design, therefore, is appropriate for the study. A quantitative design would have been appropriate if the objective was to determine a correlation among variables or generalize the outcomes to a larger population (Rudestam & Newton, 2007). Quantitative research aims are best understood in terms of concepts such as forecast, control, and hypothesis testing (Merriam, 2009). Qualitative research objectives comprise understanding, explanation, finding, and importance (Merriam, 2009). As Lincoln and Guba (1985) clarified, qualitative research is intended to capture the landscape of an experience as socially created.

Research Design

The research used the phenomenological design method. According to Moustakas (1994), a phenomenological study brings added dimensions to studying human experiences through qualitative research. Three strands of philosophical inquiry have influenced the phenomenological research design: phenomenology, hermeneutics, and ideography (Smith et al., 2009). Drawing on the ideas of Husserl, Heidegger, Merleau-Ponty, and Sartre, phenomenological research designs are grounded in human science instead of the experimental sciences associated with positivism and behaviorism (Moustakas, 1994). In contrast to empirical science, where theory drives practice, the phenomenological design uses theory to clarify procedure (van Manen, 1990). Researchers who execute phenomenological studies describe the shared meaning of a phenomenon as encountered in persons' lived experiences (Creswell, 2013).

A phenomenological researcher's explanation of a phenomenon, such as sleeplessness, aims to express a general quintessence (Creswell, 2013). Contributors who have experienced the phenomenon share their observations concerning the lived experience, which researchers use to articulate a compound explanation (Creswell, 2013). The practice of phenomenology requires suspending assumptions or judgments about actuality "until they are founded on a more certain basis" (Creswell, 2013, p. 77).

According to van Manen (2014), Husserl deserves recognition as the creator of the phenomenological research design, though Johann Heinrich Lampert initially used the word "phenomenology" in his *Cosmological Letters* of 1764 as a label for the investigation of phenomena (van Manen, 2014). Predating Husserl, the two main influences on phenomenology were Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel, born in 1770 in Stuttgart, Germany, and Friedrich Nietzsche, born in 1844 Röcken, Saxony, Prussia. Hegel's focus on the dialectical process of consciousness was a precursor to the phenomenological method.

By naming things, Hegel argued, humans annihilate the things they name (van Manen, 2014). The loss of individuality created by naming allows people to detach themselves from an experience's uniqueness. Hegel also studied sense-experience, which leads to sense-certainty, the straight awareness of a thing, or perception as pure experience. For example, biting, chewing, and swallowing a grape is a sensory experience that is, in a way, damaged by the reflective linguistic act of using names for the experience. In addition to examining the sense-making aspect of consciousness, Hegel studied perception and understanding. Hegel argued that language permits

consciousness to classify experience, shadowed by further reflection. The second reflection helped develop the framework for an improved understanding of human authenticity (van Manen, 2014).

Ideography is the examination of records on a case-by-case basis, searching for patterns across the cases while precisely telling specific actions and situations (Dabengwa, 2020). Ideography entails identifying the distinctive portions of each case and then balancing them with what is characteristic or dissimilar from other facts (Allan & Eatough, 2016, p. 348). Therefore, ideography diverges from generalizing about groups to populations (Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2012, p. 364). In this way, ideography applies to subjective generalizations (e.g., within the data or setting) instead of external generalizations (Maxwell, 1992, p. 294).

Population and Sampling

The study population encompassed athletic directors who make managerial decisions and have one to 30 years of professorial experience. A valid study using qualitative research must recruit participants who are aware of the information being requested, are willing to partake in the questioning process, and are willing to reflect on the phenomenon through that process (Richards & Morse, 2007). Purposive sampling allows researchers to identify the most significant sources of data needed to answer a particular question (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Further, the purposive sampling used in phenomenological studies should include five to 25 individuals (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). The questions that were used in the present study are designed to capture the lived experiences of athletic administrators.

Purposive Sampling

The researcher used purposive sampling to recruit candidates for the study. A purposive sample consists of participants with specific characteristics outlined by the researcher (Sommer et al., 2010). Purposive sampling offers the best technique for data collection designed to answer a specific question (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), and purposive sampling for phenomenological studies should include five to 25 participants (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010).

The contact information for the athletic administrators was obtained through university websites. Those identified were contacted and recruited by email (see Appendix B) or telephone. A letter of introduction was used to contact athletic administrators and request their voluntary participation. Before the interview, a calendar reminder was sent out to participants to confirm the scheduled interview held via Zoom due to the COVID-19 pandemic. A consent form (see Appendix A) was emailed to participants for review and collected before the interviews began. A lack of interest in participating in the study causes a potential risk in sampling. If there are not enough participants to saturate the data, the potential to identify common meanings is limited (Creswell, 2017). To hedge against this possibility, athletic administrators from a variety of SIAC and CIAA institutions were targeted for the study.

Testing for data saturation was conducted after the initial pool of interviews and continued increments of two interviews until no new data were revealed (Creswell, 2017). Using the data from interviews with five to 25 subjects in a qualitative study is appropriate, according to Creswell (2017). The method was appropriate for the current

research, and as such, the targeted sample is athletic administrators that manage the athletic department with similar budgets.

Purposive sampling allows data to be collected about a subject while steering clear of the complications that affect randomized samples (Creswell, 2017). The most important benefits of a purposive sample include minimal cost and the ability to acquire information promptly that would otherwise be difficult to gather through another method, such as probability sampling (Creswell, 2017). The limitations of purposive sampling include minimal candidates and the possibility of sampling partiality due to the researcher's interaction with the target population. Due to these limitations, purposive sampling findings are not generalizable to the whole population (Creswell, 2017). A valid study using qualitative research must include participants who are aware of what information is required, are willing to contribute, and are eager to replicate the phenomenon (Richards & Morse, 2007). Purposive sampling can be the most effective method of data collection to answer a specific question (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Ethical Research

On July 12, 1974, the National Research Act (Pub. L. 93-348) was voted into law, thereby creating the National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research (Anabo, 2019). As Anobo (2019) notes, this commission produced the Belmont Report for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research. The commission was charged with recognizing and codifying the essential moral rules that underlie biomedical and social research involving human subjects and creating regulations that must be followed to guarantee that such

research is conducted according to those standards. In completing its report, the commission was to consider: (i) the limits of biomedical and behavioral research vis-à-vis the administering of medication, (ii) the use of risk-benefit analysis to ensure the appropriateness of research involving human subjects, (iii) applicable regulations for the determination of which human subjects should be involved in such exploration, and (iv) the nature and importance of informed consent in different research settings (Anabo, 2019).

Research ethics seek to guarantee the security of human subjects being investigated by the researcher (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2019). To this end, ethical guidelines call for knowledgeable agreement, participants' privacy, the secure storage of information, proper treatment of members, avoidance of possible unfavorable results for participants, and no monetary payout to participants. The elimination of data must occur after the investigation (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2019).

