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Organizational commitment among NCAA Division III athletic directors.

F. Michelle Richardson-Touson

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F. Michelle Richardson-Touson

Candidate

Health, Exercise & Sports Science

Department

This dissertation is approved, and it is acceptable in quality and form for publication:

Approved by the Dissertation Committee:

David K. Scott , Chairperson

Todd L. Seidler

E. Newton Jackson, Jr.

Jerome Quarterman

Organizational Commitment Among NCAA Division III Athletic Directors

by

F. Michelle Richardson-Touson

A.A., Liberal Arts, City College of San Francisco, 1996
B.A., Journalism/Public Relations, Howard University, 2000
M.S., Sport Management, Florida State University, 2001

Dissertation

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this research to the memories of my grandmother, Nancy Davis Russell, (Ma Ma), Beatrice Whitlow (Aunt Bea), Uncle Thomas George Stevenson (Chief Thundercloud), and my grandfather, Richard Lee Richardson (Pa Pa). These four beloved family members planted their seeds of strength, knowledge, and humility within me but were called home before they could see the fruits of their wisdom. I carry each of these loved ones with me every day. I hope that I've made them proud because I've been working hard to be a woman they would be proud of.



DWENNIMMEN

"ram's horns"

Symbol of humility together with strength.

The ram will fight fiercely against an adversary, but it also submits humbly to slaughter, emphasizing that even the strong need to be humble.

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Through this arduous journey I have been blessed to have the support of many wonderfully supportive people. I cannot name all of them, but I want to acknowledge some of the people who had my back at the times I needed them the most.

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**ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AMONG
NCAA DIVISION III ATHLETIC DIRECTORS**

by

F. Michelle Richardson-Touson

A.A., LIBERAL ARTS, CITY COLLEGE OF SAN FRANCISCO, 1996
B.S., JOURNALISM/PUBLIC RELATIONS, HOWARD UNIVERSITY, 2000
M.S., SPORT MANAGEMENT, FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY, 2001
Ph.D., PHYSICAL EDUCATION, SPORTS, & EXERCISE SCIENCE,
UNIVERSITY OF NEW MEXICO, 2011

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to assess the organizational commitment among athletic directors at NCAA Division III member institutions. These issues of organizational commitment have not been previously addressed in regard to athletic directors. A quantitative, cross sectional, non-experimental, research design was utilized for this investigation. The theoretical framework on which this investigation was built upon is Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model theory of organizational commitment: affective (desire), continuance (cost), and normative (obligation). A census sample of NCAA Division III athletic directors as listed in the National Association of Collegiate Directors of Athletics (NACDA) 2009-2010 National Directory of College Athletics. Of the 418 listed in the NACDA Directory 169 participated.

Multiple, One-Way ANOVA's were conducted to test the differences in organizational commitment utilizing the independent variables of age, marital/partnership status, number years at institution, gender, and ethnicity. No significant relationship was found between age, gender, number of years at institution, and ethnicity and organizational commitment. There was a significant difference found between married

and domestic partner at ($p < .05$). This finding is interesting because it may call attention to why some NCAA Division III athletic directors who are in committed relationships feel the necessity to remain at their institution.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In the world of intercollegiate athletic departments, the position of athletic director often ranks as the highest in the organizational flow chart, only beneath the University President or institutional Chief Executive Officer (CEO). The athletic director (AD) is often considered the CEO of the athletic department and the individual accountable for everything that occurs within the organization. It is the athletic director who works with the coaches and other department administrators to set goals and communicate the vision of the athletic department.

The largest collegiate athletic governing body, the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) is made up of three divisions (Division I, II, and III). Each division has a point of view unique to its divisional membership, which is explained in the NCAA Manual. In Division III, the philosophy is that athletic departments should “place special importance on the impact of athletics on the participants rather than on the spectators and place greater emphasis on the internal constituency (e.g., students, alumni, institutional personnel) than on the general public and its entertainment needs” (National Collegiate Athletic Association [NCAA], 2010).

Generally, when the average sports fan speaks of collegiate athletics he/she is usually speaking of NCAA Division I (D-I) athletics. NCAA Division I is the home of the Bowl Championship Series (BCS) and of March Madness, which have become mainstays in the vocabulary of the American sports fan. Division I represents many of the largest and richest of all the NCAA member institutions. Division I member institutions offer athletic scholarships, generate income through gate receipts, sell broadcast and

television rights, and operate on multi-million dollar budgets (Fulks, 1998; NCAA, 2000-01; Robinson, Peterson, Redrick, & Carpenter, 2003). A Division I athletic director's various responsibilities do not allow for him or her to solely focus on athletics during the course of a day's work (Abney & Parks, 1998; Robinson et al., 2003).

A world far away from NCAA Division I is Division III. The athletic departments in these member institutions function much like any other department at their institution, award no athletic scholarships, and operate on budgets that average in the mid to high \$400,000 range as opposed to multi-million dollars (Fulks, 1998; NCAA, 2000-01; Robinson et al., 2003). Quarterman (1992) and Robinson et al. (2003) state that D-III ADs may also hold positions as coaches or faculty members in addition to their duties as the athletic director.

To be considered an NCAA Division III member institution, the institutions must sponsor at least five sports for men and five for women, with two team sports for each gender, and each playing season represented by each gender. There are also minimum numbers of contests and participant minimums for each sport. Division III athletics features student-athletes who receive no financial aid related to their athletic ability and athletic departments are staffed and funded like any other department in the university. Division III athletic departments place special importance on the impact of athletics on the participants rather than on the spectators. The student-athlete's experience is of paramount concern. Division III athletics encourages participation by maximizing the number and variety of athletics opportunities available to students, placing primary emphasis on regional in-season and conference competition (NCAA, 2010c).

Division III athletic departments have smaller budgets, regional travel, part-time coaches or coaches who are also instructors or administrators, revenues generated by gate receipts, and small or nonexistent television revenues (Robinson, 1995). This is not to imply that it is easier to run an NCAA Division III athletic department; it is just distinctly different. Those distinctions could have an impact on a Division III Athletic Director's organizational commitment (OC).

Related to the concept of organizational commitment, many scholars have researched job satisfaction as a factor that influences a person's desire to stay in a particular job or profession. Schermehorn, Hunt, and Osborn (1985) state that "job satisfaction is the degree to which an individual feels positively or negatively about the various facets of the job tasks, the work setting, and relationships with co-workers" (p. 52). E. A. Locke, a frequently cited scholar on the topic of job satisfaction, stated that job satisfaction "is a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience" (cited in Hackman & Lawler, 1971, p. 284). Historically job satisfaction theorists believed that rather than studying the totality of job satisfaction, one should study its many facets (Ferratt & Arnold, 1981; Francis & Milbourn, 1980; Locke, 1976; McFarlane & Rice, 1991, 1992; Robinson, 1995; Schermehorn et al., 1985). Those facets included pay, promotion, employees' self-image, working conditions, co-workers, and the company's overall effect on employees' satisfaction (Locke, 1976; Robinson, 1995).

Unlike job satisfaction research, which examines the characteristics that lead to employee emotional happiness, organizational commitment investigates attitudes and behaviors in the workplace. Job satisfaction is the degree to which an employee likes the

various aspects of their job; it is an element of organizational commitment; and if a person is happy with their job, they acknowledge satisfaction with their job (Gavin & Vinten, 2005; Kovach, 1977; Spector, 1997;). Meyer and Allen (1997) define organizational commitment “as an emotional state that characterizes a person’s bond within an organization and has implications for the decision to continue or discontinue the relationship with said organization” (p. 67).

The remainder of Chapter 1 is divided into subsections that will guide the reader through the statement of the problem, purpose of the study, provide background information on the position of the athletic director, give an overview of the NCAA, discuss the significance of the study, and reveal the research questions for this study.

Theoretical Framework

Organizational commitment is based on an individual’s identification with and attachment to an institution or organization (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). This study will focus on the three constructs in Meyer and Allen’s (1991) three-component model (TCM) of organizational commitment. They state, “by understanding when and how commitments develop and how they shape attitudes and behaviors, organizations will be in a better position to anticipate the impact that change will have and to manage it more effectively” (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. ix). OC has also been theorized as a multidimensional theory consisting of three constructs: affective (desire or want to), continuance (cost or need to), and normative (obligation or ought to) commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Turner & Pack, 2009). As previously stated, Meyer and Allen view organizational commitment as a psychological state that connects an individual to his/her organization and makes leaving less probable.

Meyer and Allen (1984) identify affective attachment and cost attachment as the dimensions of organizational commitment. Looking deeper into the subject matter they uncovered a third dimension, obligation; thus, the three-component model was born. Definitions that are common in the affective commitment theme are “an attitude or orientation toward the organization which links or attaches the identity of the person to the organization” (Sheldon, 1971, p. 143). Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1982) state that affective commitment is “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization” (p. 27). Kanter (1968) speaks of “profit associated with continued participation and cost associated with leaving” when defining cost-based commitment (p. 504). Becker (1960) discusses how “commitment comes into being when a person makes a side-bet, links extraneous interest with a consistent line of activity” (p. 32). In defining obligation, recurring themes include “the totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way which meets organizational goals and interests” (Wiener, 1982, p. 421).

Meyer and Allen’s (1991) Three-Component Model

The three-component model theory of organizational commitment developed by Meyer and Allen categorize the components as: affective, continuance, and normative. A multidimensional model of organizational commitment, consisting of five parts is a derivative of the three-component model theory of organizational commitment. The five parts of the multidimensional model are: 1) distal antecedents, 2) proximal antecedents, 3) process, 4) commitment, and 5) consequences. A brief explanation of each component of the five-part model is provided below:

Distal antecedents are the “distal causes exert their influence on commitment through their influence on the more proximal causes” (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 106). The distal antecedents consist of: organizational characteristics, personal characteristics, socialization experience, management practices and environmental conditions.

Proximal antecedents are identified as work experiences, role states, and psychological contracts. These antecedents are variables that directly influence organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Process is when the antecedents have affect components of commitment.

Commitment. The three parts that make up commitment are: affective, continuance and normative. Although the components are related; they are distinct and can be made to differentiate the trio (Dunham, Grube, & Castaneda, 1994; Meyer et al., 2001).

Affective commitment (desire) is “the employees emotional attachment to identification with, and involvement I the organization” (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 11). If the employee has a strong affective commitment to the organization he/she will stay because of a desire to be a part of the organization. The employee’s ideas, values, and goals are aligned with that of the organizations. Work experiences were found to be the most reliable predictor for affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997). When employees feel as though their basic needs are being taken care of, they are more likely to remain within an organization, thus have a stronger affective organizational commitment level.

Continuance commitment (cost) is “an awareness of the costs of leaving the organization” (Meyer & Allen, (1991, 1997) p. 11). It is understood by the employee that

leaving the organization could be a disadvantage to him/her. McGee and Ford (1987) divided continuance commitment into segments and labeled them: low number of alternatives (LoAlt) and high personal sacrifice (HiSac). If the employee is considered to have minimal or no other opportunities for employment, he/she is regarded as having low number of alternatives. In contrast, if the employee loses more than what would be gained by leaving the organization it is viewed as a high personal sacrifice. Employees with high significant continuous commitment must stay with an organization because they have to, not because they want to.

Normative commitment (obligation) “reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment” (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 11). Persons thought to have high normative commitment feel as though they have to stay with an organization. It is a personal and moral obligation for them to stay with the organization. The employee believes that the organization has made an investment in him/her as employee.

Consequences have been described by Meyer and Allen (1991) as: “retention (withdrawal cognition, turnover intention, and turnover), productive behavior (attendance, performance, citizenship, etc.), and employee well-being (psychological health, physical health, career progress, etc.)” (p. 106). Each of the three components in Meyer and Allen’s (1997) organizational commitment theory has consequences. The consequences of affective commitment are lower turnover and turnover intentions, better on-the-job behavior, and better employee health and well-being (Angel & Lawson, 1994; Hackett, Bycio, & Hausdorf, 1994; Kibeom, Allen, Meyer, & Rhee, 2001; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997). The consequences for continuance commitment are lower turnover and turnover intention, no issues with on-the-job behavior and employee

health and well-being (Hackett et al., 1994; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 2001). The consequences for normative commitment are lower turnover and turnover intentions, better on-the-job behavior, and better employee health and well-being (Hackett et al., 1994; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 2001).

Meyer and Allen's three-component model was chosen for this study, because it offers the most viable model by which to examine organizational commitment among NCAA Division III athletic directors.

Statement of the Problem

The role of athletic director has customarily been one of leadership. The athletic director provides direction and is responsible for ensuring the athletic department functions in accordance with the University's overall mission. Responsibilities include maintaining the fiscal well being of the department, developing yearly budgets, and cost and productivity analyses. Duties may also include recruitment, training, supervising, and evaluating staff; facilities management, operations, preparing broadcast media contracts, developing corporate sponsorships; representing the university to other institutions, the media, families of perspective student-athletes, alumni, prospective donors, NCAA, and the general public; and providing a clear vision of the goals and mission of the athletic department (University of New Mexico, 2009). The role of the athletic director is continually evolving within the heavily commercialized and mediated collegiate athletic environment (Nichols, Moynahan, Hall & Taylor, 2001; Parks & Quarterman, 2003). In Division III, ADs typically have other duties in addition to directing their respective athletic programs. Those duties may include coaching or holding an academic appointment (Quarterman, 1992; Robinson et al., 2003).

NCAA Division I has been thoroughly reviewed and examined, yet the scholarly research of NCAA Division III and specifically organizational commitment and the roles of Athletic Directors has scarcely been explored. There is a necessity for more in-depth research focusing on NCAA Division III that builds and expands the body of knowledge and articulates the distinct experience that is D-III athletics. The data and information uncovered in this research may be of assistance to men and women who aspire to the position of Division III athletic director, in addition to those already working as a Division III athletic director. Turnover and the turnover intentions of athletic administrators has been documented in the last 20 years (Sagas & Cunningham, 2004; Turner & Jordan, 2006; Bates, 2010; Wells & Peachey, 2010), but the focus has been more on turnover intentions as it relates to job satisfaction. Commitment levels could be a factor that determines the turnover intentions of athletic department employees.

Commitment, based on these primary characteristics has yet to be fully examined. Although there has been some research related to job satisfaction and/or organizational commitment conducted on athletic directors, a very small amount of this research is focused entirely on Division III athletics (Robinson, 1995). There is a void of information on the subject of Division III Athletic Directors and the nuances that job entails. Thus, this research will assess the organizational commitment of Division III Athletic Directors and attempt to fill the void that exists in the literature on this subject.

Purpose of the Study

This study is an exploratory examination of organizational commitment among Athletic Directors at NCAA Division III member institutions. Issues related to organizational commitment have not been previously addressed in regard to these athletic

directors. This study may provide NCAA Division III institutions with valuable information that may then be utilized for recruitment and retention of top administrators in their athletic departments.

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study is found in the need to bring about a greater understanding of the level of commitment among NCAA Division III athletic directors and to discover if there is a significant relationship between independent variables (age, marital/partnership status, number of years at institution, gender, and ethnicity) and organizational commitment. Such information could prove to be valuable to human resources and departmental administrators. NCAA D-III athletics is dramatically different from NCAA D-I and D-II athletics. As previously mentioned, the NCAA D-III athletic director can sometimes wear multiple hats in addition to their regular duties (i.e., instructor, marketing, sports information director, grounds keeper, and game day operations). Little research has been done on the topic of NCAA Division III, NCAA Division III athletic directors, or their level of commitment.

The identification of the factors that influence organizational commitment among NCAA Division III athletic directors can be a vital tool in acquiring and retaining top level administrators at NCAA Division III member institutions. Colleges and universities must decide if the non-wage labor costs incurred from hiring and training a new employee have more worth than finding a way to keep an experienced employee. Eherenberg and Smith (1994) state that hiring and training new employees comes at a considerable expense to an organization. Costs incurred can include advertising the

position, screening, and interviewing candidates as well as costs that come once the position has been offered and accepted (i.e., relocation cost and training).

Research Questions

- RQ1) Are there a significant difference between age and organizational commitment (affirmative, continuance, and normative)?
- RQ2) Are there a significant difference between marital/partnership status and organizational commitment (affirmative, continuance, and normative)?
- RQ3) Are there significant difference between number of years at institution and organizational commitment (affirmative, continuance, and normative)?
- RQ4) Are there a significant difference between gender and organizational commitment (affirmative, continuance, and normative)?
- RQ5) Are there a significant difference between ethnicity and organizational commitment (affirmative, continuance, and normative)?

Limitations

The following are limitations of this study:

1. The study primarily used online data collection. While every attempt was made to maximize participant response and to prevent technological problems, it is always possible that the e-mail invitations might not have been delivered to the participant or read.
2. In several cases the online survey was not completed in its entirety. This could have been the result of technological issues or that participant chose not to respond to some of the questions. This was most evident with the demographic questions in the first section of the questionnaire.

3. As with other survey research, some invitees chose not to participate for various unknown reasons, which could contribute to measurement error. There are numerous potential variables that could relate to organizational commitment among NCAA Division III Athletic Directors; however, only age, marital/partnership status, number of years at institution, gender, and ethnicity was chosen to examine for this research.

Delimitations

1. Study participants were current NCAA Division III Athletic Directors as indicated in 2009-2010 NACDA Directory.
2. Athletic Director organizational commitment was measured solely by the perceptions of the participants in response to the Meyer and Allen Three-Component Model (TCM) Survey.

Assumptions

1. It was assumed that organizational commitment is measurable.
2. It was assumed that participant responses to the Meyer and Allen Organizational Commitment Scale are truthful.
3. It was assumed that the participants could read and comprehend the questions that were put before them.

Definition of Terms

The definition of terms used in this research will be both theoretical and operational.

