

PERCEIVED CAREER MOBILITY, JOB SATISFACTION, AND
ORGANIZATIONAL TURNOVER INTENTIONS AMONG SENIOR
ADMINISTRATORS AT NCAA DIVISION I FBS INSTITUTIONS AS A FUNCTION
OF GENDER AND ETHNICITY

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my family because of the support they have provided throughout the process. First, I dedicate the dissertation to my husband Lenny, and two girls, Kylie and Makayla. I pursued a master's degree when my girls were of a young age and have been enrolled in academic programs during most of their childhood years. I took two years off in between obtaining a master's degree and beginning the doctoral program because I wanted to ensure that I could manage domestic and professional responsibilities while enrolled in doctoral coursework. I had considered waiting until my girls were older so that my family would not have to sacrifice on my behalf. However, a close friend of mine shared with me the positive impact of having witnessed her mother pursue a doctoral degree while raising a family, so I proceeded.

My girls have become accustomed to seeing me work through weekends; there were countless days working on papers or projects during coursework and many more days to follow during the dissertation stage. On several occasions my girls would ask, "Are you busy today?" The guilt was tremendous when I had to explain that I didn't have the time to dedicate to them during that period. I had committed myself to balancing the demands of the doctoral program with my family so that their sacrifice would be lessened. So, I thank my two girls, even though they were probably unaware of the sacrifice that was placed upon them during those years.

Additionally, I want to thank my husband for the support that he gave me to pursue the doctoral program after a two-year break from graduate work. There were several conversations that took place between us as to whether our family could handle the stress of me being in a doctoral program. Although doctoral students occasionally

experience negative effects within their marriages as a result of the added demands of being enrolled in a doctoral program, this was not the case for me personally. In fact, my husband was most supportive of my professional goals during these years because he understood the importance of this accomplishment. For that support I will be grateful to my husband forever, thank you for your support.

Lastly, I want to dedicate this dissertation to my father, Howard Wilcox, Jr. There are two reasons why my father was influential to me in pursuing a degree in higher education. First, my father was a first-generation student; so, he placed great importance on higher education. Additionally, he has always encouraged me to pursue an advanced degree and it was because of his influence that I had committed myself to attaining this goal during my undergraduate years. Second, my father has always been an advocate for diversity and has positively influenced my thinking in this regard. I have been raised in an environment that views diversity positively, which has influenced my worldview and research interests. So, I thank my father for his dedication to education and his commitment to continual learning, even in his late years. Finally, I want to thank both of my parents for their unconditional love and support they have displayed to me always. Their support has given me the strength to persevere; I love you both unconditionally in return.

ABSTRACT

Wilcox, Rachael, *Perceived career mobility, job satisfaction, and organizational turnover intentions among senior administrators at NCAA division I FBS institutions as a function of gender and ethnicity*. Doctor of Education (Higher Education Leadership), May, 2018, Sam Houston State University, Huntsville, Texas.

Business management scholars have examined aspects of organizational turnover for many years. There is general acknowledgement that the turnover process is complex and that most models leave significant variance unexplained. Additionally, scholars within the business management sector have stated that demographic variables (e.g., gender, race) have negative effects on turnover decisions.

Within the sport industry, turnover research has been conducted only over the last 15 years; however, researchers have focused on the role of athletic coaches. Therefore, the first purpose of this study was to collect descriptive data to describe the demographic, professional, and educational characteristics of senior-level administrators within NCAA Division I FBS institutions. The second purpose was to examine the relationship among organizational outcomes (i.e., perceived career mobility [PCM], job satisfaction [JS] levels, and organizational turnover intentions [TO]) as a function of gender and ethnicity.

This study offers a different perspective, that of senior-level athletic administrators. A quantitative survey was sent electronically to 1,231 senior-level athletic administrators across all 130 NCAA Division I FBS institutions. The survey contained four sections: (a) demographic information, (b) perceived career mobility scale, (c) job satisfaction, and (d) organizational turnover intentions. A total of 213 (17%) administrators responded.

Demographic, educational, and professional profile characteristics are provided for NCAA Divisions I FBS senior-level athletic administrators. Furthermore, work-

related outcome variables were examined as a function of gender and ethnicity, but no differences were reported. Additionally, gender and ethnicity interaction and main effects were examined with each work-related variable; however, no differences were discovered. Lastly, all variables (i.e., gender, ethnicity, PCM, and JS) were examined to determine if and to what extent each variable predicted TO. The findings indicated that the model was a good predictor of TO; moreover, JS explained the greatest degree of variance (i.e., 29%). Although findings did not reveal ethnic or gender differences, sport management scholars need to continue to expand the diversity-related research examining organizational outcomes within the athletic administration setting. Implications of the study are discussed in the context of curriculum design for program developers, future administrators hoping to work within intercollegiate athletics, and existing administrators working within the field.