Before the study can begin, the researcher submits his or her proposal to the University of the Southwest Institutional Review Board (IRB) for approval before initiating contact with study candidates. The purpose of submitting the research proposal to the IRB is to safeguard all study participants' human rights. The IRB makes decisions about research incongruent with title 45 in the Code of Federal Regulations (CFR), part 46 (GPO.Gov, 2020). The IRB has access to the research proposal, and after approval, the IRB tracked the research's progress to decrease the risk of breaching any human rights in the study.

Once approval from the IRB is received, data collection for the study may begin. There is the possibility that some participants in the study may be concerned that their replies to the interview will be disclosed to their college or university, with this disclosure potentially placing their jobs in jeopardy. As such, the researcher is required to detail all measures that will be used to ensure that interview response data will be kept confidential (Creswell, 2017). The researcher is to provide a consent form verifying that all information is protected, and the candidate's signature will give the researcher permission to use those responses. Further, the agreement will inform the participants of their right to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty (Creswell, 2017). By failing to complete the interview, the candidate can withdraw from research passively notify the researcher directly by providing written notification to this effect (Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP), 2010).

The consent forms notified the candidate of how the data being collected was used and clarified that no inducement was given to any participants. The candidate received a notification ensuring them that no personal identifiers would be used and that all information will have full anonymity. The researcher's responsibility is to assure the study participants that all data obtained will be compiled and stored on a secured computer. The collected data was encrypted and used only by the researcher (Creswell, 2017). Each participant was notified once the information was collected, and all data will be destroyed after five years (Wiltshire, 2015). Participants' information was used in the final document and contained a USW IRB approval number. There will be no names of any kind that might be used to identify a person or organization that has provided

information. Each athletic administrator will be given an anonymous identification number.

Inclusion Criteria

The study's inclusion criteria are the following: included participants must be currently working as an NCAA Division II athletic administrator at an HBCU institution within the SIAC and CIAA. Recruiting was done using a purposive sampling technique. The candidates were invited to participate in the study based on their status as administrators working at a college or university in the SIAC and CIAA conferences with similar operational budgets (Creswell, 2017).

Exclusion Criteria

Criteria for exclusion from the study included those arising from the current pandemic, which has had a profound and rapid impact on higher education institutions across the world (Johnson et al., 2020). Further, administrators had to be willing to participate in the study and provide signed consent forms before taking part in the research. If the participant did not sign the informed consent form stating "yes," those who are not athletic administrators were not permitted to complete the interview process.

Data Collection Instruments

The study used a web-based application, Zoom, to record the interviews with study participants. Qualitative research uses interviews as the primary method of data collection (Adams, 2010). Participants who matched the selection standards were asked by email to participate in the study. A Zoom recording was collected from study participants to explore the research questions. The eight interview questions were

structured in accordance with a theoretical framework used to investigate the

participants' experiences, perceptions, and interpretations of issues of job satisfaction and

job-related stress as athletic administrators with limited resources. A structured interview

like those used in experimental situations would have been less helpful in producing

descriptive research findings (Adams, 2010; Seidman, 2013).

A semi-structured interview consists of a prearranged topic, a clear purpose, and a

clear structure; it is thus much more than an unstructured exchange of ideas. Qualitative

studies require sufficient interview data to identify themes or recurrent patterns of

response (Moustakas, 1994). The discussion between the researcher and participants in

the current study could lead to follow-up questions that were used to clarify and develop

the participants' testimonies. The participants were allowed to describe their stories,

experiences, and viewpoints in detail (Davidsen, 2009).

Interviews were recorded using Zoom's recording function. They began with an

acknowledgment of the participants for their voluntary contribution to the study. When

the participant was ready, the researcher began each interview by posing comprehensive

questions about the participant's managerial decision-making in order to prompt the

conversation (Seidman, 2013). The interview questions were designed to solidify a sense

of understanding and trust between the researcher and the participants (Seidman, 2013).

The generation of opulent descriptions is the primary aim of comprehensive data

collection (Seidman, 2013). The participants were asked the same eight questions to

guarantee the consistency and standardization of the study's interview process and data

collection. As areas of interest developed, the participants were asked follow-up

questions to broaden the discussion flow and allow participants to express their feelings, ideas, and insight into the phenomenon (Rubin & Rubin, 2011). The open-ended format permitted the clarification of participants' replies via follow-up questions (Seidman, 2013).

The researcher also used bracketing during the interviews. In phenomenological research, bracketing is the practice of suspending judgment about the participants' views to ensure that their own understandings of their lived experiences are valued (Giorgi, 2009). Bracketing is intended to provoke a sense of the phenomenon, to return to the experience of living with it before prejudgment (van Manen, 2014). A feeling of abnormality may complement the sense of wonder thereby created (van Manen, 2014). During the interview process, the researcher sought to demonstrate sensitivity, listening skills, and professional behavior (Seidman, 2013). The interviewer also sought to be unbiased and yet flexible in order to safeguard the study's reliability and validity (Seidman, 2013). The overall aim will be to acknowledge each participant's involvement in the phenomenon with precision, respect, and care (Seidman, 2013).

Data Collection Technique

The study relied on a web-based application, Zoom, to record the semi-structured interviews to collect data from study participants with similar operational budgets. Interviews were the primary data collection method in qualitative research (Adams, 2010). Participants who matched the inclusion criteria were asked by email to participate in the study. The recorded interviews allowed for an in-depth exploration of the research questions (Davidsen, 2009; Leedy & Ormrod, 2001). The eight interview questions were

structured in accordance with a theoretical framework used to investigate the participants' operational and managerial experiences, perceptions, and interpretations of issues of job satisfaction and job-related stress as athletic administrators with limited resources.

A semi-structured interview consists of a prearranged topic, a clear purpose, and a clear structure; it is much more than just an unstructured exchange of ideas (Adams, 2010). Qualitative studies require sufficient interview data to identify themes or recurrent patterns in participants' responses (Moustakas, 1994). The discussion between the researcher and participants in the present study may lead to follow-up questions to clarify and develop the participants' testimonies (Adams, 2010). The participants were allowed to describe their stories, experiences, and viewpoints in detail (Davidsen, 2009).

Data Organization Technique

The interviews took place via Zoom. The consent form was discussed and collected before the scheduled interview. All other issues regarding the study or interview process (e.g., data handling or the validation of transcripts) were likewise addressed. The interviews were recorded using Zoom's recording function; each interview began with an acknowledgment of the participants for their voluntary presence. When the participant was ready, the researcher began the interview by posing a comprehensive question to prompt the conversation. The interview was designed to foster a sense of understanding and trust between the researcher and the participants (Seidman, 2013).

The generation of sumptuous descriptions is, in general, the primary aim of comprehensive data collection. In this study, the participants were asked eight questions

to ensure the consistency of standardization of the interview process and data collection

for the study (Seidman, 2013). As areas of interest developed, the participants were asked

follow-up questions to broaden the discussion's flow and allow participants to express

their feelings, ideas, and insight into the phenomenon (Rubin & Rubin, 2011). The open-

ended format permits the clarification of participants' replies via follow-up questions

(Seidman, 2013).