Athletic Director: “Plans, administers, and directs all intercollegiate athletic programs for men and women. Ensures that all athletics programs are in compliance with

NCAA and conference rules, regulations, and policies; and ensures that all programs and initiatives are integrated and effective in supporting the overall mission, goals, and objectives of the institution” (University of New Mexico, 2009).

National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA): The major governing body over intercollegiate athletics. “A basic purpose of this Association is to maintain intercollegiate athletics as an integral part of the student body, and by doing so, retain a clear line of demarcation between intercollegiate athletics and professional sports” (NCAA, 2008, p. 1).

National Association of Collegiate Directors of Athletics (NACDA): “NACDA serves as the professional association for those in the field of intercollegiate athletics administration. It provides educational opportunities and serves as a vehicle for networking, the exchange of information, and advocacy on behalf of the profession” (NACDA, 2010).

NCAA Division I: “Division I members must offer at least 14 sports (at least seven for men and seven for women, or six for men and eight for women). The institution must offer at least two team sports (for example football, basketball or volleyball) for each gender. The school must have participating male and female teams or participants in fall, winter and spring seasons” (NCAA, 2010a).

NCAA Division II: “Division II programs must offer at least 10 sports (at least five for men and five for women, or four men and six women). The school must also have participation male and female teams and participants in the fall, winter and spring

seasons, and must have at least the minimum number of participants and contestants for each sport” (NCAA, 2010b).

NCAA Division III: “Division III programs must have at least five sports for men and five sports for women. The institution must sponsor at least two team sports for each gender. The school must also have participating male and female teams in the fall, winter and spring seasons” (NCAA, 2010c)

Organizational Commitment: “the view that commitment is a psychological state that (a) characterizes the employees’ relationship with the organization, and (b) has implications for the decisions to continue membership in the organization” (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 11).

Affective Commitment: “Affective commitment refers to an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organization” (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 11).

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

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

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This review of literature explored organizational commitment among NCAA Division III athletic directors by analyzing previously published research on the topic. This review will first provide a summation of the subject matter; define organizational commitment, and follow-up a theoretical framework of this research. It will then proceed to review organizational commitment and contemporary theory, organizational commitment and demographic variables, and organizational commitment and athletic administrators.

Organizational Commitment

This section is an observation of the origins of organizational commitment and the scholars who have helped shape the research.

Meyer and Allen (1997) defined organizational commitment as “the view that commitment is a psychological state that (a) characterizes the employees’ relationship with the organization, and (b) has implications for the decisions to continue membership in the organization” (p. 11). In this section, background was presented on organizational commitment theory. Also provided are definitions of terms that correspond with the theory. The objective of organizational commitment is

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

In the late 1930s and early 1940s Bernard and Simon first researched organizational commitment, followed by Etzioni and Kanter in the 1960s. The significance of the congruency between individuals’ motives and organizational goals

was emphasized by Bernard .The decision to join an organization is based on the idea that the organization can fulfill personal needs. If changes occur and the individual believes the organization has entered a “zone of indifference” (Bernard, 1938) and disparity between incentive and contributions may cause the individual to leave. Bernard thought that the effectiveness of an organization is dependent upon an individual’s commitment to work as a team toward the goals of the organization. A continual commitment of individuals is necessary to ensure the effectiveness of an organization.

Simon (1945) further extended the research of Bernard. Simon hypothesized that the survival of an organization resulted from individuals making a decision that is based on the best interest of the organization. Simon described this characteristic as identification. Identification is the process in which the individual substitutes the objectives of the organization for his/her own goals and standards and manifests into organizational decision (Simon, 1976). There are three elements of identification: 1) personal interest in organizational success, 2) a sense of ownership of the organization, and 3) focus of attention.

Etzoioni (1961) discusses positive involvement and distinguishes three types: alienative involvement, calculative involvement, and moral involvement. Alienative involvement is a negative involvement and is regarded as coercion. Calculative involvement focuses on unbiased exchanges between the individual and the organization. Moral involvement refers to the individual internalizing the goals, norms, and values of the organization.

Kanter (1968) held that organizational commitment includes multiple approaches. Behavioral requirements of organizational commitment are: 1) continuance (commitment

to system survival), 2) cohesion (attachment to social relationship), and 3) control (attachment to organization). Bernard (1938), Simon (1945), Etzioni (1961), and Kanter (1968) provided the foundation for organizational commitment theory as it is studied today.

Organizational Commitment Theories (1960s to Present)

This section discusses contemporary theories that are presently being used in organizational commitment research.

Becker's "Side-Bet" Theory

Becker (1960) describes commitment as "a disposition to engage in consistent lines of activity" (p. 33) as a result of the accumulation of "side bets" that would be lost if the activity were discontinued. When used to explain commitment to the organization, the consistent line of activity refers to maintaining membership (i.e., employment) in the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1984). The term "side-bet" is an effort to put into words the process in which individuals align themselves with an organization via time, effort, and reward. An individual is considered to have made a side bet when his or her "decision with regard to some particular line of action has consequences for other interests or activities not necessarily related to it" (p. 35). Aligning oneself with an organization in this manner can cost an individual independence in future activity. Individuals can become locked into an organization because of the costs associated by leaving the organization (i.e., pension plans, seniority, and specific knowledge of the organization). Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) hold that commitment is an exchange between organization and individual in order to receive certain rewards and payments.

Becker's side-bet theory has been criticized for only identifying the behavior of individuals (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982).

Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1982) say that attitudinal commitment is the degree to which in individual and the organization's goals correspond. Attitudinal commitment studies aim to show that the effect of a strong commitment is lower absenteeism (Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999; Mathieu & Zajack, 1990; Somers, 1995), lower turnover (Lee & Maurer, 1999; Somers, 1995; Steers, 1977), and higher productivity (Andrews-Little, 2007; Angle & Perry, 1981; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993; Meyer, Paunonen, Gettality, Goffen, & Jackson, 1989).

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

Meyer and Allen (1997) define behavioral commitment as "the process by which individuals become locked into a certain organization and how the deal with this problem" (p. 9).

Mowday, Porter, Steers, and Boulian Model (1974)

Mowday et al. (1974) described organizational commitment as the "strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization, which is characterized by belief in and acceptance of organizational goals and values, willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization" (p. 27). The researchers identify that organizational commitment has three major components: 1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organizations goals, 2) readiness to put forth significant effort on behalf of the organization, and 3) an aspiration to maintain association within the organization.

O'Reilly and Chatman Model (1986)

Building on the Mowday et al. (1982) as a foundation, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) described commitment as

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

They believed compliance takes place when the individual embraces the attitudes and beliefs of the organization's to achieve specific rewards, but they adjusted their theoretical framework to recognize compliance and normative commitment as a combination of internalization and identification.

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

Meyer and Allen identified affective attachment and cost attachment as the dimensions of organizational commitment. Looking deeper into the subject matter uncovered a third dimension, obligation. Meyer and Allen (2001) defined the three component model as a

conceptualized commitment in terms of three distinct psychological states, each of which influences whether the person will remain with the organization. These are: emotional attachment to the organization (affective commitment), recognition of costs associated with leaving the organization (continuance commitment), and the perceived obligation to remain with the organization (normative commitment). (p. 597)

Organizational Commitment and Demographic Variables

Reviewing the various studies examining demographic variables, such as age, marital/partnership status, number of years in current position, level of education, gender, and ethnicity supplied insight into the link between demographic variables and

organizational commitment. The studies reviewed provide beneficial information to the relationship between the demographic variables and organizational commitment.

Organizational commitment of the faculty at the Institute of Public Administration studied by Al-Kahanti (2004), revealed that tenure, salary, age, and gender are significantly related with organizational commitment. The population limited this study. One of the institutions surveyed was a women's branch, which may have been showing different characteristics than what would have been shown from a co-educational institution.

The relationship between age, tenure, and job satisfaction to organizational commitment was explored by Heinzman (2004). Employees at two separate manufacturers (n=50, n=200) were sampled. The Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) (which was revised) used in the assessment sought to reveal the organizational commitment level of the employees. Heinzman used Pearson's Product Moment Correlation and disclosed that affective organizational commitment has a significant relationship to tenure (.22) but not to age (.13). Also revealed was the relationship between continuing organizational commitment to tenure (.25) and not to age (.14), as well as the significance of normative organizational commitment to tenure (.17) but not to age (.08). The use of a mixed population (a large and a small manufacturer) may have had an effect on organizational commitment, therefore becoming a limitation in the research. In the study of organizational commitment, it has been hypothesized that organizational characteristics (size, structure) influence affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Al-Hussami (2008) explored job satisfaction and organizational commitment among nurses. The research sought to discover how organizational support, transactional leadership, transformational leadership, and level of education related to job satisfaction of nurses. The participants (n = 192) were nurses from four nursing homes located in the Miami-Dade County Florida. The short form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (1967) was used to measure the dependent variable, job satisfaction; Meyer, Allen and Smith's (1993) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire was used to measure the independent variable, organizational commitment; and Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, and Sowa's (1986) Survey of Perceived Organizational Support measured perceived organizational support. Evaluation of how nurses perceived transformational and transactional leadership among nursing home administrators was measured using Bass and Avolio's (1992) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Form 6S.

The results point to a strong correlation $r(55) = .93, p < .05$, between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment revealed a significant correlation in all of the 20 items. The nurses' feelings of loyalty to their organizations and satisfaction in their job revealed their strongest feelings towards organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Al-Hussami, 2008). Utilizing Pearson's product-moment coefficient correlations (r) and an alpha level of .05, the study revealed that nurses' job satisfaction (n = 55); nurses' job satisfaction show significant correlation $r(55) = .93, p < .05$; and of all the independent variables, organizational support showed the highest correlation with job satisfaction. Furthermore, nurses' job satisfaction (n = 55), $r(55) = .34, p < .05$ positively correlated to level of

education; in addition to a positive correlation of ($n = 55$), $r(55) = .08$, $p < .05$, between transactional leadership behavior and job satisfaction.

Huang (2004) examined levels of organizational commitment among faculty at institutions of higher learning in Taiwan. The study looked at 354 faculty members via the variables of age, marital status, and length of tenure. The OCS gauged the faculty's level of commitment to their institution. The investigation discovered no noteworthy relationship between affective commitment and age (.48), normative commitment (.11), and continuance commitment (.09). No noteworthy relationship was found between marital status and affective commitment (.81), continuance commitment (.22), and normative commitment (.11); nor was there any significant relationship between length of employment and affective commitment (.81) and normative commitment. It must be noted that the research did reveal that there was a significant relationship between length of employment and continuance commitment. The limitation of this study was a result of the instrument having to be translated into another language (Chinese).

King's (2002) meta-analysis looked at the relationship between the three-component Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) and the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and the antecedents, differences, and consequences. The meta-analysis examined 244 studies, representing 89,010 respondents that uncovered the correlation between AC, CC, NC and education, and organizational commitment as a whole to be small or insignificant. OCQ and education had a significant difference of .04, but there was no significance found between the OCQ and age (.18) and tenure (.10). No significance was found between continuance commitment and education (-.11), age (.17), and tenure (.18). A case can be made that meta-analysis as a process can be biased

because judgment calls are made and may result in a different conclusion (Wanous, Sullivan, & Malinak, 1989). Therefore, it can be looked upon as a limitation for this study.

Lim (2003) studied organizational commitment and the relationship with the variables of age, education, gender, and number of years at current organization. The Organizational Commitment Scale was used to assess commitment to the organization; and a t-test was used to evaluate organizational commitment of a private organization in Korea. No significant results were found for affective commitment and age (.56), a continuance commitment (1.33), and normative commitment (.94). There was also no significant difference between level of education and affective commitment (2.11), continuance commitment (1.72) and normative commitment (.69); as well as showing no significant difference between year of service and affective commitment (2.35), continuance commitment (1.05), and normative commitment (2.42). The significant differences were revealed between gender and affective and continuance commitment. Males had higher affective and continuance mean scores than females. Limitations of this study come from the translation of the study from English to Korean and a loss of validity and/or meaning may have occurred in this study.

Schneider (2003) examined the relationship between selected demographics and organizational commitment. The OCS (revised) assessed the commitment level of managers. A significant relationship was revealed between affective commitment and age and income, and normative commitment and income. A stepwise multiple regressions were used to investigate if the variables would account for the variance of affective and normative commitment. Income and education were revealed as predictors of affective

and normative commitment. The regression analysis pointed to a 6% variance in affective and normative commitment accounted for the income alone and 3% when education is added. A limitation of this study can be found in the selection of the sample from the population.

Foosiri (2002) examined the relationship between organizational commitment and age, education, and salary of Thai employees within the American Chamber of Commerce in Thailand. Results revealed a significant relationship between affective communication and education and salary; also revealed was a positive relationship between age and affective, continuance and normative commitment. A positive relationship was found between salary and affective commitment; a negative correlation was found between education and continuance and normative commitment. The original OCS, which has a seven-point Likert scale, was used to measure the relationship between the variables and organizational commitment. Translation of the instrument into Taiwanese was noted as a limitation in this study.

Brookover (2002) examined the organizational commitment of 192 faculty members at Clemson University as it related to age, gender, marital status, tenure, salary, and alumni status. Results found significant differences between age and behavioral commitment (.02), no significant differences between age and attitudinal commitment (.65). No significant differences found between marital status and attitudinal commitment (.83) and behavioral commitment (.56); there was a significant difference between salary and behavioral commitment (002), but no significant differences between tenure and attitudinal commitment (.44). There was no significant difference between alumni of Clemson University and non-graduates as it pertains to behavioral commitment, although

alumni of Clemson had a higher level of attitudinal commitment (.005). Finally, a significant behavioral difference was found for tenured faculty versus non-tenured faculty.

Parry (2008) analyzed the relationship between newly graduated nurses' intention to change employers and intention to change professions. The participants were nursing professionals and nursing assistants (n = 135) in the state of Queensland, Australia. Participation was contingent upon the participants being registered to receive a baccalaureate degree in 2004. A repeated measures design was utilized to research relationships. Variables were measured by making use of the affective component of Blau's (2003) occupational commitment measure, Price's (2001) job satisfaction measure, Bozeman and Perrewé's (2001) revised Organizational Commitment Questionnaire and Organizational Turnover Intention scale. The model was tested with a final sample size of 131 nurses in the initial period of exposure to the workplace. Job satisfaction, organizational commitment and intention to change professions related significantly to intention to change employer. Affective professional commitment and organizational commitment related significantly to intention to change professions.

Brady (1997) analyzed the organizational commitment and health and human service professional staffers. Age, gender, race/ethnicity, education, source of income, marital status, salary, and the number of years at the agency were the variables being examined. No significant differences were found between affective commitment and race/ethnicity (.37), marital status (.52) and level of education (.82). It was found that affective commitment and age (.097), annual salary (.19) is significantly related, but there is no relation between years at the agency (.08). It was also found that continuance

commitment did not significantly relate to age (.006), number of years at the agency (.026), or annual salary (.018). There was no significant relationship found between continuance commitment and race/ethnicity (1.80), marital status (.52), and level of education (5.17). Normative commitment was found to have no significant relationship to age (.06), number of years at the agency (.03), and annual salary (.19); there was also no significant relationship found between normative commitment and race/ethnicity (1.93), marital status (1.05), or level of education (1.76).

Generation Xers and organizational commitment was explored by Valenti (2001). The researcher defined Generation Xers as persons born between the years of 1965 and 1978. Valenti's assumptions for this research was that this demographic of people were less committed to organizations than the generation that preceded them. The participants (n=315) were looked at in two stages. Stage 1 was individuals under the age of 30 and considered in the "Trial stage" of their life. Stage 2 was individuals between the ages of 30 and 40 and considered to be at the "Stabilization or Establishment stage" of their life. The research established that stage 1 participants were less affective and normatively committed than stage 2 participants. This implies that older employees are more committed to the organization than younger employees as it pertains to affective and normative commitment. There were significant differences found between stage 1 and stage 2 participants: affective commitment (1.98), normative commitment (1.18), and continuance commitment (.09). When age was used as the identifier, no significant differences were found between stage 1 and stage 2 participants: affective commitment (-.70), normative commitment (-.046), continuance commitment (.09).

Milliken and Martens (1996) look at the benefit of cultural diversity in the workplace. The authors state that cultural diversity makes the workforce more cooperative, creative, and productive and will produce higher quality ideas from its workers. Milliken and Martens (1996) conclude the organization is also at risk for increased complexity, ambiguity, and confusion as a consequence of differing perceptions and miscommunications as a result of cultural diversity (Dorherty & Chelladurai, 1999).

In a relational demographic and organizational commitment study by Tsui, Egan, and O'Reilly (1992) theorized that the demographic diversity of individuals affects a person's behavioral and psychological attachments to an organization. The researchers studied 1,705 employees from three organizations. The participants had been tenured in their positions for an average of 11 years; they had an average of 15 years of education; the average age was 40 years; 33% were women and 10% were minorities.

Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian's (1974) 10-item value commitment index (cited in Angel & Perry, 1981) researched organizational attachment. The study found significant dissimilarity in sex, age, and race, the lower the individual's psychological commitment to stay with the organization. It was also concluded that education and tenure has less to do with organizational attachment than age and race. Also revealed in the results men have the highest level of organizational commitment.

Blackhurst, Brandt, and Kalinowski (1998) explored organizational commitment and life satisfaction among women student affairs administrators. The purpose of the study was to discover, to what extent does organizational commitment and life satisfaction play in the lives of women student affairs administrators. The outcome of

the study suggested that commitment and satisfaction among women student affairs administrators was related to personal and work-related characteristics as well as role orientation.

Preston and Brown (2004) researched volunteer board members at social service, non-profit organizations ($n = 38$) in Orange County California, utilizing Meyer and Allen's Three-Component model. Researchers disseminated surveys to Board members ($N = 533$) during board meetings and asked them to return the surveys via the U.S. Postal Service.