KEY WORDS: Organizational turnover intentions, job satisfaction, perceived career mobility, gender, ethnicity, intercollegiate athletic administration, senior administrators.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
DEDICATION	iii
ABSTRACT	v
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	ix
LIST OF TABLES	xii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiv
CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION	1
Statement of the Problem.....	6
Theoretical Framework.....	7
Purpose of Study	9
Research Questions.....	10
Research Hypotheses	11
Significance of the Study.....	13
Definition of Key Terms.....	14
Delimitations.....	18
Limitations.....	18
Organization of Remaining Chapters	26
CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE	27
History of Intercollegiate Athletics and the NCAA	28
Characteristics of Athletic Administrators	39
Disparities Among Athletic Administrators	44

Turnover	47
Theoretical Framework.....	57
Turnover Intentions	58
Professional Advancement/ Upward Mobility and Turnover Intentions.....	68
Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intentions	84
Summary of Turnover Intentions Research.....	94
CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY.....	98
Participants	98
Instruments	104
Procedures.....	111
Data Analysis.....	113
CHAPTER IV: PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA	117
Introduction.....	117
Organization of Data Analysis.....	118
Data Collection Phase.....	120
Findings	123
Summary of Results.....	151
CHAPTER V: SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS	153
Summary of the Study	153
Discussion of Findings in Relation to Research Questions	158
Discussion of Findings in the Context of Theoretical Framework.....	180
Implication of the Findings.....	184
Recommendations for Future Research.....	188

Conclusions.....	192
REFERENCES	195
APPENDIX A.....	221
APPENDIX B.....	230
APPENDIX C.....	237
APPENDIX D.....	238
APPENDIX E.....	239
APPENDIX F.....	240
APPENDIX G.....	242
APPENDIX H.....	243
VITA.....	244

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1 Quantitative Phase Threats to Internal Validity.....	20
2 Quantitative Phase Threats to External Validity.....	22
3 NCAA Division I Intercollegiate Athletics Programs Net Operating Results by Subdivision.....	34
4 Turnover Intention Variables Examined Within Intercollegiate Athletic Research.....	50
5 Key Contributions to Organizational Turnover Research in Chronological Order.....	54
6 Terms Used to Describe Upward Mobility or Career Advancement Within the Literature.....	70
7 Constructs Incorporated Within Upward Mobility Research Examining Turnover Intentions.....	72
8 Response Rates and Instrument Format for Turnover Intention Studies Within Intercollegiate Athletics.....	102
9 Turnover Intention Scales Within Intercollegiate Athletic Research.....	109
10 Educational Level by Gender and Ethnic Group.....	126
11 Means and Standard Deviations for Dependent Variables (PCM, JS, and OT) as a Function of Gender and Ethnicity.....	131
12 Standardized Skewness and Kurtosis for Dependent Variables (PCM, JS, OT) as a Function of Gender and Ethnicity.....	133

13	Means and Standard Deviations for Work-related Outcomes (i.e., PCM, JS, and OT) as a Function of Gender and Ethnicity	138
14	Summary Table for Two-Way ANOVA of the Effects of Gender and Ethnicity on PCM.....	140
15	Summary Table for Two-Way ANOVA of the Effects of Gender and Ethnicity on JS	143
16	Summary Table for Two-Way ANOVA of the Effects of Gender and Ethnicity on OT.....	145
17	Means and Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for Organizational Turnover Intentions (TO) and TO Predictor Variables.....	148
18	Regression Analysis Summary for Gender, Ethnicity, PCM, and JS, Predicting Outcome on Organizational Turnover Intentions	150
19	Turnover Intentions and Athletic Administration.....	155

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
<i>Figure 1.</i> Age distribution of athletic administrators.....	124
<i>Figure 2.</i> Titles of administrators within the study.....	128

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Business management scholars have examined aspects of organizational turnover for many years (Allen, Hancock, Varaman, & McKee, 2014). Furthermore, researchers have developed models with the purpose of predicting turnover behavior by incorporating constructs relating to attitudes, job-search behaviors, and turnover intentions (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). Although agreement among scholars regarding the strongest predictor variables of turnover intentions has not been achieved, there is general acknowledgement that the turnover process is complex and that most models leave significant variance unexplained (Felps et al., 2009; Steel & Lounsbury, 2009).

Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, and Eberly (2008) indicated that turnover rates vary by organizational type, complicating the understanding of turnover behavior, thereby leading to the importance of examining turnover behavior across a variety of industries and organizations. The majority of turnover behavior research has been conducted within the United States (Allen et al., 2014); however, more recently, researchers have examined factors internationally (Chan & Mai, 2015; Ferreira, Coetzee, & Masenge, 2013).

Turnover models. Job satisfaction is one of the most commonly studied predictor variables and a core mechanism of turnover theory (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). However, researchers have stated that the strongest predictor variable of actual turnover is quit/stay intentions (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Steel & Lounsbury, 2009; Steel & Ovalle, 1984). Because job satisfaction and quit/stay intentions are both considered core mechanisms of turnover behavior, Steel and Lounsbury (2009) examined whether these variables and to what extent were being incorporated into turnover models. Through

their analysis, Steel and Lounsbury (2009) discovered that affective variables, such as job satisfaction were incorporated into every model examined within their research, whereas quit/stay intentions variables were used less often even though the behavioral variable is considered as the strongest predictor of actual turnover (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009; Steel & Ovalle, 1984).