In a phenomenological analysis, the organization of data commences as soon as

researchers begin to study the data before them (Moustakas, 1994). In this study, when

the interview process concluded, the researcher offered potential closing remarks and

thanked the individuals for sharing. The researcher summarized the interview and data

collection technique and advised the participants that the interview transcripts would be

made available to them for validation purposes, i.e., so that they could reread the

transcripts for correctness. Requests to validate the transcripts were included in a thank-

you email letter (see Appendix D). Further, the participants were given a summary of the

research results.

<center>**Data Analysis**</center>

The main objective of data analysis in a phenomenological study is to categorize

common themes in descriptions of lived experiences (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001). Such

descriptions formed the main unit of analysis for the present study and helped link the

lived experience of the phenomenon to the study's theoretical framework. Possible

themes in the data were explored through meaning units growing out of participants'

lived experiences (Moustakas, 1994). Accordingly, repetitive testimonials were removed

as the meaning units were organized into common categories or themes. Similes of meanings and themes were established. The textual similes allowed for the creation of structural descriptions of the participants' lived experiences (Moustakas, 1994). Multiple steps were used to identify important themes within the interview data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 2009; Smith et al., 2009; van Manen, 1990).

Reliability and Validity

Validity and reliability are key aspects of all research (Brink, 1993). In particular, these two aspects can become the difference between good research and poor research and help ensure that fellow researchers accept findings as credible and trustworthy. This is particularly vital in qualitative work. The researcher's subjectivity can so easily cloud the interpretation of the data, and where research findings are often questioned or viewed with skepticism by the scientific community (Brink, 1993).

Reliability

According to Joppe (2000), reliability can be defined as the extent to which outcomes are consistent over time. In this sense, an accurate depiction of the entire population under study gives rise to reliability. If a study's outcomes can be replicated under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered reliable (Golafshani, 2003). Reliability is a concept used for testing or assessing both qualitative and quantitative research.

The reliability of qualitative studies depends on researchers' methods of data collection and analysis (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Neuman, 2006). To assess reliability in the current study, the researcher needed to create safeguards against "early closure" based

on personal preconceptions, such that personal opinions did not color the data. Also, strategies of repetition and deliberation in data collection and analysis support reliability in research. Cunliffe (2003) notes that self-reflexivity helps researchers explore their own perceptions of reality, enhancing their attentiveness to different perceptions. Self-reflexivity in the present study has helped the researcher monitor her own expectations and biases regarding athletic administrators' understanding of their lived experiences.

Validity

Qualitative research must be consistent, trustworthy, and truthful while maintaining analytical accuracy to achieve validity (Ali & Yusof, 2011). However, whereas quantitative studies employ technical measures of validity, qualitative studies use the standards of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability to assess research validity (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Accounts of validity in research have identified three different components or types of validity, all of which are significant: content validity, criterion validity, and construct validity (Muijs, 2011):

1. Content Validity: alludes to whether or not the evident variable's content is appropriate for measuring the dormant concept that it is being used to measure.

2. Criterion Validity: alludes to whether the measures associated with a theoretical framework can foresee certain results. There are two kinds of criterion validity:

a. Predictive Validity: alludes to whether the instrument you are utilizing predicts the results that are anticipated by the theory.

b. Concurrent Validity: alludes to making less-rigid presumptions about anticipated results.

3. Construct Validity: alludes to the instrument's internal structure and the idea it is measuring.

In qualitative research, validity can be attained when data gathered via open-ended, unstructured interviews with strategically selected participants is analyzed appropriately (Muijs (2011).

Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness is an important characteristic of qualitative research discussed by Lincoln and Guba (1985). Trustworthiness concerns how the inquirer influences his or her audience by ensuring the study's outcomes are reliable. As Lincoln and Guba (1985) explained, in gauging trustworthiness, the audience must assess a study along four dimensions:

1. Truth-value: The audience may judge the results to be accurate and the framework in which the analysis took place to be true.

2. Applicability: The audience may decide that the study's methods and findings are relevant in different settings or with different subjects.

3.   Consistency: This dimension concerns the certainty with which the findings could be rehashed if the examination were recreated with similar subjects in a similar context.

4.   Neutrality: Along this dimension, the audience determines how much the study findings came about because of the investigation's subjects and conditions, rather than the inquirer's viewpoint and inclinations.

Over the last twenty years, much has been achieved by advocates of qualitative inquiry in demonstrating the rigor and trustworthiness of research (Lincoln & Guba 1985). Moreover, qualitative research focuses on data trustworthiness rather than data quantity. Qualitative research is important because it measures things that numbers might not define; qualitative methods sometimes identify trends before they show up in the quantitative data, thereby creating trustworthiness (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Credibility

Credibility refers to the internal validity of qualitative research; it signifies how trustworthy the investigation results are to the participants (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Neuman, 2006). To fortify the credibility of a study, the researcher must be patient and deliberate with subjects, permitting them sufficient time to comprehend and respond to questions (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Additionally, insights based on meetings with participants should be recorded in the form of notes (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Another strategy utilized to enhance the credibility of an investigation is the triangulation of sources (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Triangulation alludes to the cross-confirmation of information with additional sources or research techniques (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). In

the present study, many previous investigations were accumulated and assessed via the EndNote software program (Denzin, 2005). In this way, the investigations, which address athletic administrators, funding, roster management, and facility management (among other themes), could be triangulated with the present analysis.

Additionally, member checking and peer questioning improve credibility (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Member checking is returning information to participants to guarantee that the data is exact and mirrors their actual responses (Birt et al., 2016). Accordingly, in the present study, transcripts of interviews were sent to participants for checking. In the event a disagreement arose, the researcher was prepared to inspect the statement against the video recording to address any contradictions.

Peer questioning involves asking for advice from an unengaged peer about the theme under examination (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Advice from a disinterested peer may keep the researcher from arriving at an inappropriate conclusion. To this end, the researcher set up a peer-questioning meeting on Zoom with a professor based at the University of the Southwest in Hobbs, NM.

Transferability

Transferability is to qualitative studies what generalizability is to quantitative studies; it refers to the possibility of applying the study results to different circumstances or populations (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Transferability is conventionally achieved by providing readers with evidence that a study's results could be valid in other contexts. It is essential to note that the researcher cannot demonstrate that a study's outcomes will be transferable. Instead, the researcher can make available evidence that the results could be

relevant in other contexts. As Lincoln and Guba (1985, p. 316) put it, "It is, in summary, not the naturalist's task to provide an index of transferability; it is his or her responsibility to provide the database that makes transferability judgments possible on the part of potential appliers." The purposive sampling used in this study involved a number of different institutions, with the aim of producing results that might be transferable to a variety of contexts.