The response rate was at 73.6%, with 197 completed surveys returned. Cronbach's alpha was measured at .92. The research revealed the relationship with the strongest findings was board members' performance and affective commitment ($r = .43$, $p = .001$, $n = 196$). Committed board members reported more participation and are regarded by the executive board to have more worth and to be more connected to the organization.

Fu, Bolander, and Jones (2009) measured perceived organizational support and organizational commitment to ascertain ways that managers can increase salesperson effort. Meyer and Allen's Three-Component model measured organizational commitment, and an online survey research firm oversaw the data collection. The participants were salespeople working for U.S.-based human resources service provider. One hundred forty-two useable surveys were collected, resulting in a response rate of 25%. It was found that perceived organizational support had a favorable effect on affirmative commitment, a negative effect on continuance commitment and no significant effect on normative commitment. Affective commitment also had a direct and positive

effect on a salesperson's efforts, unlike normative and continuance, which did not have a positive effect on sales efforts. Limitations included using only one organization and not taking into consideration employee turnover. It was suggested that future research should be longitudinal and participants from multiple companies should be used to allow for better analysis of the three components of organizational commitment.

Cunningham (2006) researched the relationship between commitment to change, coping with change, and turnover intentions. NCAA Division I-A (n = 10) athletic departments that were in the midst of a great deal of change within the organization were the target population. There were 229 participants. A structural equation model was employed to answer six different hypotheses: (1) affective commitment to change will be positively associated with coping with change; (2) continuance commitment to change will be negatively associated with coping with change; (3) coping with change will be negatively associated with turnover intentions; (4) normative commitment to change will be negatively related to organizational turnover intentions; (5) coping with change will mediate, at least partially, the negative relationship between affective commitment to change and organizational commitment to change; and (6) coping with change will mediate, at least partially, the positive relationship between continuance commitment and organizational turnover intentions. The results designate that the relationship between organizational commitment to change and turnover intentions and coping with change was fully mediated; continuance commitment to change and turnover intentions was partially mediated; and turnover intentions had a direct impact on normative commitment to change.

Luo, Wang, and Lu (2008) utilized multiple regression analysis to examine organizational commitment turnover intention and phase of occupational career development among sports teachers in four Chinese provinces. The participants (n = 247) consisted of 32% women and 62% men, with a mean age of 32. It was discovered that in the phase of fast development (3rd phase of teachers' occupational career), turnover intention could possibly be predicted by means of affective commitment. In the adaptive phase of development (2nd phase of teachers' occupational career) normative commitment can predict turnover intention. Results established that universities and colleges needed to advance and grow affective commitment during the 3rd phase of teachers' occupational career; and enhance normative commitment in the 2nd phase of teachers' occupational career, thus reducing turnover intention.

Clopton, Finch and Ryan's (2010) research explored intercollegiate athletics and its relationship with the institutions' organizational identity (affective commitment and construed external image). The two types of images being examined were perceived athletic prestige and academic prestige. The intent of the current research was to explore the relationship between intercollegiate athletics and two outcomes of university, or organizational, identity: affective commitment and construed external image

Organizational Commitment and Athletics

This portion of the literature review will concentrate on organizational commitment with the focus on intercollegiate athletic administrators.

The purpose of Whisenant's (2005) research was to link organizational justice and organizational commitment to sport. Results did vary in some cases in regards to the extent of student's level of commitment to their sport. It was also discovered that student

athlete's intention to continue participation in sport was contingent upon the level of respect and dignity given to athletes were given by their coaches, the more likely athletes were to continue their sport participation.

Ogasawara (1997) looked to distinguish significant differences between organizational and occupational commitment, and job satisfaction between coaches at 432 Division I and 468 Division III universities in the United States, and 278 coaches at Japanese universities. Data was analyzed using MANOVA, so that the variables could be grouped. Japanese and American coaches both were more committed to coaching than their respective organizations.

Thorn (2010) researched intercollegiate athletics and its relationship to the organizational justice (procedural, distributive, interactional), organizational commitment, and overall job satisfaction. It was found that type of sport did not play a part in the relationship between organizational justice, overall job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Perceptions of organizational commitment and overall job satisfaction showed no significant differences; and different organizational justice components uniquely contributed to the prediction of organizational commitment and overall job satisfaction among various types of sport.

Andrews-Little (2007) utilized Meyer and Allen's OCS to examine the perception of organizational commitment among NCAA Division I-AA Senior Woman Administrators (SWA) (n = 66). Independent variables that was measured included ethnicity, marital status, current annual salary, age, number of years in current position, highest degree earned, and alumni status and organizational commitment; as well as the significant differences between the demographic variables and organizational

commitment. The research revealed a significant difference in the mean score of SWAs' perceptions of normative commitment and alumni status, as well as differences in the mean score of SWAs' perception of age and alumni status to affective commitment. Current annual salary, age and alumni status related significantly to affective commitment; ethnicity significantly related to normative commitment; and alumni status significantly related to continuance commitment.

Thompson (1982) analyzed differences between male and female athletic directors. He examined 228 female and 171 male athletic directors. Researchers sought to discover the participants' views on participation, responsibilities, duties, and functions of women's athletic programs at small, medium, and large institutions. The results of the study showed that athletic directors at all institutions and both males and females view the degree of involvement for women's athletic programs are "now being fulfilled" and "should be perceived."

Bonance's (1995) researched perceptions of women who are candidates for athletic administration positions in the course of their interview process. Ninety-two percent of the 452 respondents believed the "old boys" network to be a slight barrier in the employment of women. It was also exposed that women were discouraged from seeking top management positions because the "old boys" network could thwart their chances to move up the ranks.

Sweaney (1996) evaluated issues affecting the career paths of male and female Athletic Directors. Sweaney compared the results of this study to the results of the study conducted by Deller (1993). It was found that female respondents typically held a bachelor's degree in physical education and a master's in business. Conversely, male

respondents typically had bachelor and masters degrees in physical education. Twenty-five percent of females and 25.5% of males held doctoral degrees in physical education and was agreed by both male and female that at least a year of experience working in athletic administration was important if one's intention is to be an Athletic Director.

Deller (1993) studied 54 female athletic directors from NCAA Division I, II, and III institutions to reveal the issues women should become aware of and knowledge they should have when embarking on a career in athletic administration. It was said by the respondents that women should attain a master's degree at minimum and have some coaching and/or athletic administration experience.

Raedeke, Warren, and Grabzyk (2002) surveyed 469 current and former, full and part-time, USA Swimming coaches to see if there was a significant relationship between coaching commitment and turnover. The purpose of this research was two-fold. The first purpose was to see if hypothesized commitment models deliver an acceptable fit to the data. The second purpose was to explore whether former and current USA Swimming age-group coaches have differ on commitment and theoretical determinants (Radeke, et. al., 2002). Youth sport research was utilized to explore turnover and commitment (Farrell & Rusbult, 1981, Rusbult, 1980, 1983; Rusbult & Ferrell, 1983; Scanlan, Simmons, Carpenter, Schmidt, & Keeler, 1993; Radeke, et. al., 2002). Data was analyzed via MANOVA and results revealed the commitment level of former coaches was not as high as current coaches.

Rocha and Turner (2008) described and examined coaches' extra-role behavior (i.e., organizational commitment, organizational citizenship, organizational behavior and organizational effectiveness) within athletic departments. A web-based survey was

dispersed to randomly selected NCAA Division I head coaches (N = 800) with 241 (30.1%) coaches responding to the questionnaire. A multiple regression analysis was conducted to assess the independent variables on financial performance, social performance, athletic achievement, and student-athlete education. It was found that coaches' citizenship and commitment behaviors do not predict the effectiveness of an athletic department.

Cunningham and Sagas (2004) examined the effect of how racial differences within a coaching staff can influence organizational commitment. The participants were first and second assistant coaches of men's Division I basketball teams. The method for collecting data was a survey that was mailed to (N = 300). Of the 300 surveys mailed out, 235 were returned, with a response rate of 39%. ANOVA revealed that coaching staffs that had a reasonably equal number of racial minorities, Black and white coaches had a lower commitment levels than staffs that were primarily Black or White. Conversely, White coaches on largely Black coaching staffs had a lower commitment than their peers on coaching staffs with a reasonably equal racial distribution or staffs that were predominantly White.

Winterstein (1998) looked at the commitment of head athletic trainers (n=330) to their organizations. The participants worked at NCAA Division I, II, and III member institutions and results signified that continuance commitment scores were considerably lower than the score for affective and normative scores. Results also pointed to Division I and II head athletic trainers demonstrated elevated levels of normative commitment to athletic departments and affective and normative commitment to co-workers as opposed to their Division III counterparts.

Turner's (2001) multi-dimensional study of organizational commitment and athletic coaches explored the components of organizational commitment and organizational and occupational commitment. The population (n=724) consisted of head coaches from NCAA Division I and III institutions. Making use of Meyer and Allen's (1997) four bases of commitment (affective, normative, continuance-low number of alternatives, and continuance-high personal sacrifice) resulted in finding a relationship between satisfaction with the organization and turnover intentions. It was also found that occupational commitment had more influence on intention to leave the job than satisfaction with job. Coaches have greater levels of affective commitment when exploring reasons why coaches remain at institutions.

Turner and Chelladuri (2005) invited all men and women coaches from NCAA Division I and III (n = 328) to measure their team standings, perception of their personal performance, commitment to the coaching profession, commitment to the university, and their intention to leave. To ensure that all sports were represented, a stratified random sample method (by sport) was employed when sending out the survey to the (N = 724) coaches. Meyer and Allen's three-component model was used to measure organizational commitment; the factor loadings from Meyer et al. (1993) were employed to measure occupational commitment and intention to leave. Performance was measured by means of subjective and objective measures of performance. A separate questionnaire was used to learn demographic information (gender, marital status, division, etc.) and MANOVA was used for analysis of the data. Division I head coaches (120 men, 136 women) had a response rate of 43.1%; Division III head coaches responded to the survey (172 men, 52 women), with a response rate of 47.5%. The overall response rate was 45.3 percent (N =

328) with the confidence rate being lowered to 93% and a 5% sampling error. Affective, normative, continuance: low alternatives correlated significantly with intention to leave the occupation. Intention to leave the organization correlated significantly with affective, normative, continuance: high sacrifice. Results of the survey pointed out that athletic departments need to look for ways to improve the commitment of coaches to their organization, and demographic variables had little to do with organizational or occupational commitment. Track and field coaches were exempt from this study because of the overlap in coaching responsibility between indoor and outdoor track and field.

Turner and Jordan (2006) looked at commitment and satisfaction in the retention and performance of intercollegiate athletic coaches. The study's sample population was all head coaches from NCAA Division I (n=156) and Division III (n=172). The study revealed that satisfaction and commitment related significantly to performance and retention of Division I and Division III intercollegiate head coaches.

Chelladurai and Oswagawara (2003) evaluated differences in organizational commitment between NCAA Division I (n=432) and Division III (n=468) coaches and Japanese (n=274) coaches. The study provided evidence that Division I and Division III coaches were less committed to their organizations than their Japanese counterparts. The study illustrates the need to develop and nurture coaches in order to gain a higher commitment.

Cunningham, Sagas, Dixon, Kent, and Turner (2005) explored the impact of internships on students' career related affect and intentions. The participants were upper level graduate students enrolled in sport management courses (71 interns, 67 non-interns) at four universities. All participants filled out a questionnaire that requested demographic

information. Anticipated career satisfaction was measured by five items taken from Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley's (1990) career satisfaction questionnaire. Meyer, Allen, and Smith's (1993) scale was used to measure affective occupational commitment; and three items were developed by the researchers to measure intention to enter profession sport management as a profession. Results revealed that interns had less positive feelings toward sport as a profession than non-interns. There was a relationship between anticipated career satisfaction and intentions to enter the profession, which was revealed via structural equation modeling.

Cuskelly (1995) investigated volunteer committee members (n=159) from 17 sport organizations. The intent of the study was to find the extent of organizational commitment amongst the volunteer committee members. It was discovered that volunteer administrators were more committed in groups they perceive to be open in their decision making process and conflict resolution.

Cuskelly, McIntyer, and Boag's (1998) three wave, six-month longitudinal study examined volunteer administrators (n=328), from 52 community-based organizations. The results, resembling Cuskelly's (1995) earlier research, revealed that volunteers had a stronger organizational commitment to groups that performed in a more constructive manner and were more open in conflict resolution and decision making. Volunteer administrators must have an environment that they believe to be open and positive in order to gain a higher organizational commitment.

Sakires, Doherty, and Misner (2009) examine the perceptions and correlations of role ambiguity and to measure role ambiguity in an organizational setting. They were looking to see if role ambiguity varies among demographic variables, such as age and

gender, paid or unpaid, and is it predictive of job satisfaction in a volunteer sport organization. The participants came from two Canadian provinces and consisted of paid staff (n = 79) and volunteer board members (n = 147) from 57 provincial sport organizations. Kahn's (1964) Multidimensional Measure of Organizational Role Ambiguity (MMORA) was used to measure "1) scope of knowledge, 2) means-ends knowledge, 3) priority of expectation, 4) evaluation of performance, and 5) consequences of role performance" (Sakires, Doherty, & Misner, 2009, p. 624). The measurement of job satisfaction was measured using the Russell et al. (2004) Abridged Job in General (AJIG) instrument; organizational commitment was measured by employing Mowday et al.'s (1982) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ); and effort was measured using a multi-item scale developed specifically for that study. An invitation to participate in the study was sent to 657 participants via email with link to the web-based survey. Two hundred twenty-two completed surveys were returned with a response rate of 35%. It was discovered that age, job tenure, and organization tenure had a negative association with role ambiguity. It was also found that there was a greater role ambiguity was associated with lower effort job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Doherty and Chelladurai (1999) recognize the affect of cultural diversity in sport organizations. The researchers discuss the four cell theoretical framework on the impact of cultural diversity within sport organizations. Less cohesion, mistrust, and lack of communication is identified in Cell 1; even though it was determined to have a sizeable amount of cultural diversity amongst members. Cell 2 also had sizeable amount of cultural diversity amongst its members and was valued within the organizations culture. Constructive conflict was encouraged and individuals are able to contribute their unique

perspectives, values, and creativity to the organization. Little cultural diversity is identified in Cell 3. This group was found to be homogeneous and aligned their value with that of the organization's; thus, having more cohesion and less conflict. Finally, Cell 4 is identified as members who are similar culturally, but still has an underlying culture of diversity.

Dixon, Cunningham, Sagas, Turner, and Kent (2005) researched undergraduate interns and the factors related to organizational commitment (affective). This research more specifically examined job challenge, supervisor support, and role stress as potential antecedents to the commitment of interns. Results found that women had a greater commitment than men, which is notable because it is converse to previous studies that state men are more commitment. It is suggested that women seeking careers in sport may have to be more committed to eke out an existence in the industry. It was also concluded that job challenge had a significantly positive relationship to affective commitment; whereas supervisor support and role stress did not relate significantly. This study was limited by because self-reports on work experiences were utilized; and the use of interns from a certain sport industry segment.

Kim, Jones, and Rodriguez (2008) explored organizational commitment and sport identity in full-time, part-time, practicum/internship workers, and volunteers in a university athletic department in the southern United States. The athletic department of the university's (N = 200) employees, volunteers, and interns were sent an email and invited to participate in the study. Eighty-seven completed surveys were returned and Meyer and Allen's (1997) Organizational Commitment Scale was used to measure the constructs of organizational commitment and sport identity. MANOVA was used to

analyze the three components of organizational commitment (AC, NC, CC) and sport identity. It was found that full-time and practicum/internship worker have a significantly higher sport identity than volunteer and part-time workers. It was also revealed that practicum/internship worker and volunteers show significantly higher normative and affective commitment than part-time employees and significantly lower affective commitment than full-time employees. It was recommended that athletic department utilize practicum/internship and volunteers more and cautiously hire part-time employees.

Todd (2003) researched how selection of a task variable and positive mood state impact organizational citizenship behavior of employees (n = 374) a manufacturer of outdoor recreation products. The results imply that intrinsically satisfying tasks and task autonomy predicted job satisfaction, while organizational citizenship behavior was predicted by job satisfaction and job self-efficacy.

Makover (2003) studied employees (n = 112) (self-efficacy, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and “in-role” job performance) and consumer (n = 303) (perceived service quality, customer satisfaction, and customer loyalty) attitudes and behaviors in the fitness industry. The participants were representative of 20 fitness clubs in South Florida. It was found that customer perceived service quality predicted customer satisfaction and employee attitudes were a predictor of employee behavior.

Robinson, Peterson, Tedrick, and Carptenter’s (2003) research investigated if there were differences between NCAA Division III Athletic Directors based on job design and time on task. They surveyed 371 NCAA Division III institutions. The three sections of the survey gathered demographic data and job satisfaction. ANOVA was used

to analyze the returned surveys (N = 215, 58%), which measured the differences between full-time athletic directors and those who have responsibilities beyond his/her duties as athletic director (Robinson et al., 2003). Their results found that NCAA Division III Athletic Directors are generally satisfied with their position. Those who were full-time Athletic Director were significantly more satisfied than those Athletic Directors who had additional responsibilities; and time spent on duties does not equate to job satisfaction.

Summary of Review of Literature

This review of literature has shown there is no research to date on the organizational commitment of NCAA Division III Athletic Directors. This review did look at organizational commitment as it connects to its constructs AC, CC, and NC, new employees and length of tenure, turnover intentions, and job, occupational, and professional commitment. The study of sport organizational commitment is a relatively young discipline and has strong body of knowledge; there is still room for more research to be done, especially as it pertains to athletic administration. There was some research found on organizational commitment as it relates to sport/athletics, athletes, and management/administration, but there were no studies found specifically looking at the organizational commitment of NCAA Division III Athletic Directors.