According to Steel and Lounsbury (2009), three core mechanisms (attitudinal variables, job-search, and turnover intentions) are the main components of turnover models. However, researchers have explored other variables because of the presumption that no model is complete (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). For example, in examining secondary mechanisms, Steel and Lounsbury (2009) reported that personal, organizational, change, consequences, and decision process factors also have been incorporated within turnover studies. As such, Steel and Lounsbury (2009) conducted a cross-reference of studies that included these additional factors in order to provide a systemic analysis of turnover models and to provide suggestions for future research.

Moreover, Steel and Lounsbury (2009) suggested that intraorganizational mobility also should be considered within the turnover process because most turnover studies have involved a focus on employee dissatisfaction and have not involved a consideration of why employees stay. Additionally, opportunities within an organization provide an alternative to leaving and should be considered as a form of employee retention. Finally, Steel and Lounsbury (2009) have indicated that intraorganizational mobility is an emerging construct because it has not been examined within the turnover process.

Demographic variables. Many researchers have incorporated demographic variables within turnover studies and have reported that both gender (Hom, Roberson, & Ellis, 2008; Peltokorpi, Allen, & Froese, 2015) and racial differences (Allen et al., 2014; Hom et al., 2008) do exist. For example, Hom et al. (2008) indicated that women were more likely to quit than were men across 20 large corporations within the United States. From an ethnic or racial perspective, McKay et al. (2007) reported that African American minorities have higher turnover rates than do other minority groups and Hom et al. (2008) reported that minorities have higher turnover rates than do White Americans. On the contrary, Griffeth et al. (2000) conducted a meta-analysis of turnover antecedents of turnover behavior and concluded that few demographic variables were good predictors, with the exception of tenure and number of children.

Researchers focusing on diversity-related issues within the workplace have stated that gaining entry into organizations is no longer the barrier for minorities (Kilian, Hukai, & McCarty, 2005). Rather, Griffeth and Hom (2001) indicated that socialization issues that exist after the hiring process contribute to higher turnover rates for people of color. Hom et al. (2008) explained that certain organizations are better at recruiting minorities but less successful at retaining them. Even further to this point, McKay and Avery (2005) suggested that effective diversity hiring practices might inadvertently contribute to higher turnover rates of minorities because of false pretenses in expecting a positive diversity-related experience after minorities have been hired. These studies are just a few that support the need for incorporating demographic variables within turnover studies.

Athletic administration and turnover intentions. Within the sport industry, scholars have stated that sport leadership is unique and perhaps more prestigious than are

other sectors (Welty Peachey, Damon, Zhou, & Burton 2015). Additionally, Welty Peachey et al. (2015) stated that antecedents of leadership vary by sport context (e.g., interscholastic, intercollegiate). Although business management scholars have studied turnover behavior since the 1950's, research within the sport industry has been conducted only over the last 15-year period. Additionally, sport management scholars have focused mainly on intercollegiate athletics and on the role of athletic coaches, with only a few scholars examining the relationships among athletic administrators (Welty Peachey et al., 2015).

Researchers have indicated that the diversity environment within intercollegiate athletics is less favorable than is the case within other business settings (Cunningham & Sagas, 2005; Fink, Pastore, & Riemer, 2001), which, in turn, can negatively affect the organizational climate (Walker & Melton, 2015). Moreover, intercollegiate athletics provides the greatest career opportunities in sport because of the number of positions available (Lapchick, 2016). Therefore, understanding disparities is important because of the lack of diversity within this setting (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014; Lapchick 2016). Interestingly, in examining diversity effects, Cunningham (2008) concluded that, "homologous groups tend to decrease when people see the value in diversity" (p. 333). In fact, Cunningham (2011a, 2011b) indicated that a strong organizational climate contributes to more positive organizational outcomes for both minority and majority groups within the workplace.

From an organizational turnover perspective within intercollegiate athletics, researchers have examined mainly the turnover behaviors of athletic coaches over the last 15 years, as previously mentioned. More recently, scholars have examined leadership

behaviors and turnover intentions among athletic coaches (Wells & Welty Peachey, 2011; Wells, Welty Peachey, & Walker, 2014) and senior athletic administrators (Welty Peachey, Burton, & Wells, 2014); however, limited research studies are available for the athletic administrator population overall. Consistent with Steel and Lounsbury's (2009) finding that the majority of turnover behavior research has focused on core mechanisms (e.g., job satisfaction and organizational commitment), the same can be reported for intercollegiate athletic research. For example, a few scholars have explored job satisfaction factors (Cunningham, Fink, & Sagas, 2005; Cunningham & Sagas, 2004a; Sagas & Batista, 2001; Turner & Jordan, 2006), whereas others have examined organizational commitment (Cunningham et al., 2005; Cunningham & Sagas, 2004b; Turner & Chelladurai, 2005; Turner & Jordan, 2006). More specifically, job satisfaction and organizational commitment were the two most frequently examined constructs within intercollegiate athletics, with leader behavior being the most recently explored variable.