Confirmability

Confirmability refers to how readily the study results could be reproduced by another investigator in an alternate setting or time (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Neuman, 2006). There are several strategies for cultivating confirmability. The researcher can document the processes used to test and retest the data throughout the study. Further, another researcher can take a "devil's advocate" role with respect to the outcomes, and this alternative procedure can be documented. The researcher can also vigorously search for and define the negative instances that dispute previous observations. Finally, after completing the study, the researcher can conduct a data review, inspect the data collection and analysis processes, and search for potential bias or misrepresentation (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Neuman, 2006).

Data Saturation

Saturation happens when the relevant categories for examining data have been created, and no new significant information categories are found (Rudestam & Newton, 2007). Brod et al. (2009) found that between 88% and 92% of examination codes or topics were recognized after 12 interviews. Researchers judge the saturation point by

evaluating their notes and meeting records for common themes. If no new data are being produced after a predetermined number of meetings, the researcher may conclude that the key attributes and ideas have been discovered. Researchers should eliminate any overabundance of data in order to conclude the study. The researcher tested for data saturation by interviewing additional participants to make sure that no new themes surfaced (Baker & Edwards, 2012).

Transition and Summary

Chapter 2 provided a detailed explanation of the study design and research method. The phenomenological design is appropriate for investigating the managerial strategies implemented by athletic administrators facing limited resources and how those strategies bear on job satisfaction and job-related stress. The sample population of HBCU NCAA Division II athletic administrators in the SIAC and CIAA was deemed appropriate for investigating the research question: What strategies do ADs at HBCUs implement to manage departments with limited resources?

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

Introduction

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to explore the different strategies athletic administrators implement in order to foster successful athletic programs. Data was collected through semi-structured interviews. The interviews were conducted through web-based video conferencing to protect the participants and me from the COVID-19 virus. Similarly, to respond to social distancing rules and regulations, a review of the documents was done via email.

The study targeted a qualitative gap in the literature. Previous research has shown that athletic administrators are powerless to avoid high-pressure situations, with Railey and Tschauner (1993) arguing that ADs are more likely to experience stress than other specialists because of the critical thinking skills required of them. Ryska (2002) suggested that athletic personnel's job demands might generate higher stress levels than individuals found in other professions involving a high degree of interpersonal interaction.

Additionally, studies have shown that these resources' distribution remains uneven across many institutions (Cheeks, 2016). The lack of resources adds to the stress experienced by athletic directors at HBCUs when performance expectations for them parallel expectations for their counterparts (Cheeks, 2016). Previous studies have focused primarily on ADs from high schools or on Predominantly White Institutions (PWIs). Few researchers have interviewed NCAA Division II HBCU athletic directors regarding their perceptions of managerial strategies in a department with limited resources. As a

qualitative inquiry, the study examined interview participants' decision-making by collecting personal stories of their lived experiences. Decision-making is described as the action or process of thinking through possible options and selecting one (Stout, 2012). Through the method of purposive sampling, NCAA II athletic directors currently working at Historically Black Colleges and Universities were selected to share their perceptions and lived experiences. The sharing and later examination of personal stories were conducted under the phenomenological approach, which is a viewpoint "that simply targets the intentionalities themselves" (p. 238) (Sokolowski, 2000).

The following research question guided the exploration:

RQ: What strategies do ADs at HBCUs implement to manage departments with limited resources?

The interview questions used for participants are presented in Appendix C. These questions were designed to provoke detailed, thick descriptions from athletic directors who make critical decisions in athletic departments. The questions also led to an organizational and textural depiction of experiences. The questions are: "What have you experienced in relation to the phenomenon?" and "What situations or circumstances have typically influenced or affected your experiences of the phenomenon?" (Moustakas, 1994, p. 81). Moustakas stated that the questions emphasize attention and supply an understanding of participants' shared experiences. Seven interview participants focused on the athletic department's managerial strategies to foster the athletic program's growth.

Presentation of the Findings

After recording the interviews, the researcher used REV, a transcription service, to transcribe the video files and identified the respondents by number. The video files and transcripts were transferred to an external drive and stored in a locked safe. The files will be destroyed five years after the dissertation is published. The researcher analyzed the interview data manually using a technique called inductive coding. Inductive coding starts from scratch and creates codes based on the qualitative data itself (Medelyab, 2020). The researcher did not have a set codebook; all codes arose directly from the interviewees' responses. The resulting 64 codes were grouped into eight categories.

The researcher had to break interviews into smaller samples, read a sample of the interviews, create a code that covered the section, re-read each new section, apply the codes, and read a new section of data (Medelyab, 2020). The researcher used the codes developed for each question, creating new codes based on participants' responses. The researcher repeated the steps until all data was coded (Medelyab, 2020). The eight categories were grouped into various themes, and the themes were narrowed, adjusted, and consolidated in alignment with the research questions.

The four major themes related to the research questions are as follows:

Theme 1: Shared Responsibility

Theme 2: Empowering Staff

Theme 3: Limited Resources (Fundraising, Facility Growth)

Theme 4: Limited Female Participation

Applications to Professional Practice

The overarching research question that directed this research was "What strategies do ADs at HBCUs implement to manage departments with limited resources?" There were two conditions for recruiting a participating organization to help answer this research question through interviews. First, the individual had to have five years of experience as an athletic director and currently work at an institution within the CIAA or the SIAC. Second, the institution had to have a similar operational budget and student enrollment. After using purposeful sampling to recruit participants, the researcher collected data by conducting semi-structured interviews, and later, participants verified the collected data.

Themes

By analyzing the participants' responses to interview questions, four main themes were identified. The first theme was related to shared responsibility among other athletic administrators within the athletic department. The second theme was related to empowering the staff to make sound decisions. The third theme was related to how limited funding has an adverse effect on resources and facility growth. The fourth theme was related to limited female participation continuation in female sports sponsorship.

In addition to these themes, the athletic director's role has been discussed in the literature regarding the current pandemic's effects on the athletic department's operation. Recent research has identified how COVID-19 left a financial pinch; college athletic directors across the country have been confronted with tough and uncomfortable decisions (Lawson, 2020). During this unprecedented time, athletic directors may face

additional challenges to grow the department. Table 1 represents an institution with the

CIAA and SIAC and depicts their enrollment, the cost of attendance, and total athletic

budget.

Table 1

CIAA and SIAC Member Institution

	Conference	Enrollment	Cost of Attendance	Total Budget
Participant 1	CIAA	1427	$33,334.00	$4,991,043.00
Participant 2	SIAC	2148	$20,644.00	$1,993,939.00
Participant 3	CIAA	1139	$28,390.00	$3,011,677.00
Participant 4	CIAA	3862	$23,673.00	$6,149,071.00
Participant 5	CIAA	4414	$24,020.00	$4,302,468.00
Participant 6	CIAA	1961	$26,008.00	$3,107,994.00
Participant 7	SIAC	1468	$22,894.00	$4,581,896.00
Participant 8	SIAC	4024	$19,634.00	$5,733,898.00

Note. Data retrieved from https://ope.ed.gov/athletics/#/

Theme 1: Shared Responsibility

The first theme that emerged was shared responsibility. The theme occurred 16

times. Almost all the participants emphasized the significance of giving shared

responsibility to their leadership teams. All the participants believed the workplace

demands they face daily do not allow them to have the ability to make all decisions for

the department. Having shared responsibilities among other leaders within the department

was essential for each athletic director. For example, Participant 1 expressed, "getting as

many people involved in planning and implementing strategies related to the operation

was essential. Yet still, before that, we all must be part of the goal-setting and objectives

of the department." Shared responsibility can help individuals see themselves as part of a

larger system, where all the pieces work together toward a common goal (Conzemius, 2001).