NCAA Division III athletics has been largely overlooked for years. There are no athletic scholarships and some ADs at D-III institutions wear many different hats of responsibility for little or no extra income. This study seeks to bring understanding to and inform others on why the men and women in these positions are/are not committed to the job of NCAA Division III Athletic Director. The lack of research concludes that the examination of organizational commitment and D-III athletic departments as it relates to

an array of topics may have a significantly positive influence the hiring and retention of Athletic Directors as well as women, minorities, coaches, student-athletes, sponsors, and athletic department donors.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter illustrates the measures used to investigate organizational commitment among D-III Athletic Directors. The information in this chapter is divided into the following sections: research design, population and sample, data collection procedures, response rate, instrumentation, psychometric measurement (validity and reliability), statistical data analysis, and levels of significance. This non-experimental investigation was conducted using a cross-sectional survey design. Data were collected once. It utilized descriptive information to assess the organizational commitment of NCAA Division III Athletic Directors. This project also employed parametric and descriptive statistics to analyze the data based on demographic variables including age, marital/partner status, and number of years at institution.

Research Design

A quantitative, cross sectional, non-experimental, research design was utilized for this investigation. This design was selected because it was the most viable choice for this research. A cross-sectional survey design was used to explore the demographic variables of age, number of years at institution, marital/partnership status, gender, and ethnicity. Cross-sectional research looks at variables at a specific point in time. In a cross-sectional survey the researcher collects information from a predetermined population (Borg & Gall, 1983). The dependent variable examined in this study was the organizational commitment of NCAA Division III Athletic Directors, with the constructs of affirmative, continuance, and normative commitment.

Population and Sample

A census sampling was employed to study the population of current NCAA Athletic Directors of Division III member institutions as listed in the National Association of Collegiate Directors of Athletics (NACDA) 2009-2010 National Directory of College Athletics. Utilizing a census sampling technique eliminates the concern of sampling error (Kent & Chelladuri, 2001). In this research every possible participant was extended an invitation to participate in this research. Patten (2005) states that to obtain an unbiased sample, every member of a population must be given an equal chance of being included. All participants were anonymous to the researcher.

Data Collection Procedures

Data were collected using Survey Monkey from November 15 to December 11, 2010 using web-based data collection techniques. A modified version of Dillman's (2009) tailored design method was used to administer and disperse this web-based survey.

Dillman et al. (2009) state:

The tailored design involves using multiple motivational features in compatible and mutually supportive ways to encourage high quantity and quality of response to the surveyor's request. It developed from a social exchange perspective on human behavior, which suggests that respondent behavior is motivated by the return that behavior that is expected to bring, and in fact, usually does bring, from others. It assumes that the likelihood of responding to a self-administered questionnaire, and doing so accurately, is greater when the respondent trusts that the expected rewards will outweigh the anticipated costs of responding. (p. 16)

Also, Dillman, Smyth, and Christian (2009) state that the dissimilarity between mail and web-based questionnaires is the fact that one survey is delivered through the mail, but with web-based questionnaires participants are trusted to go get the questionnaire themselves. The target population (N = 418) was identified as Division III

Athletic Directors from their listing in the NACDA 2009-2010 National Directory of College Athletics. All participants were contacted via the listserv of the National Association of Division III Athletic Administrators inviting them to participate in this study. Participants were asked to identify their institution for the sole purpose of tracking of responses. A link to the survey was sent electronically via the listserv of the National Association of Division III Athletic Administrators. Detailed instructions preceded the survey affirming that participants had read and comprehended survey instructions. Participants concurred that participation in the study was voluntary and that they had no expectation of monetary compensation. Participants were then instructed to check the box conveying they understand and consent before proceeding to the survey. The Institutional Review Board of the University of New Mexico approved the data collection procedure for this study.

Participants were also given the option of requesting a paper and pencil survey be sent to them via the United States Postal Service. As proposed by Dillman et al. (2009), paper and pencil survey packets consisted a cover letter explaining the purpose of the survey, the number of questions and an estimate of how long it should take to complete the survey; a statement to be signed and returned with the survey that conveys they have read and comprehend survey instructions, understand that was no monetary compensation and that their participation in this study is voluntary. The participant received a survey, and postage paid returned envelope. There were no requests made for paper and pencil surveys by survey participants.

Response Rate

According to the Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development (OCED) (2010), response rate is the number of respondents who complete surveys weighed against the number of surveys assigned. Although response rates can vary between web-based and mail survey response rates, it was felt that a web-based survey would yield the desired rate of response as well as be cost effective.

The advantages of using the Internet include cost savings associated with eliminating printing and mailing of survey instruments, as well as time and cost savings of having returned survey data already in electronic form (Cobanoglu, Cihan, & Moreno, 2001; Kaplowitz, Hadlock, & Levine, 2004). Earlier research (Couper, Traugott, & Lamias, 2001; Sills & Song, 2002) concluded that groups that use the internet on a regular basis would find a web-based survey useful in conducting research (Kaplowitz et al., 2004). The desired response rate for this study, in order to represent the target population is 48% (n = 201 out of n = 418) based on a confidence level of 95 percent as indicated by Raosoft's (2010) Sample Size Calculator.

To strengthen the response rate of this research, the National Association of Division III Athletic Administrators distributed a web link for the online survey to their membership.

Instrumentation

The questionnaire for this study had two sections. Section one consisted of the demographic variables of the research participants. The second section of the questionnaire sought to measure the organizational commitment of NCAA Division III Athletic Directors. The independent variables for this study were age, number of years at

institution, marital/partnership status, gender and ethnicity. The participants were asked to answer each question as instructed at beginning of the survey.

The second section addressed the construct variables of the Meyer and Allen (1991) Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS). The OCS was used to measure participants' perceptions of organizational commitment; it is an instrument in which the participant self-reports affective, normative and continuance commitment. *Affective organizational commitment*: Meyer and Allen (1991) state that The Affective Organizational Commitment Scale measures affective organizational commitment. Affective commitment is the employee's attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. *Normative organizational commitment*: Normative commitment is defined by Meyer and Allen (1991) as an employee's feelings of obligation to continue with the organization. *Continuance organizational commitment*: Continuance commitment is commitment based on the costs that employees associate with leaving and organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

The Likert scale measures level of agreements; it is the most commonly used questionnaire design (Babbie, 2001). McMillan (2004) states that Likert scales measure level of agreements. The OCS (1991) design is a 7 – point Likert scale. Survey participants answered 24 questions by stating that they: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Slightly Disagree, 4 = Undecided, 5 = Slightly Agree, 6= Agree, 7 = Strongly Agree.

The OCS consists of 24 items (8 items per scale). This instrument was converted to an online format using Survey Monkey, an online survey tool. The survey was

circulated once approval of the University of New Mexico Institutional Review Board was given.

Psychometric Measurement (Validity and Reliability)

Validity

Borg and Gall (1983) state, “construct validity is the extent to which a particular test can be shown to measure a hypothetical construct” (p. 280). The validity of the Meyer and Allen instrument to measure organizational commitment was confirmed by its successful use in many different studies. Fields (2002) found that Hackett et al. supported Meyer and Allen’s (1991) three-component model (1994, and Dunham et al. (1994). An instrument is considered valid if it measures accurately whatever it is intended to measure, and accurately functions the way it is supposed to function (Patten, 2005).

Reliability

Reliability is the level of stability and dependability of the instrument over time (Borg & Gall, 1983). The Meyer and Allen Organizational Commitment Scale can be considered a reliable instrument and has been used successfully in many different research studies (Allen & Meyer, 1990a; Cohen, 1996, 1999; Cohen & Kirchmeyer, 1995; Hackett et al., 1994; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer, Irving, & Allen, 1998; Somers, 1995; Somers & Birnbaum, 1998). Fields (2002) states, “Coefficient alpha values ranged from .77 to .88 for affective commitment (ACS), from .65 to .86 for normative commitment (NCS), and from .69 to .84 for continuance commitment (CCS)” (p. 51).

Statistical Data Analysis

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software Version 19 was employed for data analysis. Multiple, One-Way ANOVA’s were conducted to test the

differences in organizational commitment utilizing the independent variables of age, marital/partnership status, number years at institution, gender, and ethnicity. The dependent variables are affirmative commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment. Means and standard deviations were used to analyze the participants' age, number of years at current institution, marital/partnership status, gender, and ethnicity. Fifteen One-Way ANOVAs were conducted, measuring each dependent variable once to examine if there is a relationship between the three independent variables.

Analysis of variance is used to determine whether mean scores on one or more factors differ significantly from each other, and whether the various factors interact significantly with each other; also used to determine whether sample variances differ significantly from each other. (Borg & Gall, 1983, p. 379)

One-Way ANOVAs were applied because the researcher was only looking at commitment levels across five independent variables (age, marital/partnership status, number of years at institution, gender, and ethnicity).

Level of Statistical Significance

Statistical significance is the likelihood that any observed relationship within the sample happened by chance, and the results yielded are representative of the population (Statsoft, 2010). The significance level was set a priori at .05 alpha.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Data were collected using Survey Monkey from November 15 to December 11, 2010. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software Version 19 was employed for data analysis. In this chapter the findings for each research question were addressed in addition to the descriptive statistics of this of this research. No other sources were used in the collection of data.

Demographic Profile of Study Participants

This study had a 40% response rate. One hundred sixty-eight (168) out of 418 Division III Athletic Directors participated in this study. The participants were self-reported by their age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of children, type of institution, hours worked per week, level of education, and alumni status.

Gender

Of the 168 Division III Athletic Directors respondents, 125 responded to the question of gender. The demographic breakdown included: 76 (68.8%) self-reported as being male and 49 (39.2%) self-reported as being female. For reasons unknown some participants chose not to self-report their gender. Calculation of the percentage of respondents from each gender that answered “4” or greater in each of the three organizational commitment constructs revealed that a noticeably higher percentage of males viewed themselves as “affectively” committed to the institution.

Table 1 Frequency distribution of participants by gender

Variable	Number	Percent	Affective	Continuance	Normative
Male	76	60.8	56/65.9%	14/46.7%	8/88.9%
Female	49	39.2	29/34.1%	16/53.3%	1/11.1%
Total	125	100			
Missing Data	43	25.5			
Total	168	100.0			

Ethnicity

Of the 168 Division III Athletic Directors surveyed, 128 responded to the question of ethnicity. The demographic breakdown included: 1 (.8%) self-identified as African American, 4 (3%) self-identified as Asian, 120 (94%) self-identified as White and 3 (2%) self-identified themselves as Other. For reasons unknown some participants chose not to self-report their ethnicity. Further research is needed to uncover the possible reasons why some chose not to answer this question. Missing data represented 48 (29%) of the 168 total respondents for the question of ethnicity. Calculation of the respondents that answered from each ethnic group that answered “4” or greater in each of the three organizational commitment construct White participants (which was the largest population) answered “affectively” committed to the institution See Table 2 for results.

Table 2 Frequency distribution of participants by ethnicity

Variable	Number	Percent	Affective	Continuance	Normative
African American	1	.6	1/1.2%	0	0
Asian	4	2.4	2/6.7%	2/6.7%	1/11.1%
White	115	68.5	81/96.4%	28/93.3%	8/88.9%
Total	120	71.4			
Missing Data	48	28.6			
Total	168	100.0			

Marital Status

Of the 168 Division III Athletic Directors surveyed, 120 participants responded to the question of marital status. The demographic breakdown included: 16 (13%) were self-identified as single, 89 (74%) were self-identified as married, 2 (17%) were self-identified as divorced and 13 (11%) were self-identified as in a domestic partnership. For reasons unknown some participants chose not to self-report their marital/partnership status.

Further research is needed to uncover the possible reasons why some chose not to answer this question. Missing data represented 48 (29%) of the 168 total respondents for the question of marital status. Calculation of the percentage of respondents from each of the marital/partnership categories that answered “4” or greater in each of the three organizational commitment constructs married respondents view themselves “normatively” committed to the institution. See Table 3 for results.

Table 3 Frequency distribution of participants by marital status/partnership status

Variables	Number	Percent	Affective	Continuance	Normative
Single	16	9.5	9/11.0%	4/13.8%	1/11.1%
Married	89	53.0	63/76.8%	22/75.9%	8/88.9%
Divorced	2	1.2	1/1.2%	0	0
Domestic Partner	13	7.7	9/11.0%	3/10.3%	
Total	120	71.4			0
Missing Data	48	28.6			
Total	168	100			

Number of Children

Of the 168 Division III Athletic Directors surveyed, 124 responded to the question number of children. The demographic breakdown included: 37 (30%) were self-identified having no children, 12 (10%) were self-identified having one child, 45 (36%) were self-identified having two children, 22 (18%) were self-identified as having three children, 4 (3%) were self-identified having four children and 4 (3%) identified as having five or more children. For reasons unknown some participants chose not to self-report their number of children. Further research is needed to uncover the possible reasons why some chose not to answer this question. Missing data represented 44 (26%) of the 168 total respondents for the question of number of children. See Table 4 for results.

Table 4 Frequency distribution of participants by number of children

Variable	Number	Percent
0	37	29.8
1	12	.096
2	45	.36
3	22	.18
4	4	.03
5	4	.03
Total	124	100
Missing Data	44	26.2
Total	37	29.8

Type of Institution

Of the 168 Division III Athletic Directors surveyed, 124 responded to the question of type of institution. The demographic breakdown included: 24 (19%) were self-identified as working at a public institution, and 100 (81%) were self-identified as working at a private institution. For reasons unknown some participants chose not to self-report their type of institution. Further research is needed to uncover the possible reasons why some chose not to answer this question. Missing data represented 44 (35%) of the 168 total respondents for the question of type of institution. See Table 5 for results.

Table 5 Frequency distribution of participants by type of institution

Variable	Number	Percent
Public	24	.193
Private	100	.806
Total	124	100
Missing Data	44	.354
Total	168	100.0

Number of Hours Worked Per Week

Of the 168 Division III Athletic Directors surveyed, 124 responded to the question of number of hours worked per week. The demographic breakdown included: 1 person (.01%) identified as working 25 hours per week, 4 (3%) identified as working 30 hours per week, 6 (.05%) identified as working 40 hours per week, 2 (.02%) identified as working 45 hours per week, 1 person (.01%) identified as working 48 hours per week, 26 (21%) identified as working 50 hours per week, 12 (10%) identified as working 55 hours per week, 42 (34%) identified as working 60 hours per week, 8 (.06%) identified as working 65 hours per week, 15 (12%) identified as working 70 hours per week, 2 (.02%) identified as working 75 hours per week, 2 (.02%) identified as working 80 hours per week, 1 person (.01%) identified as working 85 hours per week, and 2(.02%) identified as working 90 hours per week. For reasons unknown some participants chose not to self-report their number of hours worked per week. Further research is needed to uncover the possible reasons why some chose not to answer this question. Missing data represented

44 (35%) of the 168 total respondents for the question of number of hours worked per week. See Table 6 for results

Table 6 Frequency distribution of participants by number of hours worked per week

Variables	Number	Percent
25	1	.008
30	4	.032
40	6	.048
45	2	.016
48	1	.008
50	26	.209
55	12	.096
60	42	.338
65	8	.064
70	15	.12
75	2	.016
80	2	.016
85	1	.008
90	2	.016
Total	124	100
Missing Data	44	35
Total	168	100.0

Level of Education

Of the 168 Division III Athletic Directors surveyed, 124 responded to the question of level of education. The demographic breakdown included: 10 (8%) self-identified having a Bachelors degree, 93 (75%) self-identified having a Master of Arts degree and 21 (17%) self-identified having a Ph.D. For reasons unknown some participants chose not to self-report their level of education. Further research is needed to uncover the possible reasons why some chose not to answer this question. Missing data represented 44 (26%) of the 168 total respondents for the question of level of education. See Table 7 for results.

Table 7 Frequency distribution of participants by level of education

Variable	Number	Percent
Bachelor	10	.08
Master of Arts	93	.75
Ph.D. or Ed.D.	21	.169
Total	124	100
Missing Data	44	26
Total	168	100.0

Alumni Status

Of the 168 Division III Athletic Directors surveyed, 124 responded to the question of alumni status. The demographic breakdown included: 30 (24%) self-identified as alumni, and 94 (76%) identified as not being alumni. For reasons unknown some participants chose not to self-report their alumni status. Further research is needed

to uncover the possible reasons why some chose not to answer this question. Missing data represented 44 (26%) of the 168 total respondents for the question of alumni status. See Table 8 for results.

Table 8 Frequency distribution of participants by alumni status

Variables	Number	Percent
Yes	30	.24
No	94	.76
Total	124	100
Missing Data	44	26
Total	168	100.0

Age

Of the 168 Division III Athletic Directors surveyed, 115 responded to the question of age. The demographic breakdown included: 10% self-identified being between 20 and 29 years of age, 37% self-identified being between 30 and 39 years of age, 43% self-identified as being between 40 and 49 years of age, and 10% self-identified being fifty years of age or older. For reasons unknown some participants chose not to self-report their age. Further research is needed to uncover the possible reasons why some chose not to answer this question. Missing data represented 53 (32%) of the 168 total respondents for the question of age. Calculation of the percentage of respondents from each age group that answered “4” or greater in each of the three organizational

commitment constructs revealed that a noticeably higher percentage of respondents between the ages of 40 to 49 viewed themselves as “continuance” committed to the organization. See Table 9 for results.

Table 9 Frequency distribution of participants by age

Variable	Number	Percent	Affirmative	Continuance	Normative
20 -29	12	.104	11.8	6.7	11.1
30 – 39	42	.365	31.8	30.0	33.3
40 - 49	50	.434	45.9	50.0	33.3
50 +	11	.095	10.6	13.3	22.2
Total	115	100			
Missing Data	53	32			
Total	168	100			

Research Question #1

Are there significant differences between age and organizational commitment (affective, continuance and normative)?