Scholars within the business management sector have stated that demographic variables such as gender (Peltokorpi et al., 2015) and race (Hom et al., 2008) have negative effects on turnover decisions. However, Cunningham and Sagas (2004b) have indicated that diversity-related research examining organizational outcomes within intercollegiate athletics has been limited. Coincidentally, the underrepresentation of women specifically within sport and intercollegiate athletics has been researched extensively (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014, Lapchick, 2016) and to a lesser extent from a racial or ethnic perspective (Lapchick, 2016). Because of this gap in research, Wells and Welty Peachey (2011) have suggested that demographic variables should be included

when examining organizational outcomes from a diversity-related perspective within turnover studies.

Statement of the Problem

As indicated previously, scholars have examined factors of organizational turnover behavior extensively within the business literature (see reviews of Allen et al., 2014; Steel & Lounsbury, 2009) because of the high costs associated with turnover behavior (Hinkin & Tracey, 2000). Although core mechanisms consistently have been incorporated within turnover models, constructs relating to perceptions of upward mobility and/or advancement have yet to be adequately explored (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). Coetzee and Stolz (2015) indicated that retention factors contribute to a reduction in turnover rates and more satisfied employees. Additionally, Lesabe and Nkosi (2007) stated that employees become frustrated without opportunities for growth and advancement. These findings support the need to analyze further the effects of perceptions of upward mobility or advancement opportunities within the turnover process.

Having a diverse leadership team might provide a competitive advantage for sport organizations in attracting the best applicants (Cunningham & Melton, 2011). On the contrary, the lack of diversity among leadership positions within sport organizations might deter underrepresented groups from applying to these organizations. Examples of the lack of diversity in athletic administration are more evident among the athletic director position, and even more so within NCAA Division I institutions (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014; Lapchick, 2016). In fact, during the 2011-2012 academic year, the

majority (i.e., 91.7%) of all athletic directors at the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I level were men and 89% were White (Lapchick, 2016).

Researchers have indicated that demographic variables such as gender and ethnicity or race have important implications within the turnover process and contribute to the understanding of turnover behavior (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Hom et al., 2008; Peltokorpi et al., 2015). In fact, researchers across both fields (i.e., business management and sport management) have stated that turnover rates are higher for those who are most dissimilar to the majority (Hom et al., 2008; Cunningham & Sagas, 2004a). Most importantly, these underrepresented groups within intercollegiate athletic administration face undesirable organizational climates in which they work (Walker & Melton, 2015).

Of the limited turnover behavior research that has been conducted within the intercollegiate athletic field, the majority has focused on athletic coaches. Additionally, the research examining turnover behavior within this setting has focused on job satisfaction and organizational commitment constructs, and, most recently, on leader behavior, as previously discussed. Perceptions of advancement opportunities negatively affect turnover behavior (Coetzee & Stolz, 2015); however, to date, research examining factors of upward mobility or perceptions of advancement has yet to be explored within this setting.

Theoretical Framework

Both social identity and self-categorization theories have been used to explain diversity-related differences and work outcomes within intercollegiate athletics (Cunningham & Sagas, 2004a, 2004b). More specifically, Cunningham and Sagas (2004a) examined the effects of surface-level and deep-level diversity on job satisfaction

and organizational turnover intentions of NCAA Division I assistant coaches for men's basketball programs, whereas Cunningham and Sagas (2004b) explored the effects of group diversity and occupational commitment and occupational turnover intentions of NCAA Division I FBS football coaches. Both studies incorporated social identity and self-categorization theories as frameworks to explain their findings.

According to Tajfel and Turner (1979), social identity is established based on an individual's group membership. The process of self-identity involves categorizing others into in-group and out-group members, with self-esteem being raised by belonging to an in-group membership. On the contrary, members of the out-group are considered less desirable; thereby discrimination forms between in-group and out-group members. The theory involves three mental processes in which an individual uses to determine group membership: (a) categorization, (b) social identification, and (c) social comparison. The first step involves categorizing people into groups based on physical and social characteristics (e.g., age, race, political affiliation). The second step entails identifying with a group based on likeness and adopting characteristics and attributes of the group. Lastly, the third step involves social comparison of groups and attaches a more favorably self-image to the group with whom we identify, or the in-group (Tajfel & Turner, 1979).

According to Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, and Wetherell (1987), self-categorization theory (SCT) posits that the way people perceive themselves is based on individual and group identity as well as the relationships among them. Moreover, self-categorization theory incorporates many levels of self-identity, with the individual level being only one level. To this point, individuals define themselves by both social and personal identities, if an individual is influenced by group behavior, then social identity

can be more influential than individual identity. Additionally, the theory posits that individuals are capable of having both individual and group identities and helps explain the behaviors of in-group membership such as collective agreement, compliancy, and cooperation. The self-categorization theory incorporates three levels of self-identity: (a) human identity, (b) social identity, and (c) personal identity. The important distinction between the two theories (i.e., self-categorization theory and self-identity theory) is that self-categorization theory involves intragroup processes that are dynamic in nature whereas self-identity primarily is based on intergroup relations. Both theories will be used to interpret the findings of this study.