Similarly, Participant 2 expressed, "One of the first things I try to do is make sure all the staff in the Athletic Department know all the responsibilities of each person because I think an informed group allows us to get more done. It also cross-trains individuals for different responsibilities." Soucie (1994) stated that athletic directors are responsible for empowering their staff to establish and achieve departmental goals.

Participant 4 stated:

What I have done, I've assigned my leadership team to different coaches in different sports. Even though I have an open-door policy, they go to their sports administrator for additional support in their particular areas. This means instead of waiting for those 30 days when we have our weekly meetings, my administrator for that sport can now bring those issues to our weekly meeting.

As indicated by Frederick Herzberg (1959), employees are more motivated to do their jobs well if they have ownership of their work. Shared responsibility requires giving employees enough freedom and power to carry out their tasks to feel they "own" the result. Participant 6 stated:

I'm trying to train my assistant ADs to have that same thought process as me. I empower my leadership team to be able to supervise coaches as part of their responsibility. I want my assistant ADs to be very detailed with the coaching staff about managing funds, equipment, trips, and personnel. This allows my leadership team to manage all of our resources allocated to specific department areas.

Having a shared responsibility in the department is critical with all the things I

have to do.

Fredrick Herzberg (1959) points out that certain job factors are consistently related to

employee job satisfaction (also called job satisfiers)—which are primarily intrinsic job

elements that lead to satisfaction. Participant 8 stated:

I started dividing up my administrators to oversee XYZ sports. I've noticed that

having the sport oversight gives the coaches may be more immediate day-to-day

access to an administrator where they can try to vet through some things before

they come to me.

Theme 2: Empowering Staff

The second theme identified was empowering staff. This theme occurred ten

times. Empowerment is one of the mechanisms used to promote employee development

in an organization's long-term plan (Appelbaum, 1998). Participant 2 stated:

I think empowering your staff is critical in allowing them to push back when there

are things that I might want to do if I do not have a good plan if I had not flushed

that idea out. Having senior administrative teams at the table empowers them, and

I am not making decisions in isolation. I am using their strengths, and I think it

better prepares them so when they are in the position to making the final decision

since they have been at the table. So they understand all of the factors that you

have to consider to create a better work environment.

Appelbaum and Haeggar (1998) acknowledge that employee empowerment enhances job performance and creates job satisfaction. Pearson and Moomaw (2005) and Zhang and Bartol (2010). Participant 1 stated:

> We try to create a culture of shared responsibility and empowering people. Still, at the end of the day, someone has to have the leadership role of a particular area, and we all have to follow it no matter what our roles and responsibilities are. Therefore, we try to give people individual ownership and a sense of gratification by assisting them with their goals and objectives to contribute to the whole department.

Empowerment is a strategic management option that can encourage employees to work beyond the norm and accomplish jobs in a flexible manner (Pearson & Moomaw, 2005). Such job flexibility is a precondition to instilling the decision-making ability of employees to respond swiftly and satisfy customer demands.

More importantly, empowerment can stimulate employees' attachment to their jobs because employees perceive the granting of decision-making authority to indicate that the organization appreciates their job contributions (Zhang & Bartlow, 2010). In short, job attachment is formed when employees associate positive emotions and acceptance with the organization. In a like manner, Participant 5 stated, "I'm trying to make the job as engaged and empowered as possible. I want people to be empowered. I don't want to micromanage." Effective leaders empower, provide life experience, and focus their employees' interests away from conflict and results, providing progress

opportunities and constructive approaches to grow the department (Cismas, 2016). For example, Participant 3 stated:

> Well, delegation has been the biggest one. I have two sports administrators I want to empower. I split all sports between both. I have split the sports in half based so this way those coaches can communicate with those individuals, and the skill sets of those two sports administrators will help develop the staff and keep them on task.

Empowered employees are more likely to become powerful, confident individuals committed to meaningful goals and who demonstrate the necessary initiative and creativity to achieve them (Zhang & Bartlow, 2010). Likewise, Participant 6 stated:

> I've empowered two staff members to be sports supervisors, so they can see things from a budget standpoint and how I'm thinking fiscally so they can just spill that down to the coaches as well. We have two or three layers of their understanding and understanding of how I think. If I am exposing you to success, and we're also exposing your success to others. You're empowered in a leadership role, and there's nothing that should be able to stop you from being one of the greats within the athletic business.

Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory establishes that job satisfaction is determined as a simple human need. Moreover, an essential part of achieving such satisfaction encompasses modifying employees' approaches and views regarding their work (Herzberg, 1964; Tan & Mehrad, 2020). An employer can help produce feelings

about how great a job is by taking each opportunity to satisfy the employees' desires

(Islam, 2013). For example, Participant 8 stated:

> I want to do everything I can to empower my staff to succeed in what they're
>
> doing, whether they're support staff, coach, or an administrator. I think when you
>
> do that, you allow them to operate in their job in a manner where they can go out
>
> there and be successful. You mentor them when you need to mentor them, you let
>
> them sometimes fail, hoping that that is going to help them get better, and
>
> ultimately you put yourself in a situation where you allow them to grow in the
>
> business.

Theme 3: Limited Resources to Grow Facilities

The third theme is limited resources to grow facilities. This theme occurred 12

times. Facilities spending is one of the biggest reasons otherwise profitable or self-

sufficient athletic departments run deficits, according to Hobson (2015). Due to small

budgets with major college football teams, NCAA Division II football is in the midst of a

sports facility "arms race," and school administrators do not deny the need to improve

facilities constantly. Division II programs must fund their upgrades privately, according

to Echlin (2018).

Sports facilities are an important aspect of the development of athletes. Access to

quality sports and recreational facilities can be a key factor in meeting the demand for

student-athletes and growth with an athletic department (Reynolds, 2007). The

recruitment and retention of students are influenced by adequate and attractive facilities

(Kaiser, 2000). Additionally, Participant 6 stated, "It is stressful. Facilities are key to

retention and recruiting. In addition, we were developing a plan to support each program to upgrade facilities."

Furthermore, appropriate and adequate sports facilities are needed for athletes to train (Reynolds, 2007). Not to mention, Participant 3 stated:

I have stressed there because . . . No, we have not been able to move as fast as I would like to upgrade our facilities. We have a track that is inoperable. The playing surface on the football field needs to be replaced. Therefore, those are the kinds of things that keep me up at night because I do not want any of our student-athletes to get hurt out there on that track. Trying to get work in on the football field and creating a funding resource has been difficult.