Age and Affective Commitment

Presented in Table 10 are the mean and standard deviation scores for ages 20 to 29, 4.69 (SD=.508), ages 30 to 39 was 4.75 (SD=.744), ages 40 to 49 was 4.80 (SD=.774), and for age 50 plus was 5.09 (SD=1.09). Shown in Table 11 are the results of a One-Way Analysis of Variance regarding age and affective commitment. There was no statistical significance found between age and affective commitment ($F=.647$, $df= 3/111$, $p>.05$) at

the .05 level. These results indicate that age has no effect on affective commitment.

Further analysis employing the Tukey post hoc procedure revealed no mean differences were observed. See Table 12.

Table 10 Mean and standard deviation results regarding age and affective commitment

Age	Mean	Standard Deviation
20 -29	4.6890	.50848
30 – 39	4.7534	.74431
40 – 49	4.8025	.77430
50 +	5.0909	1.09415
Total	4.8003	.77277

Table 11 Analysis of variance summary table regarding age and affective commitment

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Between	1.170 ^a	3	.390	.647	.586
Within	66.907	111	.603		
Total	68.078	114			

Table 12 Tukey results regarding age and affective commitment

Age	Variables	Observed Mean Difference	P
20 - 29	30 – 39	-.0644	.994
	40 – 49	-.1135	.969
	50+	-.4019	.603
30 - 39	20 – 29	.0644	.994
	40 – 49	-.0491	.990
	50+	-.3375	.575
40 -49	20 – 29	.1135	.969
	30 – 39	.0491	.990
	50+	-.2884	.681
50+	20 – 29	.4019	.603
	30 – 39	.3375	.575
	40 – 49	.2884	.681

Age and Continuance Commitment

Presented in Table 13 is the mean and standard deviation for ages 20 to 29 was 3.86 (SD=.294), ages 30 to 39, 3.69 (SD=.157), ages 40 to 49, 3.77 (SD=.144), and for age 50 plus, 3.45 (SD=.307). Shown in Table 14 are the results of a One-Way Analysis of Variance regarding age and continuance commitment. There was no statistical significance found between age and continuance commitment ($F=.763$, $df= 3/111$, $p>.05$) at the .05 level. These results indicate that age has no affect on continuance commitment.

Further analysis employing the Tukey post hoc procedure revealed no mean differences were observed. See Table 15.

Table 13 Mean and standard deviation results regarding age and continuance commitment

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation
20 – 29	3.86	.294
30 – 39	3.69	.157
40 – 49	3.77	.144
50+	3.45	.307

Table 14 Analysis of variance summary table regarding age and continuance commitment

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	P	<i>Eta</i>
Between	1.201 ^a	3	.763	.010
Within	114.853	111		
Corrected Total	116.054	114		

Table 15 Tukey results regarding age and continuance commitment

Age	Variables	Observed Mean Difference	P
20 – 29	30 – 39	.1682	.958
	40 – 49	.0889	.993
	50+	.4100	.769
30 – 39	20 – 29	-.1682	.958
	40 – 49	-.0793	.982
	50+	.2419	.896
40 – 49	20 – 29	-.0889	.993
	30 – 39	.0793	.982
	50+	.3212	.779
50+	20 – 29	-.4100	.769
	30 – 39	-.2419	.896
	40 – 49	-.3212	.779

Age and Normative Commitment

Presented in Table 16 is the mean and standard deviation for ages 20 to 29 was 3.55 (SD=.758), ages 30 to 39 was 3.77 (SD=.523), ages 40 to 49 was 3.54 (SD=.755), and for age 50 plus was 3.85 (SD=.782). Shown in Table 17 are the results of a One-Way Analysis of Variance regarding age and affective commitment. There was no statistical significance found between age and normative commitment ($F=1.21$, $df= 3/111$, $p>.05$) at the .05 level. These results indicate that age has no effect on normative commitment.

Further analysis employing the Tukey post hoc procedure revealed no mean differences were observed. See Table 18.

Table 16 Mean and standard deviation results regarding age and normative commitment

Age	Mean	Standard Deviation
20 – 29	3.5521	.758
30 – 39	3.7674	.523
40 – 49	3.5450	.755
50+	3.8523	.782
Total	3.6564	.684

Table 17 Analysis of variance summary table regarding age and normative commitment

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Between	1.691 ^a	3	.564	1.211	.309
Within	51.672	111	.466		
Total	53.363	114			

Table 18 Tukey results regarding age and normative commitment

Age	Variables	Observed Mean Difference	P
20 – 29	30 – 39	-.2153	.770
	40 – 49	.0071	1.000
	50+	-.3002	.718
30 – 39	20 – 29	.2153	.770
	40 – 49	.2224	.407
	50+	-.0848	.983
40 – 49	20 – 29	-.0071	1.000
	30 – 39	-.2224	.407
	50+	-.3073	.532
50+	20 – 29	.3002	.718
	30 – 39	.0848	.983
	40 – 49	.3073	.532

Research Question #2

Are there significant differences between marital/partnership status and organizational commitment (affective, continuance and normative)?

Marital/Partnership Status and Affective Commitment

Presented in Table 19 is the mean and standard deviation for single was 4.78 (SD=.664), married, 4.82 (SD=.790), divorced, 4.12 (SD=.353), and for domestic partner, 4.76 (SD=.881). Shown in Table 20 are the results of a One-Way Analysis of Variance regarding marital/partnership status and affective commitment. There was no statistical

significance found between marital/partnership status and affective commitment ($F=.532$, $df= 3/107$, $p>.05$) at the .05 level. Further analysis employing the Tukey post hoc procedure revealed no mean differences were observed. See Table 21.

Table 19 Mean and standard deviation results regarding marital/partnership status and affective commitment

Marital Status	Mean	Standard Deviation
Single	4.7802	.664
Married	4.8237	.790
Divorced	4.1250	.353
Domestic Partner	4.7614	.881
Total	4.7999	.778

Table 20 Analysis of variance summary table regarding marital/partnership status and affective commitment.

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P	Eta Squared
Between	.981	3	.327	.532	.661	.015
Within	65.706	107	.614			
Total	66.686	110				

Table 21 Tukey results regarding marital/partnership status and affective commitment

Marital Status	Variables	Observed Mean Differences	P
Single	Married	-.0435	.998
	Divorced	.6552	.690
	Domestic Partner	.0189	1.000
Married	Single	.0435	.998
	Divorced	.6987	.599
	Domestic Partner	.0624	.995
Divorced	Single	-.6552	.690
	Married	-.6987	.599
	Domestic Partner	-.6364	.717
Domestic Partner	Single	-.0189	1.000
	Married	-.0624	.995
	Divorced	.6364	.717

Marital/Partnership Status and Continuance Commitment

Presented in Table 22 is the mean and standard deviation for single, 4.10 (SD=.681), married, 3.76 (SD=.970), divorced, 3.38 (SD=.707), and for domestic partner, 3.19 (SD=1.497). Shown in Table 23 are the results of a One-Way Analysis of Variance regarding age and affective commitment. There was no statistical significance found between marital/partnership status and continuance commitment ($F=1.732$, $df= 3/107$, $p>.05$) at the .05 level. These results indicate that there is no relationship between marital/partnership status and continuance commitment. Further analysis employing the Tukey post hoc procedure revealed no mean differences were observed. See Table 24.

Table 22 Mean and standard deviation results regarding marital/partnership status and continuance commitment

Marital Status	Mean	Standard. Deviation
Single	4.0962	.681
Married	3.7578	.970
Divorced	3.3750	.707
Domestic Partner	3.1932	1.497
Total	3.7346	1.012

Table 23 Analysis of variance summary table regarding marital/partnership status and continuance commitment

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Between	5.228 ^a	3	1.743	1.732	.165
Within	107.635	107	1.006		
Total	112.863	110			

Table 24 Tukey results regarding marital/partnership status and continuance commitment

Marital Status	Variables	Observed Mean Difference	P
Single	Married	.3384	.670
	Divorced	.7212	.780
	Domestic Partner	.9030	.130
Married	Single	-.3384	.670
	Divorced	.3838	.951
	Domestic Partner	.5646	.300
Divorced	Single	-.7212	.780
	Married	-.3828	.951
	Domestic Partner	.1818	.995
Domestic Partner	Single	-.9030	.130
	Married	-.5646	.300
	Divorced	-.1818	.995

Marital/Partnership Status and Normative Commitment

Presented in Table 25 is the mean and standard deviation for single was 3.79 (SD=.725), married, 3.71 (SD=.655), divorced, 3.44 (SD=.088), and domestic partner, 3.34 (SD=.705). Shown in Table 26 are the results of a One-Way Analysis of Variance regarding marital/partnership status and normative commitment. There was no statistical significance found between marital/partnership status and normative commitment ($F=1.22$, $df= 3/107$, $p>.05$) at the .05 level. These results indicate that marital/partnership status does have an effect on normative commitment. Further research is needed to discover the possible reasons why this difference is noteworthy. Further analysis employing the Tukey post hoc procedure revealed no mean differences were observed. See Table 27.

Table 25 Mean and standard deviation results regarding marital/partnership status and normative commitment

Marital Status	Mean	Standard. Deviation
Single	3.7885	.725
Married	3.7088	.655
Divorced	3.4375	.088
Domestic Partner	3.3393	.705
Total	3.6766	.667

Table 26 Analysis of variance summary table regarding marital/partnership status and normative commitment

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Corrected Model	1.617 ^a	3	.539	1.218	.307
Error	47.360	107	.443		
Corrected Total	48.977	110			

Table 27 Tukey results regarding marital/partnership status and normative commitment

Marital Status	Variables	Observed Mean Difference	P
Single	Married	.0796	.978
	Divorced	.3510	.899
	Domestic Partner	.4492	.356
Married	Single	-.0796	.978
	Divorced	.2713	.941
	Domestic Partner	.3695	.312
Divorced	Single	-.3510	.899
	Married	-.2713	.941
	Domestic Partner	.0982	.997
Domestic Partner	Single	-.4492	.356
	Married	-.3695	.312
	Divorced	-.0982	.997

Table 28 Bonferoni results regarding marital/partnership status and normative commitment

	(I) Marital Status	(J) Marital Status	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Bonferroni	Single	Married	.0000	.02745	1.000
		Divorced	.0000	.07001	1.000
		Domestic Partner	-.0909	.03776	.107
	Married	Single	.0000	.02745	1.000
		Divorced	.0000	.06594	1.000
		Domestic Partner	-.0909*	.02954	.016*
	Divorced	Single	.0000	.07001	1.000
		Married	.0000	.06594	1.000
		Domestic Partner	-.0909	.07086	1.000
	Domestic Partner	Single	.0909	.03776	.107
		Married	.0909*	.02954	.016*
		Divorced	.0909	.07086	1.000

*p<.0

Research Question #3

Are there significant differences between number of years at institution and organizational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative)?

Number of Years at Institution

Presented in Table 29 is the mean and standard deviation for 0 – 5 years at institution was 3.62 (SD=.730), 6 – 10 years at institution was 3.72 (SD=.610), 11 – 15 years at institution was 3.51 (SD=.716), 16 – 20 years at institution was 3.63 (SD=.685), and those who had been at institution for 20+ years was 3.88 (SD=.662). Shown in Table 30 are the results of a One-Way Analysis of Variance regarding number of years at institution and affective commitment. There was no statistical significance found between number of years at institution and affective commitment ($F=.790$, $df= 4/109$, $p>.05$) at the .05 level. These results indicate that number of years at institution does have an effect on affective commitment. Further analysis employing the Tukey post hoc procedure revealed no mean differences were observed. See Table 31. Calculation of the percentage of respondents self-reporting number of years at institution that answered “4” or greater in each of the three organizational commitment constructs revealed that a noticeably higher percentage of respondents who had at least 15 years of service as an athletic director viewed themselves as “continuancely” committed to the institution.

Table 29 Mean and standard deviation results regarding number of years at institution and affective commitment

Number of Years	Mean	Standard Deviation
0 – 5	4.8976	.612
6 – 10	4.8887	.752
11 – 15	4.8105	.724
16 – 20	4.5192	1.006
20+	4.5804	.941
Total	4.7898	.767

Table 30 Analysis of variance summary table regarding number of years at institution and affective commitment

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Between	2.182 ^a	4	.546	.923	.454
Within	64.443	109	.591		
Total	66.626	113			

Table 31 Tukey results regarding number of years at institution and affective commitment

Number of Years	Variables	Observed	
		Mean Difference	P
0 - 5	6 - 10	.0089	1.000
	11 - 15	.0871	.992
	16 - 20	.3784	.576
	20+	.3173	.707
6 - 10	0 - 5	-.0089	1.000
	11 - 15	.0783	.995
	16 - 20	.3695	.620
	20+	.3084	.746
11 - 15	0 - 5	-.0871	.992
	6 - 10	-.0783	.995
	16 - 20	.2913	.781
	20+	.2301	.885
16 - 20	0 - 5	-.3784	.576
	6 - 10	-.3695	.620
	11 - 15	-.2913	.781
	20+	-.0611	1.000
20+	0 - 5	-.3173	.707
	6 - 10	-.3084	.746
	11 - 15	-.2301	.885
	16 - 20	.0611	1.000

Number of Years at Institution and Continuance Commitment

Presented in Table 32 is the mean and standard deviation for 0 – 5 years employed at an institution 3.63 (SD=.892), 6–10 years employed at an institution 3.75 (SD=.933), 11 – 15 employed at an institution 3.69 (SD=1.24), 16 – 20 was 3.85 (SD=.889), and 20+ years at institution were 3.90 (SD=1.02). Shown in Table 33 are the results of a One-Way Analysis of Variance regarding number of years and continuance commitment. There was no statistical significance found between number of years at institution and continuance commitment ($F=.22$, $df= 4/109$, $p>.05$) at the .05 level. These results indicate that number of years at institution does have an effect on continuance commitment. Further analysis employing the Tukey post hoc procedure revealed no mean differences were observed. See Table 34.

Table 32 Mean and standard deviation results regarding number of years at institution and continuance commitment

Number of Years	Mean	Standard Deviation
0 – 5	3.6333	.892
6 – 10	3.7548	.933
11 – 15	3.6907	1.242
16 – 20	3.8462	.889
20+	3.9018	1.019
Total	3.7339	1.009

Table 33 Analysis of variance summary table regarding number of years at institution and continuance commitment

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Between	.931 ^a	4	.233	.222	.925
Within	114.163	109	1.047		
Total	115.094	113			

Table 34 Tukey results regarding number of years at institution and continuance commitment

Number of Years	Variables	Observed	
		Mean Difference	P
0 - 5	6 - 10	-.1215	.992
	11 - 15	-.0573	.999
	16 - 20	-.2128	.971
	20+	-.2685	.927
6 - 10	0 - 5	.1215	.992
	11 - 15	.0641	.999
	16 - 20	-.0913	.999
	20+	-.1470	.993
11 - 15	0 - 5	.0573	.999
	6 - 10	-.0641	.999
	16 - 20	-.1555	.991
	20+	-.2111	.968
16 - 20	0 - 5	.2128	.971
	6 - 10	.0913	.999
	11 - 15	.1555	.991
	20+	-.0556	1.000
20+	0 - 5	.2685	.927
	6 - 10	.1470	.993
	11 - 15	.2111	.968
	16 - 20	.0556	1.000

Number of Years at Institution and Normative Commitment

Presented in Table 35 is the mean and standard deviation 0 – 5 years at institution was 3.62 (SD=.730), 6 – 10 years at institution 3.73 (SD=.610), 11 – 15 years at institution was 3.52 (SD=.716), 16 – 20 years at institution was 3.63 (SD=.685), and those who had been at institution for 20+ years was 3.88 (SD=.662). Shown in Table 36 are the results of a One-Way Analysis of Variance regarding number of years at institution and normative commitment. There was no statistical significance found between number of years at institution and normative commitment ($F=.790$, $df= 4/109$, $p>.05$) at the .05 level. These results indicate that number of years at institution status does have an effect on normative commitment. Further analysis employing the Tukey post hoc procedure revealed no mean differences were observed. See Table 37.

Table 35 Mean and standard deviation results regarding number of years at institution and normative commitment

Number of Years	Mean	Standard Deviation
0 – 5	3.6250	.730
6 – 10	3.7260	.610
11 – 15	3.5161	.716
16 – 20	3.6332	.685
20+	3.8839	.662
Total	3.6512	.684

Table 36 Analysis of variance summary table regarding number of years at institution and normative commitment

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Between	1.494 ^a	4	.373	.790	.534
Within	51.513	109	.473		
Total	53.007	113			

Table 37 Tukey results regarding number of years at institution and normative commitment

Number of Years	Variables	Observed	
		Mean Difference	P
0 – 5	6 – 10	-.1010	.982
	11 – 15	.1089	.972
	16 – 20	-.0082	1.000
	20+	-.2589	.772
6 - 10	0 – 5	.1010	.982
	11 – 15	.2098	.781
	16 – 20	.0927	.995
	20+	-.1580	.958
11 - 15	0 – 5	-.1089	.972
	6 – 10	-.2098	.781
	16 – 20	-.1171	.986
	20+	-.3678	.462
16 – 20	0 – 5	.0082	1.000
	6 – 10	-.0927	.995
	11 – 15	.1171	.986
	20+	-.2507	.878
20+	0 – 5	.2589	.772
	6 – 10	.1580	.958
	11 – 15	.3678	.462
	16 – 20	.2507	.878

Research Question #4

Are there a difference between gender and organizational commitment (affective, continuance and normative)?

Gender

The independent samples *t*-test was computed to examine differences between gender and organizational commitment (affective, continuance and normative). As shown Table 38 the mean for affective commitment (male) was 4.84 (SD=.777) and affective commitment (female) was 4.73 (SD=.768). The mean for continuance commitment (male) was 3.60 (SD=.923) and continuance commitment (female) was 3.93 (SD=1.12). The mean for normative commitment (male) was 3.73 (SD=.671) and normative commitment (female) was 3.52 (SD=.693). No statistical significant differences were found between gender and organizational commitment at the .05 level: affective ($t=.759$, $df=89.299$, $p>.05$), continuance ($t=-1.623$, $df=75.661$, $p>.05$), normative ($t=1.579$, $df=86118$, $p>.05$). Therefore, it appears that male and female Division III Athletic Directors have similar organizational commitments. Further research is needed to uncover the possible reasons why some chose not to answer this question. Missing data represented 25.5% of the 168 total respondents for the question regarding gender.