Purpose of Study

Although several researchers have examined the underrepresentation of women and minorities within intercollegiate athletics and, more recently, the characteristics of athletic directors at National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I and III institutions (Wong, 2014), few researchers have done so by focusing on senior-level administrators. More specifically, to date, no research could be found that provides a comprehensive profile of senior athletic administrators at NCAA Division I institutions. Therefore, the first purpose of this study was to collect descriptive data via the use of a survey instrument that would describe the demographic, professional, and educational characteristics of senior-level administrators within NCAA Division I FBS institutions.

A few researchers have examined the diversity-related effects of turnover intentions among college coaches (Cunningham and Sagas, 2004a, 2004b; Cunningham, Sagas, & Ashley, 2001). However, limited research was available that explored the relationship between diversity and turnover intentions of athletic administrators within

intercollegiate athletics. Moreover, to date, no research could be found that specifically examined turnover intentions and perceptions of advancement opportunities among senior-level athletic administrators. Therefore, the second purpose of this study was to examine the relationship among organizational outcomes (i.e., perceived career mobility, job satisfaction levels, and organizational turnover intentions) among senior-level athletic administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender and ethnicity.

Research Questions

To explore the characteristics of senior-level administrators within NCAA Division I FBS institutions and to determine the differences in perceived career mobility, job satisfaction, and organizational turnover intentions, the following research questions were addressed:

RQ1: What are the demographic, educational, and professional characteristics of senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions?

RQ2: What is the difference in perceived career mobility among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender?

RQ3: What is the difference in perceived career mobility among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of ethnicity?

RQ4: What is the difference in perceived career mobility among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender and ethnicity?

RQ5: What is the difference in job satisfaction among senior-level athletic administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender?

RQ6: What is the difference in job satisfaction among senior-level athletic administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of ethnicity?

RQ7: What is the difference in job satisfaction among senior-level athletic administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender and ethnicity?

RQ8: What is the difference in organizational turnover intentions among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender?

RQ9: What is the difference in organizational turnover intentions among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of ethnicity?

RQ10: What is the difference in organizational turnover intentions among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender and ethnicity?

RQ11: What factors (perceived career mobility, job satisfaction, gender, and ethnicity) best predict organizational turnover intentions among senior-level administrators within NCAA Division I FBS institutions?

Research Hypotheses

The following research hypotheses were tested:

R1: The first research question contains descriptive statistics only; thus, no hypothesis is required.

H2: There is a difference in perceived career mobility among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender.

H3: There is a difference in perceived career mobility among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of ethnicity.

H4: There is a difference in perceived career mobility among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender and ethnicity.

H5: There is a difference in job satisfaction among senior-level athletic administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender.

H6: There is a difference in job satisfaction among senior-level athletic administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of ethnicity.

H7: There is a difference in job satisfaction among senior-level athletic administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender and ethnicity.

H8: There is a difference in organizational turnover intentions among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender.

H9: There is a difference in organizational turnover intentions among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of ethnicity.

H10: There is a difference in organizational turnover intentions among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender and ethnicity.

H11: There is a relationship between turnover intentions and perceived career mobility, job satisfaction, gender, and ethnicity for senior-level athletic administrations within NCAA Division I FBS institutions.

Significance of the Study

First, this research should help those hoping to work within intercollegiate athletic administration in the future become more aware of issues that currently exist pertaining to professional advancement, job satisfaction, and organizational turnover intentions. As previously stated, intercollegiate athletics provides the greatest number of positions available within the sport industry (Lapchick, 2016). Therefore, it is hoped that the findings from this study can be used to help develop professional preparation programs.

Second, expanding the research to examine organizational outcomes (e.g., turnover intentions) as a function of diversity within intercollegiate athletics will help administrators to understand the issues better in order to provide the appropriate retention initiatives within their departments (Cunningham & Sagas, 2004b). Additionally, in order for retention strategies to be adopted by senior-administrators, administrators must first acknowledge the connection between organizational effectiveness and diversity (Cunningham & Sagas, 2004b). Thus, this research should help address the gap that currently exists in the current literature via a direction that has not been explored previously.

Third, academicians in sport management programs should incorporate research pertaining to the challenges and issues for athletic administrators into their programs and ensure that curricula are representative of current issues within the field. In addition, academicians and athletic administrators should continue to encourage individuals from diverse backgrounds into the field and for a variety of positions (Ross & Parks, 2008). Finally, because researchers have documented the underrepresentation of minorities within intercollegiate athletics, providing an understanding of turnover intentions and

diversity-related issues should help to expand the research so that further advancements can be made.

Definition of Key Terms

Career adaptability. Savickas (1997) defines career adaptability as, “The readiness to cope with the predictable tasks of preparing for and participating in the work role and with the unpredictable adjustments prompted by changes in the work and working conditions” (p. 254).

Gender equality. Gender equality refers to “the equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of women and men and boys and girls.... Gender equality implies that the interests, needs and priorities of both women and men are taken into consideration, recognizing the diversity of different groups of women and men” (UN Women, 2013, para. 2).