Division II programs are just as focused on attracting the best talent from around the country as their larger counterparts while wrestling with building a new athletic facility (Redd, 2016). For example, Participant 4 stated:

If I said I had enough resources, I would be lying, and you know I would be. We never have enough money, and it can be stressful. What is disheartening is sometimes with facilities because you do not have the power to provide those resources to bring those levels up. So is it stressful? Yeah. Because we need it because we want our student-athletes to participate, compete, practice at facilities that are better than what they came from, meaning in high school. Some of these high schools have some nice facilities. Some of the high schools are playing on turf football fields and different things of that nature.

According to Ryska (2007), identifying these key motivation and hygiene factors may give researchers and athletic directors a way to address and alleviate the negative part of upgrading facilities. Participant 7 stated:

> Resource allocation for facilities is stressful for this university. We lose students behind not have quality facilities. Having facilities is the only way we can compete for student-athletes. Student-athletes want to see updated facilities. It is part of the recruiting process. If you do not even have the recruiting tools on campus to have good dorms or cafeterias, students will not come. Because that is what students are all about now. They like brick and mortar.

As noted, HBCU athletic directors have difficulty upgrading facilities at their respective colleges and universities (Ryska, 2002). For example, Participant 8 stated:

> We want better facilities, but the university's continuous cuts make it impossible. We must find a way to stop the bleeding and restore facilities because that impacts job satisfaction and motivation when the university keeps cutting the departmental budget.

The athletic director's leadership capability will affect his or her organization's climate and, ultimately, success. Employee performance is a function of motivation and expertise. To advance or maintain organizational effectiveness, athletic directors need to know their employees and increase or maintain employee job satisfaction (Skemp-Arlt, 2007). The athletic directors' responsibility is to inform the staff about accomplishing individual and departmental goals (Skemp-Arlt, 2007). The relationship between motivation and job satisfaction is not overly complex. The problem is that many

employers look at the hygiene factors as ways to motivate when, in fact, beyond the very short term, they do very little to motivate (Content Team, 2021). Understanding the ingredients for job satisfaction and job-related stress could enhance understanding of the work environment (Ryska, 2002).

Theme 4: Limited Female Participation

According to Senne (2016), gender equity has been an issue in society since the beginning. In recorded history, one can find many accounts where women faced inequity in relationships, careers, education, and athletic opportunities. While Title IX has created more opportunities in sports for women, Title IX has done very little to reduce the stereotypical image of women in sports. Such large numbers of student-athletes of both genders require collegiate coaches to understand the motivating factors in college selection for these athletes. Understanding the factors may enhance recruiting techniques to attract and retain athletic and academic talent for the overall enrichment of the institution (USTFCCCA, 2019).

Sports provide an excellent foundation for the rest of our lives, according to Vanderslice and Litsch (1998). The benefits of playing sports include gaining leadership skills, higher academic performance, increased self-esteem, increased health, and more responsible social behavior that stems from participating in sports. Despite the great strides, there is still much to be done before Title IX's goals are achieved (Vanderslice & Litsch, 1998). For example, Participant 1 stated:

It can be satisfying when we see more students getting involved in athletic

activities, especially in our women's sports, such as volleyball and softball, well,

even in bowling. We certainly want our young females to have more opportunities. We've tried to institute, if nothing else, a conscious effort of the coaches to attract student-athletes to different sports, to try to increase opportunities in participation, especially on our women's side because of the lack of participation.

While Title IX has had a major impact on women's increased opportunity to play sports, women are still participating significantly less than men in athletics. This is most likely attributed to the fact that women are still greatly gender-stereotyped, underrepresented in the media, and ridiculed at a young age for participating in sports (Senne, 2016). Likewise, Participant 3 stated:

I am holding our coaches accountable and holding me as the leader accountable for making sure I put the tools in place to bring additional female student-athletes on campus. I am doing what I can to motivate coaches because there is a shortage of female athletes. I have encouraged the coaches to meet certain benchmarks. I must hold myself accountable if I am holding them accountable. It can be challenging.

It is important to give women equal opportunity in sport. In light of Title IX, Participant 5 stated:

Because of previous personnel, it made it very hard for the recruit young ladies to participate. It was very stressful, but with personnel changes, we were able to add 25 additional women the opportunity to participate, which I think is great.

According to Senne (206), having a more balanced male and female board in sports contributes to a better work environment. Moreover, Participant 8 stated, "There are a few sports I think we have to increase numbers on the female side. Because, number one, it will help with our proportionality."

Since Title IX's inception in 1972, women and girls have made great strides in obtaining gender equity in the classroom and playing field (Vanderslice & Litsch, 1998). Equal opportunity is very important to our nation, and the opportunity to compete is very valuable (Vanderslice & Litsch, 1998). Moreover, Participant 7 stated:

> One of the biggest things is that in many institutions, female participation, especially the private institutions, is driven off the enrollment. What I have learned is that athletics drives the enrollment up, or auxiliaries drive the enrollment up. We have to continue to create athletic opportunities for female student-athletes that are academically sound to offset some of the cost through academic scholarship. When we don't meet those demands, part of my job-related stress can be stressful, and this [is] what keeps me up at night.

Job demands primarily refer to psychological demands such as the mental workload, organizational constraints on task completion, or conflicting demands (Karasek, 1979).

On the other hand, job demand and control are also referred to in Karasek's model as the decision latitude of the worker (Karasek, 1979). Karasek (1979) discusses the freedom permitted to the worker in deciding how to meet these demands or how to perform tasks and is seen as a composite measure built up from two related psychosocial working conditions, e.g., skill discretion and decision authority (Karasek, 1979). It is

precisely the opportunity to use skills and make decisions that reduce the possible

adverse effects of heavy psychological demands (Karasek, 1979).

Table 2

CIAA and SIAC Member Institution

	Conference	Male Student-Athletes	Female Student-Athletes	Total Number of Athletes
Participant 1	CIAA	127	63	190
Participant 2	SIAC	201	83	284
Participant 3	CIAA	175	90	265
Participant 4	CIAA	185	75	260
Participant 5	CIAA	136	71	207
Participant 6	CIAA	136	63	199
Participant 7	SIAC	154	60	214
Participant 8	SIAC	170	93	263

Note. Data retrieved from https://ope.ed.gov/athletics/#/

Implications for Social Change

The presence and impact of job-related stress affecting collegiate athletic

administrators was an increasing concern (Copeland & Kirsch, 1995; Judge & Judge,

2009; Martin et al., 1999; Ryska, 2002; Venzon, 1998). The measurable effectiveness of

an intercollegiate athletic administrator is comprised of stress-induced responses to

various situations (Ryska, 2011; Martin et al., 1999). These stressful situations can be

attributed to the hygiene factors of the environment in which the athletic administrator

works, wide-ranging interactions with people in emotionally charged situations, and the

problem-solving nature of the occupation. Understanding the alignment between

motivation and hygiene factors associated with job satisfaction and job-related stress is

important to the athletic director responsible for hiring and overseeing the department's

success. Shared responsibilities are also important to other practicing and aspiring athletic administrators.