Table 38 *t*-test differences between gender and organizational commitment (affirmative, continuance and normative)

	Gender	N	Mean	Mean Difference	Standard Deviation	Standard Error Mean
Affective Commitment	Male	72	4.8425	.11286	.777	.09163
	Female	43	4.7297	.11286	.768	.11721
Continuance Commitment	Male	72	3.6024	-.32863	.923	.10880
	Female	43	3.9311	-.32863	1.119	.17072
Normative Commitment	Male	72	3.7344	.20863	.671	.07908
	Female	43	3.5257	.20863	.693	.10582

Table 39 Levene's Test for Equality of Variances

Variables	F	P
Affirmative Commitment	.004	.953
Continuance Commitment	.692	.407
Normative Commitment	.000	.992

Table 40 *t*-test for Equality of Means

Variables		<i>t</i>	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Affective Commitment	Equal variances assumed	.756	113	.451
	Equal variances not assumed	.759	82.299	.450
Continuance Commitment	Equal variances assumed	-1.704	113	.091
	Equal variances not assumed	-1.623	75.661	.109
Normative Commitment	Equal variances assumed	1.593	113	.114
	Equal variances not assumed	1.579	86.118	.118

Research Question #5

Are there a difference between ethnicity and organizational commitment (affirmative, continuance and normative)?

Ethnicity and Affective Commitment

Table 41 presents the mean scores based on ethnicity and affective commitment. There was no Standard Deviation for “African American” because there was only one respondent. As a result there was no post hoc test performed for ethnicity because at least one group had fewer than two respondents. The mean for Asians was 4.97 (SD=.213), and for Whites 4.78 (SD=.788). Shown in Table 42 are the results of a One-Way Analysis of Variance regarding affective commitment and ethnicity. There was no statistical significance found between affective commitment and ethnicity ($F=.145$, $df= 2/110$, $p>.05$) at the .05 level. These results indicate that there is no relationship between affective commitment and ethnicity.

Table 41 Mean and standard deviation results regarding ethnicity and affective commitment

Ethnicity	Mean	Standard. Deviation
African American	5.0000	
Asian	4.9688	.213
White	4.7839	.788
Total	4.7924	.772

Table 42 Analysis of variance summary table regarding ethnicity and affective commitment

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Between	.175 ^a	2	.088	.145	.866
Within	66.709	110	.606		
Total	66.885	112			

Ethnicity and Continuance Commitment

Table 43 includes the mean continuance commitment scores based on ethnicity. There was no Standard Deviation reported for “African American” because there was only one respondent. As a result there was no post hoc test performed for ethnicity because at least one group had fewer than two respondents. The mean for Asians was 3.75(SD=2.094), and for Whites 3.75 (SD=.961). Shown in Table 44 are the results of a One-Way Analysis of Variance regarding continuance commitment and ethnicity. There was no statistical significance found between continuance commitment and ethnicity (F=.618, df= 2/110, p>.05) at the .05 level. These results indicate that there is no relationship between continuance commitment and ethnicity.

Table 43 Mean and standard deviation results regarding ethnicity and continuance commitment

Ethnicity	Mean	Standard Deviation
African American	2.6250	
Asian	3.7500	2.094
White	3.7526	.961
Total	3.7426	1.005

Table 44 Analysis of variance summary table regarding ethnicity and continuance commitment

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Between	1.260 ^a	2	.630	.618	.541
Within	112.076	110	1.019		
Total	113.337	112			

Ethnicity and Normative Commitment

Table 45 presents the mean scores based on normative commitment. There was no Standard Deviation for “African American” because there was only one respondent. As a result there was no post hoc test performed for ethnicity because at least one group had fewer than two respondents. The mean for Asians was 3.59 (SD=.897), and for Whites 3.67 (SD=.679). Shown in Table 46 are the results of a One-Way Analysis of Variance regarding normative commitment and ethnicity. There was no statistical significance found between normative commitment and ethnicity ($F=.689$, $df= 2/110$, $p>.05$) at the .05

level. These results indicate that there is no relationship between normative commitment and ethnicity.

Table 45 Mean and standard deviation results regarding ethnicity and normative commitment

Ethnicity	Mean	Standard Deviation
African American	2.8750	
Asian	3.5938	.897
White	3.6723	.679
Total	3.6625	.684

Table 46 Analysis of variance summary table regarding ethnicity and normative commitment

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Between	.649 ^a	2	.325	.689	.504
Within	51.840	110	.471		
Total	52.489	112			

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to assess the organizational commitment among athletic directors at NCAA Division III member institutions. These issues of organizational commitment have not been previously addressed in regard to athletic directors. Five research questions were posed. A quantitative, cross sectional, non-experimental, research design was utilized for this investigation. A census sample of NCAA Division III athletic directors as listed in the National Association of Collegiate Directors of Athletics (NACDA) 2009-2010 National Directory of College Athletics. Data were collected using Survey Monkey from November 15 to December 11, 2010 with 168 total participants. The survey was sent electronically via the listserv of the National Association of Division III Athletic Administrators.

This research employs Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component (affirmative, continuance, normative) model of organizational commitment as the theoretical foundation for the study. It was stated that understanding how and when commitments are developed and how it shapes attitudes and behaviors allows institutions to better position themselves to anticipate the impact of change and manage it more effectively (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Fifteen One-Way ANOVAs were conducted measuring each dependent variable once to examine if there is a relationship between the three independent variables.

This chapter will focus on the discussion of the findings, demographic profile of study participants, missing data, research questions discussion, implications, conclusions, and future recommendations.

Discussion of Findings

This study had a 40% response rate. One hundred sixty-eight out of 418 Division III athletic directors participated in this study. The participants were self-reported by their age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of children, type of institution, hours worked per week, level of education, and alumni status. Analysis of the data indicated there was no significant relationship between age, gender, ethnicity, marital/partnership status, and number of years at institution and organizational commitment (affective, continuance, normative). One significant difference was found between marital/partnership status and normative commitment.

Missing Data

It should be noted there is no universal best approach for all situations concerning missing data. The acceptability of an approach will depend on the assumptions made and whether it is reasonable to make these assumptions in the particular case of interest. The extent to which missing values lead to biased conclusions about the size and existence of any treatment effect is influenced by many factors. Among these are the relationship between missingness, treatment assignment, and outcome, the type of measure employed to quantify the treatment effect, and the expected direction of changes over time for patients in the trial. Montiel-Overall (2006) discusses how Rubin (1987) classified three mechanisms of missingness as, missing completely at random (MCAR), missing at random (MAR), and missing not at random (MNAR). All relevant factors should be

considered to determine appropriate strategies for missing data handling. Data that are missing completely by chance are considered a random occurrence (MCAR) (Sterner, 2011). The probability for missing data among the respondents in this study was the same. For this particular study, missing data were deleted from the final analysis of each question and were assigned and noted as such. This decision was made because this study was voluntary in nature and participants were not mandated to answer any question that he/she did not wish to answer. It is important that data analysis notes how much and what type of data are missing, because it may have influence on the results and conclusions drawn from this study's results. The missing data in this study reinforce the limitations and delimitations discussed in Chapter 1.

Research Questions Discussion

Age

The first research inquiry sought to determine if there were any significant differences in affective, continuance, and normative organizational commitment based on the age of the participating ADs. The results revealed that age has no influence on the respondents' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the institution. Age was also found to have no relationship to affective commitment, continuance commitment, or normative commitment. What this appears to indicate is that age may have no influence on the respondents' understanding of the costs of leaving the institution. Also, the results from this research question reveal that age has no influence on the respondents' feeling of obligation to remain employed at institution.

The findings of this research question are very similar to Huang's (2004) research on job satisfaction among Taiwanese faculty and Heinzman's (2004) research on

a manufacturing company. Both found no relationship between age and organizational commitment. This research is significant because neither found a relationship between age and organizational commitment. This research also revealed that 50 percent of respondents age 40 to 49 had high continuance commitment. This may suggest that persons between the ages of 40 and 49 feel as though they cannot take the risk of leaving their current institutions. Reasons for high continuance commitment could range from economic to familial. Employees with a high continuance commitment recognize the high cost of leaving the institution could have an adverse financial affect due to lack of opportunity (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Further research is recommended in order to shine a brighter light on why men and women in this age range have high continuance commitment.

Marital/Partnership Status

This research inquiry sought to determine if there were any significant differences in affective, continuance, and normative organizational commitment based on the marital/partnership status of the participating ADs. The results revealed that marital/partnership status had no influence on the respondents' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the institution; but there was a significant difference found between married and domestic partner. This finding is interesting because it may call attention to why some NCAA Division III athletic directors who are in committed relationships feel as though the necessity to remain at their institution. Other independent variables such as ties to the community (i.e. extended family), a desire not to up root high school age children, etc. This may be a result of the missing data described earlier. When looking at the constructs of marital/partnership status and

organizational commitment it was found that married athletic directors had the highest score in all three categories AC (76.8%), CC (75.9%), and NC (88.9%). Domestic partner had 0 normative commitment, which may suggest that persons in a domestic partnership have no feelings of obligation to any institution. This lack of obligation could give domestic partners more flexibility when it comes to moving to another institution or out of athletic administration all together.

Marital/partnership status has an influence on the respondents' feeling of obligation to remain employed at institution. Marital/partnership status does have an effect on normative commitment. This finding was noteworthy because Andrews-Little (2007), Huang (2004), Meyer et al. (2001), and Mathieu and Hamel (1989) all found correlations between marital/partnership status and organizational commitment. NCAA Division III athletic directors who are married or in a domestic partnership may be more committed along the line of continuance (the cost of leaving). Leaving an institution while in a domestic partnership or married may come at a high sacrifice to one or both of people involved in the relationship.

Married (n=63) people had a higher affective commitment than single or persons in a domestic partnership. This may imply that once a person is married that they feel a greater need to be apart of an institution. The reason for higher affective commitment may be because they are in a committed relationship, therefore making it easier for them to commit to something else. Married (n=85) ADs, who were the largest group, scored highest within AC, CC, and NC; in addition, individuals who reported that they were in domestic partnerships had high affective commitment. Further research is needed to see what influence marriage has on organizational commitment.

Number of Years at Institution

This research inquiry sought to determine if there were any significant differences in affective, continuance, and normative organizational commitment based on the participating ADs number of years at the institution. The results revealed that number of years at institution has no influence on the respondents' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the institution. Also, number of years at institution was determined to have no relationship to affective, continuance, or normative commitment. What this appears to indicate is that number of years at institution has no influence on the respondents' understanding of the costs of leaving the institution. When breaking down the three constructs of number of years at institution and organizational commitment those athletic directors with 5 years (10.7%) tenure had the highest AC; athletic directors with 15 years (20%) tenure had the highest CC; and those with 5 (11%), 10 (11%) and 21 years (11%) of tenure had the highest NC.

The results from this research question reveal that number of years at institution has no influence on the respondents' feeling of obligation to remain employed at institution. Most respondents had been ADs between 10 to 20 years. The reason(s) for remaining at an institution for an extended amount of time are too numerous to list. These outcomes do not negate previous research Andrews-Little (2007), Lim (2003), and Brady (1997) that similarly found no significant relationship between number of years in present position and employee level of organizational commitment.

Gender

This research inquiry sought to determine if there were any significant differences in affective, continuance, and normative organizational commitment based on the gender

of the participating ADs. An independent samples *t*-test was computed to examine differences between gender and organizational commitment. The results revealed that gender has no influence on the respondents' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the institution. Also, gender was determined to have no relationship to affective, continuance, or normative commitment. What this appears to indicate is that gender has no influence on the respondents' understanding of the costs of leaving the institution. When breaking down the three constructs of organizational commitment the results were: 65.9% of males and 34.1% females answered affective; 46.7% males and 53.3% females answered continuance; and 88.9% males and 11.1% females answered normative.

The results from this research question also reveal that gender has no influence on the respondents' feeling of obligation to remain employed at institution. Al-Kahanti's (2004) research looked at the relationship between age and organizational commitment. The study was found to be limited because an only-women's branch of the Institute of Public Administration was surveyed. Results may have differed had the institution studied been co-educational.

Dixon, et. al.'s (2005) research identified that women had more affective commitment than men. The female (56%) athletic directors in this research were found to have higher continuance commitment than male (47%) athletic directors. It has been implied that women seeking to work in sport must be more committed than men in order to survive in the male dominated sports industry (Dixon, et. al., 2005). Women's commitment to an institution may be the result of a lack of opportunity. Men are more

likely to hire other men, and as a result limiting a woman's ability to switch institutions as fluidly as their male counterparts.

Men were found to have higher affective 66% (≥ 4) and normative 89% (≥ 4) commitment. These results may indicate that men either want to be at an institution or they feel obligated to remain at the institution. These results may also suggest that women with high CC are single parents and it is in their best interest to maintain a high commitment to their institutions in order to sustain a steady income and benefits for the family.

Ethnicity

This research inquiry sought to determine if there were any significant differences in affective, continuance, and normative organizational commitment based on the ethnicity of the participating ADs. The results revealed that ethnicity has no influence on the respondents' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the institution. Also, ethnicity was determined to have no relationship to affective, continuance, or normative commitment. What this appears to indicate is that ethnicity has no influence on the respondents' understanding of the costs of leaving the institution. When breaking down the three constructs of ethnicity and organizational commitment the percentage of respondents rating each construct as ≥ 4 were: 1.2% African Americans, 2.4% Asian, 96.4% White answered affective; 0 African Americans, 22.6% Asian, 93.3% White answered continuance; and 0 African American, 11.1% Asian, and 88.9% answered normative.

Ethnicity (i.e., African American, Mexican American) is just one part of a what makes up a person's cultural identity. Religion, sexual orientation, and physical disability

can also contribute to one's cultural identity (Doherty & Chelladurai, 1999). The results from this research question reveal that ethnicity has no influence on the respondents' feeling of obligation to remain employed at institution. The findings in this study are similar to those of Brady (1996) and Andrews-Little (2007) whose research found no significant relationship between ethnicity and organizational commitment.

The majority of the athletic directors (120) who participated in this research self-reported their ethnicity as White; and, the other participants self-reported as African American (1) and Asian (4). This research is limited because of its lack of minority participants. Furthermore it may suggest that athletic departments need to cast a wider net to ensure that more minorities have a chance to interview when colleges and universities hire new athletic leadership.

Implications

The results of this research indicate no significant relationship between age, marital/partnership status, number of years at institution, gender, and ethnicity, and organizational commitment (affirmative, continuance, normative). There was a significant relationship found between marital/partnership status and normative commitment.

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

This research will assist in building the body of knowledge on organizational commitment as it relates to athletic administrators, as well as increasing the limited amount of research focusing on NCAA Division III. This information can be

advantageous to Division III ADs looking to reduce turnover intentions. Furthermore, these outcomes may promote better on the job behavior and better employee health and well-being as well (Angel & Lawson, 1994; Hackett, Bycio, & Hausdorf, 1994; Kibeom, Allen, Meyer, & Rhee, 2001; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997).

A practical explanation for some Division III ADs having high affective commitment is that the athletic department employees believe in the mission and the vision of the institution. The success of the athletic administration and the success of the institution are in congruence with each other. As stated by Meyer and Allen (1997), if the employee has a strong affective commitment to the organization, he/she will stay because he/she has a desire to be a part of the organization. His/her ideas, values, and goals are aligned with that of the institutions. When an employee feels as though his/her basic needs are being taken care of, he/she is more likely to remain within an institution, thus have a stronger affective organizational commitment level. "Employees with strong affective commitment to the organization work harder at his/her jobs and perform them better than do those with weak commitment" (p. 28).

Employees with a higher continuance commitment feel that the cost of continuing their tenure at their current institutions outweighs their longing to be elsewhere. This behavior can be corrected or changed by the arrival of new leadership to the institution or by the employee leaving the institution in spite of the personal cost. If the institution does not find a way to alter the employee's behavior, apathy can set in and he/she will only do what is necessary to preserve his/her employment (Meyer, Bobocel, & Allen, 1991).

Although an employee feeling obligated to stay at an institution (normative commitment) is in all probability a desirable affective commitment, it is not a

confirmation that the employee is truly committed to the institution. Once the employee feels as though the obligation is not as significant as their personal happiness, he/she may decide to leave the institution.

Conclusions

The results of this study suggest that among NCAA Division III athletic directors, there is no one thing that psychologically ties an employees' need to continue or discontinue membership within an institution. The results of this research should be the basis for future inquiry using a broader spectrum of independent variables and sport organizations.