Hegemonic masculinity. According to Whisenant, Pedersen, and Obenour (2002), “Hegemonic masculinity is the acceptance of masculinity as the defining characteristic of Western society that places women in a lower social position” (p. 486). Whisenant et al. (2002) explain that sport is a hegemonic masculinity culture and that certain areas are off limits to women because of the power held by men.

Homologous reproduction. Mullane and Whisenant (2007) described homologous reproduction as occurring when “those in power only shared their power with individuals who reflected the same traits or characteristics as those individuals who were already within the powerful inner circle” (p. 263).

Intraorganizational mobility. Intraorganizational mobility refers to job changes within an organization that includes work responsibilities, titles, or any hierarchal changes (Feldman & Ng, 2007; João & Coetzee, 2012).

Interorganizational mobility. Interorganizational mobility refers to movement between organizations (Feldman & Ng, 2007; João & Coetzee, 2012).

Intersectionality. According to Walker and Melton (2015), “intersectionality can be defined as the crossing of multiple forms of oppression (e.g., gender, race, ethnicity, class, and sexuality), hence producing distinct sets of perspectives and consequences among individuals” (p. 258, para 4).

Job embeddedness. According to Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, and Erez, (2001). (2001), job embeddedness involves three components: fit, links, and sacrifice. Fit refers to the ability of the person to mesh with the job, links refers to the person’s ability to blend with people in the organization, and sacrifice refers to how easily the links can be broken.

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is an immediate reaction to job experiences, which fluctuates with changes (Chelladurai, 2006).

National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA). The NCAA is one of the governing bodies of intercollegiate athletics; founded in 1906, the organization was formed as a way to protect student-athletes from violations and to promote academic excellence. The governing body is made up of three divisions across the United States, each division creating its own rules and regulations (About the NCAA., n.d.)

NCAA Division I, Football Bowl Subdivision (FBS). NCAA Division I is subdivided by football programs; programs are structured based on their postseason play

outside of the NCAA or bowl games. The FBS has approximately 120 member schools with football programs (About the NCAA., n.d).

NCAA Division I, Football Championship Subdivision (FCS). NCAA Division I is subdivided by football programs; those that participate in the NCAA-run football championship belong to the Football Championship Subdivision (About the NCAA., n.d.).

NCAA Division I, No Football Schools (NFS). NCAA Division I is subdivided by football programs; schools that do not sponsor football programs at all are referred to as No Football Schools (NFS) or simply Division I (About the NCAA., n.d.).

Old boys network. The *old boys network* refers to the network that exists within intercollegiate athletics, largely controlled by men. Grappendorf, Burton, and Lilienthal (2007) described the old boys network “as a common mechanism that assists men in their careers, while preventing women from obtaining sport management positions” (p. 305).

Occupational/career commitment. According to Blau (1985), occupational commitment refers to identification with the occupation because of a positive attitude associated with the profession or “one’s attitudes towards one’s profession or vocation” (p. 280).

Organizational commitment. According to Meyer and Allen (1991), organizational commitment involves a three-component framework that comprises affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Affective commitment refers to “the employees emotional attachment to, identification, with, and involvement in the organization” (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67). Continuance commitment refers to “an awareness of the costs with leaving the organization” (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67). And

normative commitment “reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment” (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67).

Occupational turnover intentions. According to Cunningham and Sagas (2004b), occupational turnover intention is defined as “one’s plan, desire, and intent to leave his or her profession” (p. 238).

Organizational turnover intentions. Organizational turnover intentions are “the conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave the organization” (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p. 262).

Role congruity. Role congruity theory is grounded in social role theory and reflects the differences in treatment as a result of gender, commonly in the form of prejudice toward women and leadership roles. According to Eagly and Karau (2002), role congruity theory reaches beyond social role theory to consider the congruity between gender roles and other roles, especially leadership roles, as well as to specify key factors and processes that influence congruity perceptions and their consequences for prejudice and prejudicial behaviors. (p. 575)

Title IX. Title IX is part of the Educational Amendments and was enacted in 1972 to ensure that no individual was discriminated on the basis of sex from participation in activities that received federal funds. The laws states, “No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance” (“Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972,” 1972 para 1).

Turnover intentions and turnover. According to Aydogdu and Asikgil (2011), turnover intention is defined as “one’s behavioral attitude to withdraw from the

organization whereas turnover is considered to be the actual separation from the organization” (p. 46).

Delimitations

This study was delimited to senior-level administrators working within intercollegiate athletic departments at NCAA Division I FBS institutions. Additionally, the study involved exploration of perceptions of career mobility, job satisfaction, and organizational turnover intentions among all senior-level athletic administrators as a function of gender and ethnicity. Participants included men and women and individuals from different ethnic and racial backgrounds such as White, African American/Black, Hispanic, American Indian or Alaskan Native, Asian, Native Hawaiian or Pacifica Islander, or multi-races/ethnicity.