All college and university sport functions—including events; logistics; facilities; budget; fundraising; hiring and mentoring coaches, and managing support staff, media relations, and academics—are the duty of athletic administrators (Copeland & Kirsch, 1995; Martin et al., 1999; Sanders, 2004; Wright et al., 2011). Currently, athletic administrators are short-tenured, averaging only 6.78 years on the job at an institution (Wong & Matt, 2014). The role of the athletic director is too vital for this high turnover rate, and university officials must understand other factors, like stress, that may affect athletic directors. The motivation and hygiene variables presented in this study represent factors that senior-level athletic administrators cannot fully control, while they theoretically might have more control over person variables. Hiring managers have a well-rounded understanding of the uncontrollable factors. This study's results will help them focus their interview and hiring efforts on candidates' characteristics that may be favorable or unfavorable to their success in this position. For example, as per the results of this study, knowing whether a candidate has a shared-responsibility leadership style or an empowering staff leadership style could aid in the understanding of how they might respond to stressful situations they encounter in the workplace.

The demands placed on the athletic director's role result in higher levels of job-related stress than in other professions that greatly rely upon interpersonal interactions (Gmelch, 1994). Knowing this on the front end will alert newcomer athletic directors to their struggles in the role. The study analyzes managerial strategies implemented by

athletic directors to grow the athletic department. Understanding the benefits and drawbacks of limited resources and implementing shared responsibilities, empowering staff, and limited female participation will encourage aspiring athletic administrators to seek help when facing adversity in the workplace. It provides an opportunity for these hopefuls to cultivate a support system or identify other managing strategies to help them relieve stress. The outcomes of this investigation can also serve as a facilitator for creating change where needed—for example, understanding that future administrators or those newer to the athletic director's role will encounter a greater occurrence of job-related stress than more tenured athletic directors. In addition, the investigation can promote initial professional development with an in-depth onboarding process to aid future athletic directors during these challenging times. Developing and implementing well-thought-out plans to manage the responsibilities and expectations of this role would help prepare both current and developing athletic directors.

For present-day athletic directors, this study brought to light some areas of focus in the lived experiences of athletic directors as they seek to implement managerial strategies to grow the athletic department and reduce their job-related stress. An example of this would be to reflect on time spent with family outside the office and how many personal activities are conducted versus job-related activities. Lastly, this study brings to light the idea that any future or current athletic directors have a strong sense of management style, understand leadership, and play a significant part in the department's growth. Having a grasp of job-related stress and how to navigate stressors would also create a productive work environment for all (Sanjeev, 2016).

Recommendations for Action

To reduce workload and manage job-related stress, athletic directors can identify other departmental leaders who implemented the managerial strategy of a shared responsibility workspace. Engaging other department staff to create a leadership team may be beneficial. This study noted that athletic directors who created shared responsibility with other leaders within the department reported lower frequencies of job-related stress; this strategy also allowed them to manage stress. While this shared responsibility cannot change resources, department leaders can utilize staff members who desire to be athletic directors to help serve as support for other staff members and thus create a better work environment.

Other significant revelations include the importance of recognizing the impact that resources have on the managerial strategies implemented by athletic directors and their encountered job-related stress and understanding that limited resources may be outside the athletic director's realm of control. Coping strategies for reducing stress will vary between institutions. The results from this study suggest that an athletic department's budget is a catalyst for job-related stress. Athletic directors with similar budgets reported frequent job-related stress. Work should be done to understand the budget-to-demand ratios at colleges and universities to determine any modifications that need to be made, thus improving these job-related stressors. Additionally, imperative enrollment may be a difficult predictor to effect when looking at an athletic administrator who has experienced stress at HBCU colleges and universities.

It is important to recognize the number of sponsored female sports and how female participation has experienced job-related stress. Comparatively, other factors may be outside the control of the athletic director; therefore, the implementation of managerial strategies may vary. This study identifies the number of sponsored female sports as a significant predictor for job-related stress. The number of sponsored female sports and female participation contributes to the frequency of encountered job-related stress at some institutions. The NCAA Division II requires member institutions to sponsor five sports for men and five for women (or four for men and six for women), so reducing stress may be outside the control of the athletic director. However, implementing managerial strategies that support recruitment, utilize academic funding and other institutional aid, and allow for fundraising opportunities will likely increase participation.

Recommendations for Further Research

The following points describe specific recommendations for senior-level athletic administrators based on the results of this study.

- Conduct a longitudinal study of athletic directors' job-related stress. This study represented a small glimpse of HBCU colleges and universities in two conferences during the COVID-19 pandemic. A longitudinal study would bring to light yearly trends of athletic directors experiencing the highest frequencies of stress. Understanding these changes can help departments prepare for stressful times of the year by utilizing managerial strategies that prepare and relieve some of the experienced job-related stress of these athletic directors.

- Focus on PWI NCAA Division II or III members to identify specific predictors of job-related stress related to other conferences with similar enrollment and budgets. Narrowing the scope would be beneficial for future research into athletic directors of a certain division (NCAA DII, or DIII) for stronger peer-group comparisons. Additionally, a focus on other collegiate athletic levels, like NAIA or NJCAA, may contribute significant findings.

- Changing the format of the study to a quantitative format would be a worthy consideration for future research. This would allow a survey instrument to be used to identify variables using different categories. The personal-environment theory is a method in which the adjustment process between organizational members and their work environment is understood and influences the stressors encountered.

- Expand a study and identify different leadership/management character traits to measure. Future researchers should consider conducting the same research with a focus on different leadership/management styles. Further investigation could identify other significant leadership/management style choices that might also significantly predict job-related stress.

Managerial-implemented strategies are not one-size-fits-all, and one style should not be expected to work for everyone. Identifying motivation and hygiene factors that create job-related stress and recognizing that some of these stressors are outside the control of the athletic director is imperative. For example, funding resources may heavily affect the athletic department, but implementing managerial strategies to change the department does not rely on the athletic director. Still, it is a shared responsibility and it

empowers the leadership team. The department staff's job performance can be influenced by acknowledging that the athletic director's job-related stress is the primary step to developing managerial strategies that support the motivation and hygiene factor for all involved.

Reflections

The Doctorate of Business Administration (DBA) program at the University of the Southwest was challenging but worthwhile. I started the journey with a definite goal: to achieve a higher education degree that positively influenced my vision and expanded my business horizons. Critical thinking and problem-solving skills were the two most essential competencies I achieved in this journey. Initially, I was doubtful about professional academic research processes; however, I developed the confidence to complete my journey as I continued the research by following the step-by-step instructions.