Future Recommendations

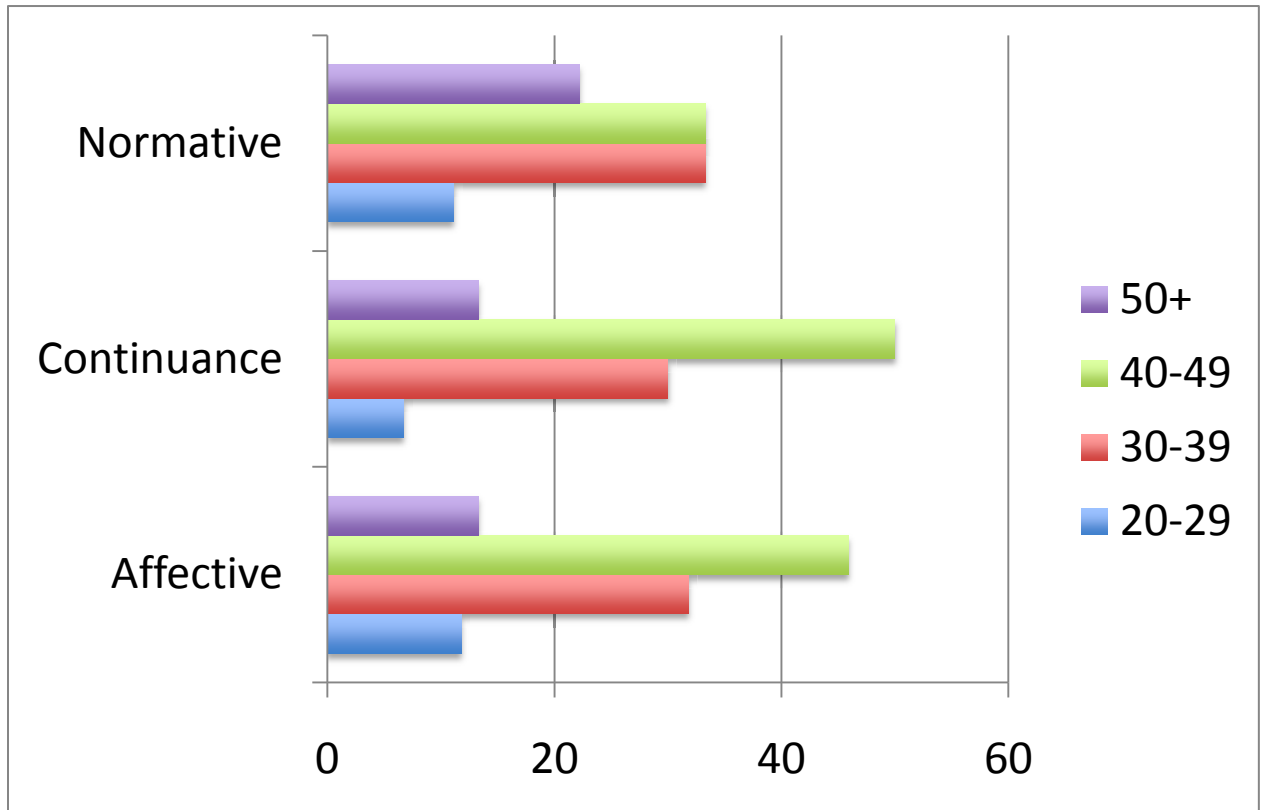
This study found no significant relationship between age, gender, ethnicity, number of year at institution, and organizational commitment (AC, CC, NC), but did find a significant relationship between marital/partnership status and normative commitment. Future research on this topic should look at organizational commitment and student athletes, intramural athletes, college and university booster clubs, junior colleges, and youth sport organizations as well as Olympic and international sport organizations would be beneficial to bringing new information to light. Utilizing mix method research techniques (qualitative) can also add nuance to the information gathered from surveys.

APPENDICES

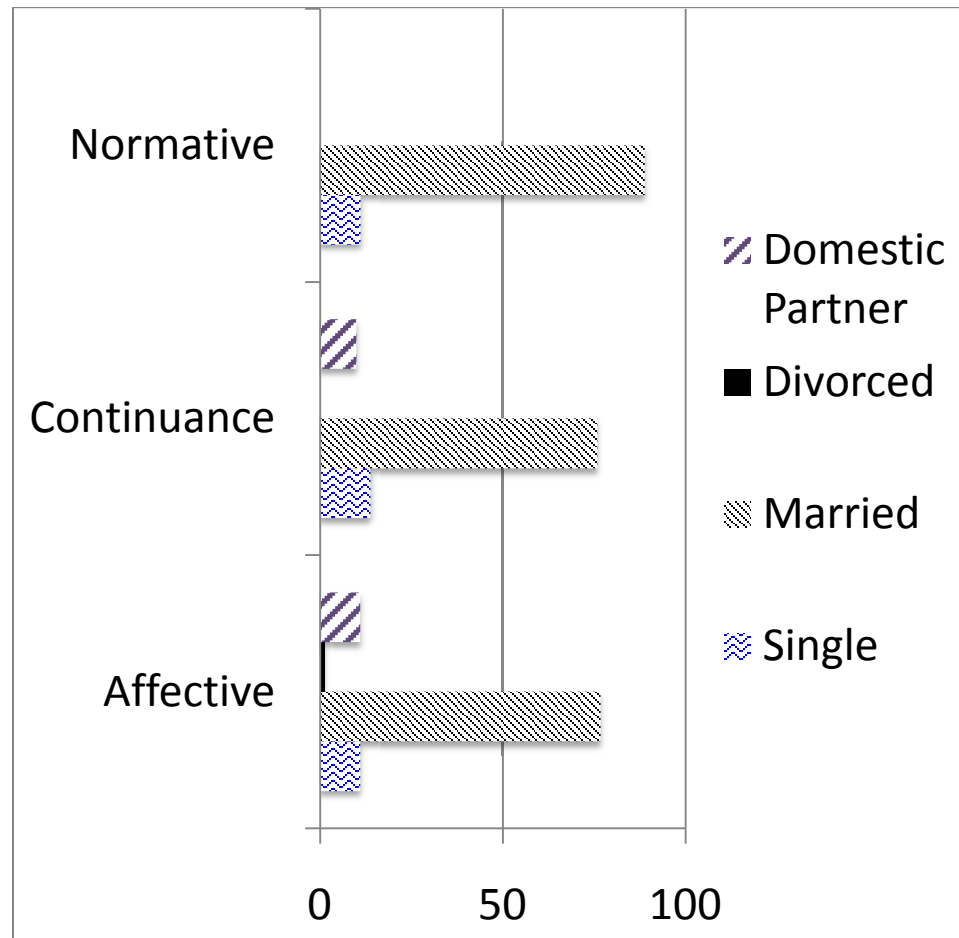
APPENDIX A

RESEARCH QUESTION FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION GRAPHS

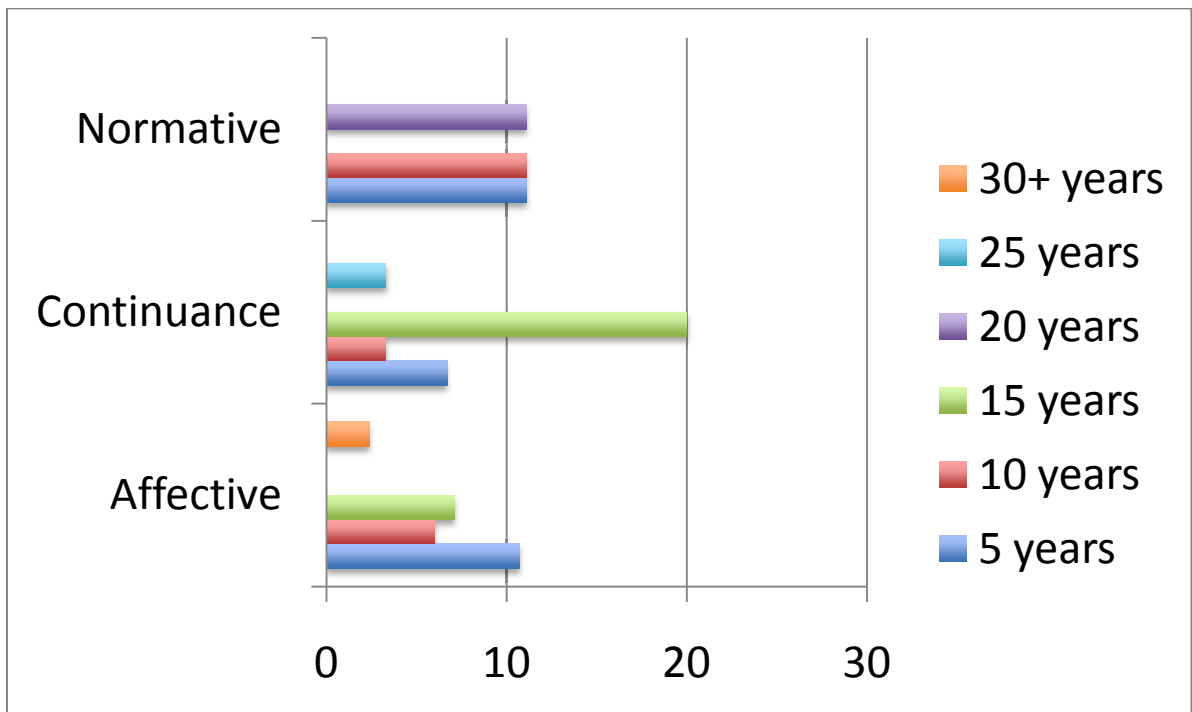
Age and Commitment



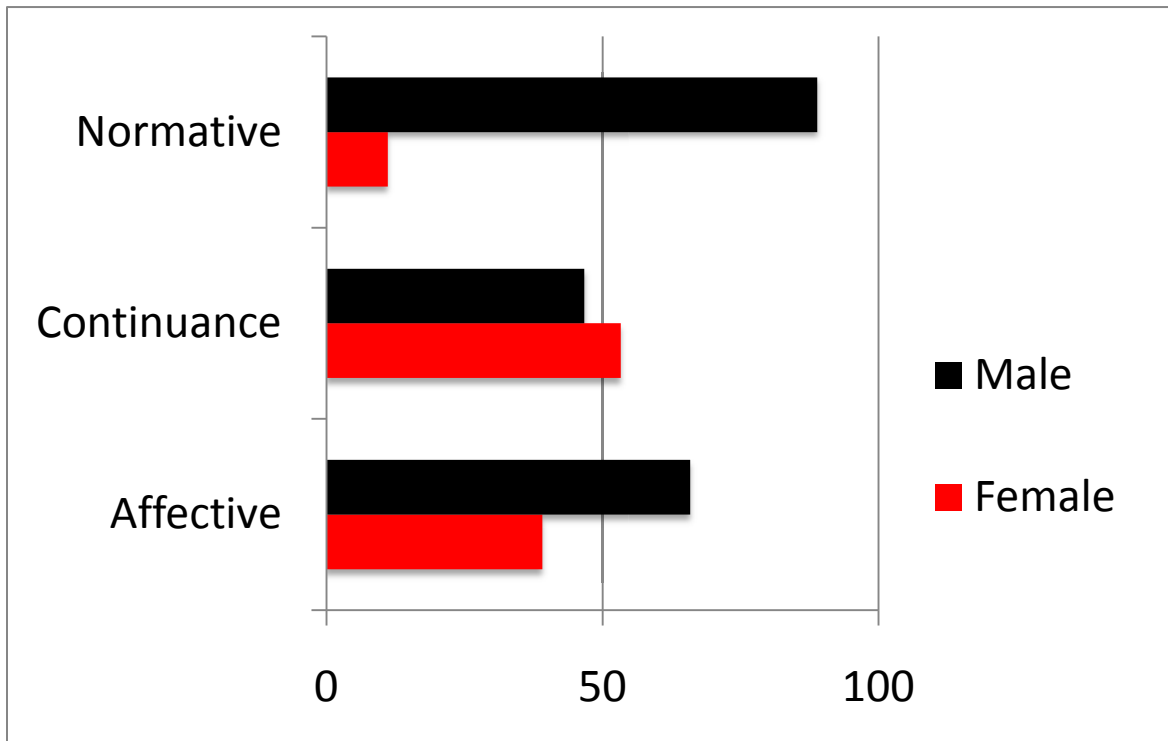
Marital/Partnership Status and Commitment



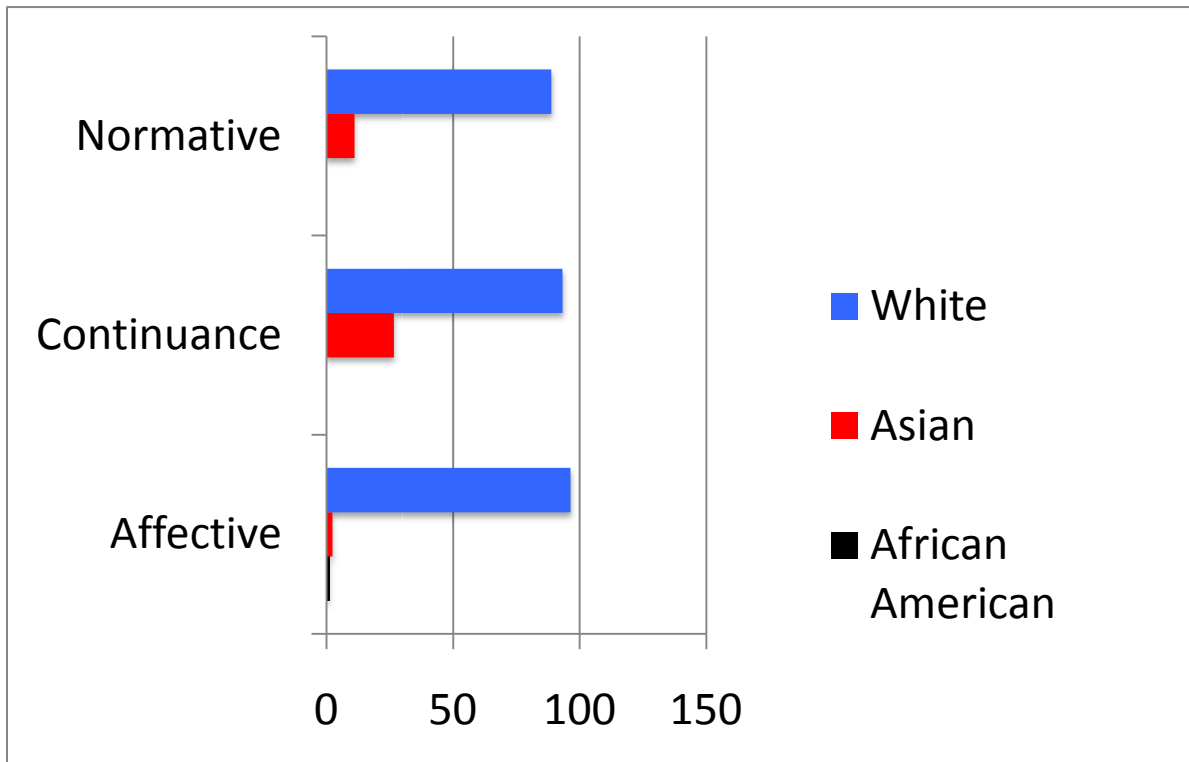
Number of Years at Institution and Commitment



Gender and Commitment



Ethnicity and Commitment



APPENDIX B

UNIVERSITY OF NEW MEXICO IRB APPROVAL LETTER



**Main Campus Institutional Review
Board Human Research Protections Office
MSC08 4560 1 University of New
Mexico~Albuquerque, NM 87131-0001
<http://hsc.unm.edu/som/research/HRRC/>**

17-Sep-2010

Responsible Faculty: David Scott
Investigator: Michelle Touson
Dept/College: COE Administration

***SUBJECT: IRB Approval of Research -Initial Review -Initial Review Protocol #: 10-362
Project Title:
An Assessment of Organizational Commitment Among NCAA Division III Athletic
Directors
Type of Review: Expedited Review Approval Date: 17-Sep-2010 Expiration Date: 16-
Sep-2011***

The Main Campus Institutional Review Board has reviewed and approved the above referenced protocol. It has been approved based on the review of the following:

- | | |
|---|-----------------------------------|
| 1. Expedited Review Application dated
7/8/2010 | 4. consent form dated
9/1/2010 |
| 2. protocol dated
7/8/2010 | 5. survey dated
7/8/2010 |
| 3. recruitment letter dated
7/8/2010 | |

Consent Decision: Waived the requirement to obtain a signed consent form HIPAA Authorization Addendum not applicable

If a consent is required, we have attached a date stamped consent that must be used for consenting participants during the above noted approval period.

If HIPAA authorization is required, the HIPAA authorization version noted above should be signed in conjunction with the consent form.

As the principal investigator of this study, you assume the following responsibilities:

- **CONSENT:** To ensure that ethical and legal informed consent has been obtained from all research participants.
- **RENEWAL:** To submit a progress report to the IRB at least 30 days prior to the end of the approval period in order for this study to be considered for continuation.
- **ADVERSE EVENTS:** To report any adverse events or reactions to the IRB immediately.
- **MODIFICATIONS:** To submit any changes to the protocol, such as procedures, consent/assent forms, addition of subjects, or study design to the IRB as an Amendment for review and approval.
- **COMPLETION:** To close your study when the study is concluded and all data has been de-identified (with no link to identifiers) by submitting a Closure Report. Please reference the protocol number and study title in all documents and correspondence related to this protocol.

Sincerely,



J. Scott Tonigan, PhD
Chair Main Campus
IRB

* Under the provisions of this institution's Federal Wide Assurance (FWA00004690), the Main Campus IRB has determined that this proposal provides adequate safeguards for protecting the rights and welfare of the subjects involved in the study and is in compliance with HHS Regulations (45 CFR 46).

APPENDIX C

STUDENT LICENSES FOR TCM EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT SURVEY

From: <support@flintbox.com>
Subject: Flintbox - License Agreement for Student License for Use of the Survey in a Single Student Research Project (Academic Users Guide - Dec 2004.pdf)
Date: Fri, 5 Mar 2010 08:46:18 -0800
To: <mtouson@unm.edu>

Licensee: Michelle Richardson-Touson
University Of New Mexico
Health, Education and Sport Science
2132a Central Ave. Se #242
Albuquerque, New Mexico
87106
USA
510-967-5287

Project: TCM Employee Commitment Survey - Academic Package - Student License for Use of the Survey in a Single Student Research Project (Academic Users Guide - Dec 2004.pdf)
Date: 5 March 2010 8:46 PST

TCM EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT SURVEY LICENSE AGREEMENT - FOR STUDENT USE

TCM EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT SURVEY LICENSE AGREEMENT - FOR STUDENT USE

As posted on November 10, 2008

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5/2/2011 1:42 AM

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(b) This Agreement is the entire agreement between YOU and WESTERN relating to this subject matter. YOU will not contest the validity of this Agreement merely because it is in electronic form.