Limitations

Quantitative phase. According to Cook and Campbell (1979), internal validity is the “approximate validity with which we infer that a relationship between two variables is causal” (p. 37). In other words, internal validity is the extent to which we can draw conclusions that an independent variable contributes to a change in the dependent variable. In comparison, external validity refers to the extent that we can generalize the findings to populations outside the study. As a means of expanding various threats to internal validity and external validity within quantitative research designs, Onwuegbuzie (2003) provided a framework for three stages of research: (a) research design/data collection, (b) data analysis, and (c) data interpretation.

During the research design/data collection stage, Onwuegbuzie (2003) identified 22 threats to internal validity and 12 threats to external validity within quantitative

research. At the data analysis stage, 21 threats to internal validity and five threats to external validity have been identified. Lastly, at the interpretation stage, seven threats to internal validity and three threats to external validity have been identified (Onwuegbuzie, 2003). The more pertinent threats will be discussed within this section; however, a complete list of the internal and external threats that pertain to the present study have been identified and provided in Tables 1 and 2, respectively.

Table 1

Quantitative Phase Threats to Internal Validity

Internal Threat	Description	Possibilities within Present Study
Research design/data collection phase		
History	Refers to events that could occur during the study	The NCAA faces significant challenges due to legal implications (e.g., recent court cases) that could require major reform. An administrator's attitudes could change significantly should changes occur during the data collection process.
Differential selection bias	Refers to differences between comparison groups	The most senior-level administrators will be chosen at each institution; however, institutions have differences in organizational structure.
Mortality	Relates to attrition of participants during the study	Administrators could leave the institution, leave the field, or secure promotion during the data collection phase.
Reactive arrangements	Occurs when participants are aware that they are participating in a research study	Participants might respond or react to the questions within the survey differently as a result of participating in the study.
Treatment diffusion	Occurs when participants communicate with each other	Because administrators from the same institutions will be asked to complete the survey, they might communicate with each other and share their opinions and affect the outcome of the results

(continued)

Internal Threat	Description	Possibilities within Present Study
History x treatment interaction	Occurs if participants experience historical events at different times within the study	Because administrators will be given a length of time to response (e.g., 30 days), if an event occurs during the data collection stage, then participants might respond differently to the survey questions.
Data analysis phase		
Mortality	Refers to removing some of the participants' data in order to examine equal sample sizes	Because different positions (e.g., finance, compliance) will be collected, it might be possible that some groups will have lower response rates than will others. If unequal sample sizes exist, randomly sampling of each group might be required during this phase of research.
Matching bias	Refers to matching groups after the data have been collected, potentially leading to matching unequal groups	Institutions might differ in organizational structure, leaving the decision to the researcher to match each group equally.
Data interpretation phase		
Confirmation bias	The tendency of the researcher to interpret the findings based on expected outcomes or biases.	This threat is identified as a potential threat given the significant research related to underrepresentation of administrators as a function of ethnicity and gender.

Note. Table adapted from Benge, Onwuegbuzie, and Robbins (2012)

Table 2

Quantitative Phase Threats to External Validity

External Threat	Description	Possibilities within Present Study
Research design/data collection phase		
Population validity	Refers to the generalizability of the findings from the sample size to a larger population	Because each NCAA institutions is unique, the culture within each of the institutions also might be different from one institution to the next institution; generalizing the findings from one or more of the groups (e.g., finance administrator) to the larger populations might not be possible.
Ecological validity	Refers to the generalizability of the findings across settings.	Similar to population validity, ecological validity within NCAA institutions and conferences might be a threat considering the differences that exist from one conference to another or from one institution to another.
Temporal validity	The extent to which findings can be generalized over time.	Considering the possibility of major changes within intercollegiate athletics in the future, the generalizability of these findings might not be applicable in the future.
Researcher bias	The bias of a study given the characteristics or values of the researcher.	The researcher's keen interest and opinions about the research topic might pose a threat to the study itself.

(continued)

External Threat	Description	Possibilities within Present Study
Specificity of variables	Refers to the specific time, location, circumstances, and instrument used within the study and ability to generalize to a larger population.	Several factors contribute the unique aspect of intercollegiate athletics and potential changes within the environment that could lead to the specificity of this study at a given time, place, and circumstance, thereby contributing to less generalizability of the findings.
Data analysis phase		
Population bias	Analyzing a subset of data and generalizing to a larger group.	Similar to data collection stage, the generalizability of a sample to the population might be a threat considering that each institution might be unique.
Researcher bias	Bias of the researcher's values that affects both data collection and analysis stage of research.	The researcher's selection of topic and purpose of the study might affect the generalizability of the findings.
Specificity of variables	The more specific the variables, the less generalizable; affects both data collection and analysis phase of research.	Considering the specific aspects of research and the environment related to the study, this threat could affect the generalizability of the findings.
Data interpretation phase		
Population validity	See threat related to data collection phase	The generalizability from the sample size to populations could be impacted considering unique aspects of intercollegiate athletics.
Ecological validity	See threat related to data collection phase	The generalizability across settings (e.g., conferences or institutions) could be impacted.
Temporal validity	See threat related to data collection phase	The generalizability in the future might be affected should significant changes occur.