This research topic, strategies ADs at HBCUs implement to manage departments with limited resources, was selected due to personal and professional interest. I currently work as an athletic administrator in an HBCU. I benefited from this study by learning from each athletic director the managerial strategies they implement in their department to grow athletic programs. My future goal is to be an athletic director, and I intend to implement some of the strategies used in this study.

Conclusion

NCAA Division II Historically Black Colleges and University Athletic Directors working in the SIAC and CIAA institutions were interviewed in this study as a means for

providing their lived experience to address managerial strategies implemented to grow the athletic department. Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory and Karasek's job demands-control framework guided the identification of variables and the formation of research questions used for this study. One of the principal theories related to job satisfaction and working environments is motivation-hygiene theory, proposed by Fredrick Herzberg (1959).

The idea of job satisfaction developed in Herzberg's theory suggests that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are framed by different work factors associated with work content. Herzberg concludes that specific work environment elements bring about job satisfaction or its opposite (Mehrad, 2020). Karasek's (1979) job demands-control model is one of the most generally used occupational stress models. The essential thought behind the job demands-control model is that control shields the effect of job demands on strain (or stress), thus helping to upgrade workers' job satisfaction and allowing them to participate in challenging tasks and learn new abilities. The results of this study are encouraging to practicing and upcoming athletic directors because shared responsibilities allow athletic directors to help other department leaders to see themselves as part of a larger system; with all working together, it is possible to accomplish the vision and mission of the university. Empowering staff allows the athletic director to provide life experiences to other departmental leaders and the autonomy to decide within the department. Providing progressive opportunities and constructive approaches to growing the department as a leader but limited resources to grow facilities presents a challenge for Divison II HBCU athletic directors and administrators, who must find resources to

provide quality sports and recreational facilities and meet the demands of student-athletes. The administrator will continue to work towards finding resources that will support growth within the athletic department. Lastly, NCAA Division II HBCU athletic directors face limited female participation and will have to make strides in recruitment by utilizing academic funding or other institutional aid. Fundraising opportunities will help identify ways to increase female participation. These four themes are all controllable stressors through implementing managerial strategies that can grow athletic departments.

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Appendix A: Consent Letter

You are invited to take part in a research study of Job Satisfaction and Job-Related Stress among NCAA Division II Athletic Directors of Historically Black Colleges and Universities. You were chosen for the study because you are an NCAA Division II Athletic Director in the CIAA or SIAC Conference. This form is part of a process called "informed consent" to allow you to understand this study before deciding whether to take part.

This study is being conducted by Linda J. Bell, who is a researcher at the University of the Southwest. Research gathered in this study will be used to address the phenomenological gap in research by evaluating NCAA Division II HBCU Athletic Directors who manage athletic departments.

Background Information:
The purpose of this study is to explore the managerial strategies Athletic Directors use to implement to grow athletic programs.

Procedures:
If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to: Answer interview questions that will be used to recognize your lived experiences as an NCAA Division II HBCU Athletic Director.

Voluntary Nature of the Study:
Your participation in this study is voluntary. This means that everyone will respect your decision of whether or not you want to be in the study. No one will treat you differently if you decide not to be in the study. If you decide to join the study now, you can still change your mind during the study. If you feel stressed during the study, you may stop at any time. You may skip any questions that you feel are too personal.

Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study:
Participation in the study will take approximately 1 hour (time) to complete and will involve a web-based conference call via Zoom. This study could potentially benefit by increasing an understanding of the work environment, increase profitability, and bind together athletic departments by shedding light on HBCU and managerial strategies to create continued growth in college athletic programs.

Compensation:
No Compensation

Confidentiality:
Any information you provide will be entirely confidential. The researcher will not use your information for any purposes outside of this research project. Also, the researcher

will not include your name or anything else that could identify you in any reports of the study.

Contacts and Questions:
You may ask any questions you have now. Or, if you have questions later, you may contact the researcher via telephone (478-235-5694) or email (lbell@usw.edu). If you want to talk privately about your rights as a participant, you can contact the chair of the USW Institutional Review Board via email (IRB@usw.edu). USW's approval number for this study is 016 IRB MEMO Compensation:

Statement of Consent:

I have read the above information, and I feel I understand the study well enough to make a decision about my involvement. By signing below, I am agreeing to the terms described above.

Printed Name of Participant   _____

Date of Consent   _____

Participant's Written or Electronic* Signature   _____

Researcher's Written or Electronic* Signature   _____

Electronic signatures are regulated by the Uniform Electronic Transactions Act. Legally, an "electronic signature" can be the person's typed name, their email address, or any other identifying marker. An electronic signature is just as valid as a written signature as long as both parties have agreed to conduct the transaction electronically.

Appendix B: Participation Letter

Dear Participant,

I am conducting a study for my doctoral dissertation titled "Job Satisfaction and Job-Related Stress among NCAA Division II Athletic Directors of Historically Black Colleges and Universities." I am particularly interested in speaking with Athletic Directors currently employed in the Southern Intercollegiate Athletic Conference (SIAC) and the Central Intercollegiate Athletic Association (CIAA).

I am asking you to please assist me with my research study by permitting me to interview you. The interview will take about 45 minutes to complete. This information is being gathered anonymously, and it will be held in strict confidence. Upon completion, I will return a transcription for your approval.

Thank you very much for your support, assistance, and cooperation in this study. If further formation is needed, please email (lbell@usw.edu) or call me at 478-235-5694.

Professionally yours,

Linda J. Bell
Doctoral Candidate
University of the Southwest
Hobbs, NM

Appendix C: Interview Questions

1. What managerial strategies have you implemented to help facilitate daily operations in the athletic department?

2. What personnel strategies have you implemented to help facilitate daily operations in the athletic department?

3. What strategies have you implemented to motivate your staff and thereby increase job satisfaction?

4. How does resource allocation to the athletic department allow you to carry out daily operations in the athletic department?

5. How does resource allocation influence your managerial strategies, and do these strategies play a role in your job satisfaction and job-related stress?

6. What managerial strategies have you implemented to facilitate increased participation in the athletic department, and do these strategies contribute to your daily job satisfaction and job-related stress?

7. What managerial strategies have you implemented to upgrade the department, and do these strategies contribute to your job satisfaction and job-related stress?

8. What managerial strategies have you implemented to enhance professional development among the staff and thereby help create success in the athletic department?

Appendix D: Study Transcription Validation Letter

Dear Study Participant,

Thank you again for participating in my study "Job Satisfaction and Job-Related Stress among NCAA Division II Athletic Directors of Historically Black Colleges and Universities." I have attached the transcription of your interview. As explained before, during the interview process, your information will remain anonymous, and at any time, you can withdraw from this study.

If you could read over the transcribed information, ensure the accuracy, and give me your permission to move forward with the information within the study. As a reminder, all information collected will be stored in a secure place for the next five years; after that, all information collected in this study will be destroyed.

Thank you very much for your support in this study. I look forward to hearing from you. My email is lbell@usw.edu, or call me at 478-235-5694.

Professionally yours,

Linda J. Bell
Doctoral Candidate
University of the Southwest
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