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(d) The provisions of this Agreement are severable in that if any provision in the Agreement is determined to be invalid or unenforceable under any controlling body of law, that will not affect the validity or enforceability of the remaining provisions of the Agreement.

(e) All prices are in Canadian dollars and prices are subject to change without notice. WESTERN will not be liable for any typographical errors, including errors resulting in improperly quoted prices on the Download Summary screen.

(f) YOU agree to print out or download a copy of this Agreement and retain it for your records.

(g) YOU consent to the use of the English language in this Agreement.

If you have any questions or comments, please contact us.

Sincerely,

Flintbox Customer Support
Email: support@flintbox.com
Phone: 604.678.9981
Website: www.flintbox.com

APPENDIX D

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

**University of New Mexico
Informed Consent Cover Letter for Anonymous Surveys**

STUDY TITLE

An Assessment of Organizational Commitment Among NCAA Division III Athletic Directors

F. Michelle Touson from the Department of Health, Education and Sports Science, is conducting a research study. The purpose of the study is to assess the organizational commitment of NCAA Division III athletic directors. You are being asked to participate in this study because an NCAA Division III athletic director.

Your participation will involve in an online or paper and pencil survey. The survey should take about 20 to 30 minutes to complete. Your participation in this study is voluntary and there will be **NO** monetary compensation for your participation. There are no names associated with this survey. Institutional affiliation will be asked of you **ONLY** so that respondents can be identified for reminder contact to improve response rate and to ensure each institution only responds once. The survey includes questions such as “I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career at this institution.” You can refuse to answer any of the questions at any time. There are no known foreseeable risks in this study. You can choose not to respond if you feel uncomfortable, and you may at anytime ask to have your completed survey removed from the study. All data will be kept for two years in a locked file in the primary investigator’s office and then destroyed.

The findings from this research can bring about a greater understanding of the level of commitment among Division III Athletic Directors and organizational commitment. Such information could prove to be valuable to human resources and departmental administrators during the hiring process as well as give insight to issues of retention. If published, results will be presented in summary form only, in scholarly, peer-reviewed journals.

If you have any questions about this research project, please feel free to call F. Michelle Touson at (510) 967-5287. If you have questions regarding your legal rights as a research subject, you may call the UNM Human Research Protections at (505) 272-1129.

By returning this survey in the envelope provided, you will be agreeing to participate in the above described research study.

Thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely,

Researcher’s Name

F. Michelle Touson M.S.

Researcher’s Title

Doctoral Candidate

Protocol#10-362 Version Date 9-1-2010

APPENDIX E

NCAA DIVISION III INSTITUTIONS

AS LISTED IN 2009 – 2010

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE DIRECTORS OF ATHLETICS

- ADRIAN COLLEGE
- AGNES SCOTT COLLEGE
- ALBERTUS MAGNUS COLLEGE
- ALBION COLLEGE
- ALBRIGHT COLLEGE
- ALFRED UNIVERSITY
- ALLEGHENY COLLEGE
- ALMA COLLEGE
- ALVERNIA UNIVERSITY
- ALVERNO COLLEGE
- AMHERST COLLEGE
- ANDERSON UNIVERSITY (INDIANA)
- ANNA MARIA COLLEGE
- ARCADIA UNIVERSITY
- AUGSBURG UNIVERSITY
- AUGUSTANA UNIVERSITY
- AURORA UNIVERSITY
- AUSTIN COLLEGE
- AVERETT UNIVERSITY
- BABSON COLLEGE
- BALDWIN-WALLACE COLLEGE
- BAPTIST BIBLE COLLEGE (PENNSYLVANIA)
- BARD COLLEGE
- BARUCH COLLEGE
- BATES COLLEGE
- BAY PATH COLLEGE
- BECKER COLLEGE
- BELOIT COLLEGE
- BENEDICTINE UNIVERSITY
- BETHANY COLLEGE
- BETHANY LUTHERAN COLLEGE
- BIRMINGHAM-SOUTHERN COLLEGE
- BLACKBURN COLLEGE
- BLUFFTON UNIVERSITY
- BRANDEIS UNIVERSITY
- BRIDGEWATER COLLEGE
- BRIDGEWATER STATE COLLEGE
- BROCKPORT STATE UNIVERSITY
- BROOKLYN COLLEGE
- BRYN MAWR COLLEGE

- BUENA VISTA UNIVERSITY
- BUFFALO STATE UNIVERSITY
- CABRINI COLLEGE
- CALIFORNIA INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY
- CALIFORNIA LUTHERAN UNIVERSITY
- UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA SANTA CRUZ
- CALVIN COLLEGE
- CAPITAL UNIVERSITY
- CARLTON COLLEGE
- CARNEGIE MELLON UNIVERSITY
- CARROLL UNIVERSITY
- CARTHAGE COLLEGE
- CASE WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY
- CASTLETON STATE UNIVERSITY
- CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY OF AMERICA
- CAZENOVIA COLLEGE
- CEDAR CREST COLLEGE
- CENTENARY COLLEGE
- CENTRAL COLLEGE
- CENTRE COLLEGE
- CHAPMAN UNIVESITY
- CHATHAM UNIVERSITY
- UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO
- CHRISTOPHER NEWPORT UNIVERSITY
- CLAREMONT-MUDD-SCRIPPS COLLEGES
- CLARK UNIVERSITY
- CLARKSON UNIVERSITY
- COE COLLEGE
- COLORADO COLLEGE
- CONCORDIA COLLEGE (MINNESOTA)
- CONCORDIA COLLEGE (ILLINOIS)
- CONCORDIA UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS
- CONCORDIA UNIVERSITY (WISCONSIN)
- CONNECTICUT COLLEGE
- CORNELL COLLEGE
- CROWN COLLEGE (MINNESOTA)
- CURRY COLLEGE
- D'YOUVILLE COLLEGE
- UNIVERSITY OF DALLAS
- DANIEL WEBSER COLLEGE
- DEFIANCE COLLEGE
- DELAWARE VALLEY COLLEGE
- DENISON UNIVERSITY
- DESALES UNIVERSITY
- DICKINSON UNIVERSITY
- DOMINICAN UNIVESITY (ILLINOIS)
- DREW UNIVERSITY
- UNIVERSITY OF DEBUQUE
- EARLHAM COLLEGE
- EAST TEXAS BAPTIST UNIVERSITY
- EASTERN CONNECTICUT STATE UNIVERSITY

- EASTERN MENNONITE UNIVERSITY
- EASTERN NAZARENE COLLEGE
- EASTERN UNIVERSITY
- EDGEWOOD COLLEGE
- ELIZABETHTOWN COLLEGE
- ELMIRA COLLEGE
- ELMS COLLEGE
- EMERSON COLLEGE
- EMMANUEL COLLEGE
- EMORY & HENRY COLLEGE
- EMORY UNIVERSITY
- ENDICOTT COLLEGE
- EUREKA COLLEGE
- FAIRLEIGH DICKENSON UNIVESITY (MADISON)
- FARMINGDALE STATE UNIVERSITY
- FERRUM COLLEGE
- FINLANDIA UNIVERSITY
- FITCHBURG STATE COLLEGE
- FONTBONNE UNIVERSITY
- FRAMINGHAM STATE COLLEGE
- FRANCISCAN UNIVERSITY
- FRANKLIN & MARSHALL COLLEGE
- FRANKLIN COLLEGE
- FREDONIA STATE UNIVERSITY
- FROSTBURG STATE UNIVESITY
- GALLAUDET UNIVERSITY
- GENEVA COLLEGE
- GEORGE FOX UNIVERISTY
- GETTYSBURG COLLEGE
- GORDON COLLEGE (MASSACHUSETTS)
- GOUCHER COLLEGE
- GREEN MOUNTAIN COLLEGE
- GREENSBORO COLLEGE
- GREENVILLE COLLEGE
- GROVE CITY COLLEGE
- GUILFORD COLLEGE
- GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS COLLEGE
- GQYNEDD MERCY COLLEGE
- HAMILTON COLLEGE
- HAMLIN UNIVESITY
- HAMPDEN-SYDNEY COLLEGE
- HANOVER COLLEGE
- HARDIN-SIMMONS UNIVERSITY
- HARTWICK COLLEGE
- HAVERFORD COLLEGE
- HEIDELBERG UNIVERSITY
- HENDRIX COLLEGE
- HILBERT COLLEGE
- HIRAM COLLEGE
- HOBART COLLEGE
- HOLLINS UNIVERSITY

- HOOD COLLEGE
- HOPE COLLEGE
- HOWARD PAYNE UNIVERSITY
- HUNTER COLLEGE
- HUNTINGTON COLLEGE
- HUSSON UNIVERSITY
- ILLINOIS COLLEGE
- ILLINOIS WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY
- IMMACULATA UNIVERSITY
- INTER-AMERICAN UNIVERSITY OF PUERTO RICO
- ITHACA COLLEGE
- JOHN CARROLL UNIVERSITY
- JOHN JAY COLLEGE OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE
- JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY
- JOHNSON & WHALES UNIVERSITY (RHODE ISLAND)
- JOHNSON STATE COLLEGE
- JUNIATA COLLEGE
- KALAMAZOO COLLEGE
- KEAN UNIVERSITY
- KEENE STATE COLLEGE
- KENYON COLLEGE
- KEUKA COLLEGE
- KEYSTONE COLLEGE
- KING'S COLLEGE
- KNOX COLLEGE
- LA GRANGE COLLEGE
- LA ROCHE COLLEGE
- UNIVERSITY OF LA VERNE
- LAKE ERIE COLLEGE
- LAKE FORREST COLLEGE
- LAKELAND COLLEGE (WISCONSIN)
- LAKEWOOD COLLEGE
- LANCASTER BIBLE COLLEGE
- LASELL COLLEGE
- LAWRENCE UNIVERSITY
- LE TOURNEAU UNIVERSITY
- LABANON VALLEY COLLEGE
- LEHMAN COLLEGE
- LESLEY UNIVERSITY
- LEWIS & CLARK UNIVERSITY
- LINFIELD COLLEGE
- LORAS COLLEGE
- LOUISIANA COLLEGE
- LUTHER COLLEGE
- LYCOMING COLLEGE
- LYNCHBURG COLLEGE
- LYNDON STATE COLLEGE
- MAC MURRAY COLLEGE
- MACALESTER COLLEGE
- MARINE MARITIME ACADEMY
- UNIVERSITY OF MAIN (FARMINGTON)

- MANHATTANVILLE COLLEGE
- MARIAN UNIVERSITY OF FOND DU LAC
- MARIETTA COLLEGE
- MARTIN LUTHER COLLEGE
- MARY BALDWIN COLLEGE
- UNIVERSITY OF MARY HARDIN-BAYLOR
- UNIVERSITY OF MARY WASHINGTON
- MARYMOUNT UNIVERSITY
- MARYVILLE COLLEGE
- MARYWOOD UNIVERSITY
- MASSACHUSETTS COLLEGE OF LIBERAL ARTS
- MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY (MIT)
- MASSACHUSETTS MARITIME ACADEMY
- UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS (NORTH DARTMOUTH)
- MCDANIEL COLLEGE
- MCMURRY UNIVERSITY
- MEDAILLE COLLEGE
- MEDGAR EVERS COLLEGE
- MENLO COLLEGE
- MEREDITH COLLEGE
- MESSIAH COLLEGE
- METHODIST UNIVERSITY
- MIDDLEBURY COLLEGE
- MILLIKIN UNIVERSITY
- MILLS COLLEGE
- MILSAPS COLLEGE
- MILWAUKEE SCHOOL OF ENGINEERING
- UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA (MORRIS)
- MISERICORDIA UNIVERSITY
- MISSISSIPPI COLLEGE
- MITCHELL COLLEGE
- MONMOUTH COLLEGE
- MONTCLAIR STATE UNIVERSITY
- MORRISVILLE STATE COLLEGE
- MOUNT ALOYSIUS COLLEGE
- MOUNT HOLYOKE COLLEGE
- MOUNT IDA COLLEGE
- MOUNT MARY COLLEGE
- COLLEGE OF MOUNT ST. JOSEPH
- MOUNT ST. MARY COLLEGE
- COLLEGE OF MOUNT ST. VINCENT
- MOUNT UNION COLLEGE
- MUHLENBERG COLLEGE
- MUSKINGUM COLLEGE
- NAZARETH COLLEGE
- NEBRASKA WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY
- NEUMANN UNIVERSITY
- NEW ENGLAND COLLEGE
- UNIVERSITY OF NEW ENGLAND
- NEW JERSEY CITY UNIVERSITY
- COLLEGE OF NEW JERSEY

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- NEW YORK CITY COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY
- NEW YORK UNIVERSITY
- CITY COLLEGE OF NEW YORK
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- NEWBURY COLLEGE
- NICHOLS COLLEGE
- NORTH CAROLINA WESLEYAN
- NORTH CENTRAL COLLEGE
- NORTH CENTRAL UNIVERSITY
- NORTH PARK UNIVERSITY
- NORTHLAND COLLEGE
- NORTHWESTERN COLLEGE
- NORWICH UNIVERSITY
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- OBERLIN COLLEGE
- OCCIDENTAL COLLEGE
- OHIO NORTHERN UNIVERSITY
- OHIO WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY
- COLLEGE OF OLD WESTBURY
- OLIVET COLLEGE
- ONEONTA STATE UNIVERSITY
- OWSEGO STATE UNIVERSITY
- OTTERBEIN COLLEGE
- UNIVERSITY OF THE OZARKS
- PACIFIC UNIVERSITY
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- PENN STATE ALTOONA
- PENN STATE BEHREND COLLEGE
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- PIEDMONT COLLEGE
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- PRATT INSTITUTE
- PRESENTATION COLLEGE
- PRINCIPIA COLLEGE
- UNIVERSITY OF PUGET SOUND
- STATE UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK – PURCHASE COLLEGE
- RAMAPO COLLEGE OF NEW JERSEY
- RANDOLPH COLLEGE
- RANDOLPH-MACON COLLEGE
- UNIVERSITY OF REDLANDS
- REGIS COLLEGE
- RENESSELAER POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE

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- COLLEGE OF SAINT BENEDICT
- SAINT CATHERINE UNIVERSITY
- COLLEGE OF SAINT ELIZABETH
- SAINT JOHN FISHER COLLEGE
- SAINT JOHN'S UNIVERSITY
- SAINT JOSEPH COLLEGE
- ST. JOSEPH'S COLLEGE (BROOKLYN)
- SAINT JOSEPH'S COLLEGE (MAINE)
- SAINT JOSEPH'S COLLEGE (NEW YORK)
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- UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN MAIN
- ST. LAWRENCE UNIVERSITY
- COLLEGE OF ST. SCHOLASTICA
- COLLEGE OF STATEN ISLAND
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- STEVENSON UNIVERSITY
- SUFFOLK UNIVERSITY
- SUL ROSS STATE UNIVERSITY
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- STATE UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK CORTLAND
- STATE UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK GENESEO
- STATE UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY
- STATE UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK NEW PALTZ
- STATE UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK PLATTSBURGH
- STATE UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK POTSDAM
- SUSQUEHANNA UNIVERSITY
- SWARTHMORE COLLEGE
- UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT TYLER
- TEXAS LUTHERAN UNIVERSITY
- UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT DALLAS
- THIEL COLLEGE
- THOMAS COLLEGE
- THOMAS MORE COLLEGE
- PENNSYLVANIA UNIVERSITY
- TRINE UNIVERSITY
- TRINITY COLLEGE
- TRINITY UNIVERSITY (TEXAS)
- TRINITY UNIVERSITY (DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA)
- TUFTS UNIVERSITY
- UNION COLLEGE (NEW YORK)
- UNITED STATES COAST GUARD ACADEMY
- UNITED STATE MERCHANT MARINE ACADEMY
- URSINUS COLLEGE
- UTICA COLLEGE OF SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY
- VASSAR COLLEGE
- VIRGINIA WESLEYAN COLLEGE
- WABASH COLLEGE
- WARTBURG COLLEGE
- WASHINGTON & JEFFERSON
- WASHINGTON & LEE UNIVERSITY
- WASHINGTON COLLEGE
- WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY IN ST. LOUIS
- WAYNESBURG UNIVERSITY
- WEBSTER UNIVERSITY
- WELLESLEY COLLEGE
- WENTWORTH INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY
- WESLEY COLLEGE
- WESLEYAN COLLEGE
- WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY
- WESTERNCONNECTICUT STATE UNIVERSITY
- WESTERN NEW ENGLAND COLLEGE
- WESTFIELD STATE COLLEGE
- WESTMINSTER COLLEGE (MISSOURI)
- WESTMINSTER COLLEGE (PENNSYLVANIA)
- WHEATON COLLEGE (MASSACHUSETTS)
- WHITMAN COLLEGE
- WHITTIER COLLEGE
- WHITWORTH UNIVERSITY
- WIDENER UNIVERSITY
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- WILLAMETTE UNIVERSITY
- WILLIAM PATTERSON UNIVERSITY
- WILLIAMS COLLEGE
- WILMINGTON COLLEGE (OHIO)
- WILSON COLLEGE
- WISCONSIN LUTHERAN COLLEGE
- UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN (EAU CLAIRE)
- UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN (LA CROSSE)
- UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN (OSHKOSH)
- UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN (PLATTERVILLE)
- UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN (RIVER FALLS)
- UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN (STEVENS POINT)
- UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN (STOUT)
- UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN (SUPERIOR)
- UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN (WHITEWATER)
- WITTENBERG UNIVERSITY
- WORCESTER POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE
- WORCESTER STATE COLLEGE
- YESHIVA UNIVERSITY
- YORK COLLEGE (NEW YORK)
- YORK COLLEGE (PENNSYLVANIA)

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