Within the present study, six threats to internal validity were identified at the design and data collection stage: (a) history, (b) differential selection bias, (c) mortality, (d) reactive arrangements, (e) treatment diffusion, and (f) history x treatment interaction (Onwuegbuzie, 2003). At the data analysis stage, two threats to internal validity were identified (i.e., mortality, and matching bias) and one threat was identified at the data interpretation phase (i.e., confirmation bias) (Onwuegbuzie, 2003).

Mortality is one of the more prevalent internal validity threats at the design and data collection phase that could affect the present study. More specifically, mortality refers to attrition or when participants who have been selected fail to participate in the study (Onwuegbuzie, 2003). The survey instrument was distributed to athletic administrators during off-peak summer months, when administrators were more likely to respond. However, the summer months (i.e., May, June, and July) are also when athletic administrators are more likely to job changes, potentially impacting the number of emails that can be delivered successfully. Additionally, because participants were selected based on certain criteria, thereby limiting the total population size, there was a possibility of receiving an insufficient response rate based on Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) recommended number of responses or abstracts in order to obtain a representative sample size. There are two ways in which this threat was mitigated; the first way was to send the survey to the entire population of athletic administrators. The second way was to send a pre-notification email in an effort to reduce the number of undeliverable emails. Furthermore, a second attempt was made to identify a correct email address for the athletic administrator in the current position by contacting the institution directly and resending the invitation where possible.

The following five threats to external validity were identified at the design and data collection phase: (a) population, (b) ecological, (c) temporal, (d) researcher, and (e) specificity of variables. At the data analysis stage, three threats were identified: (a) population, (b) researcher, and (c) specificity of variables. Lastly, at the data interpretation stage, three threats were identified: (a) population, (b) ecological, and (c) temporal.

As indicated, several external validity threats were identified within the present study; however, three threats were more critical threats to address: (a) population, (b) ecological, and (c) temporal validity. Moreover, population validity refers to the extent that the findings can be generalized to larger populations. Ecological validity refers to the extent that the findings can be generalized across settings, in this case to other NCAA institutions and divisions. Lastly, temporal validity refers to the extent that the findings can be generalized across time (Onwuegbuzie, 2003).

Because each of these three threats refers to an aspect of generalizability of the findings, the NCAA divisional differences and financial challenges should be taken into account. For example, we know that NCAA Division I FBS institutions function more like a business than any other division or subdivision within the NCAA (Wong, Deubert, & Hayek, 2015). Additionally, NCAA Divisions I FBS institutions have different structures in order to support larger financial budgets. These divisional differences have changed the qualifications required to obtain these higher level positions and the skills required to manage these institutions (Brown, 2013; Wong, 2014). Also, athletic administrators must be able to anticipate future changes considering the financial challenges that NCAA Division I FBS institutions face (Wong et al., 2015). To address

these threats to external validity, the present study was delimited to NCAA Division I FBS athletic administrators only with the intent to expand the study to other divisions in the future.

Organization of Remaining Chapters

The following chapter will review the literature pertaining to the research topic of the present study. More specifically, within Chapter 2, a brief overview of the turnover intentions will be provided, followed by a section with background information on the NCAA. Next, the demographic, educational, and professional characteristics and disparities of athletic administrators will be reviewed. Following the characteristics of athletics administration, the next section within the literature review will explore research relating to turnover intentions, job satisfaction, and perceptions of upward mobility and/or advancement within both business management and athletic administration literature. Diversity-related research in both fields will be discussed within these sections. Following the review of literature, Chapter 3 (method section) contains information relating to the method, population, procedures, instrumentation, sample scheme, and data analysis of the present study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Turnover intentions have been a focus of business management scholars for more than 50 years (see review of Allen et al., 2014). Within the sport management field, researchers have focused on turnover intentions over the last 15-year period but have focused their research efforts on turnover intentions of athletic coaches (Cunningham & Sagas, 2003, 2004a, 2004b; Cunningham et al., 2001; Ryan & Sagas, 2009; Turner & Chelladurai, 2005; Wells & Welty Peachey, 2011). Welty Peachey et al. (2015) point out that leadership research within the sport management field often has paralleled the management literature using the same principles, theories, and concepts. Additionally, because sport management emerged as an academic discipline in the 1970's, the literature relating to leadership only has begun to take shape (Welty Peachey et al., 2015).

Researchers have indicated that strong organizational climates lead to positive organizational outcomes such as increased job satisfaction, improved organizational commitment, and decreased turnover intentions (Cunningham, 2011a, 2011b). Organizational outcomes have been researched extensively within the business management field and to a lesser extent, among sport scholars. Moreover, organizational outcomes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment frequently have been used to predict turnover intentions (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). Although research relating to turnover intentions has been explored extensively within the business literature, research is lacking in the sports context, specifically relating to leadership (Welty Peachey et al., 2015).

Prior to reviewing the turnover intention literature within the intercollegiate athletic field, an overview and history of intercollegiate athletics will be provided first. The focus will be on the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) because it is the largest governing body in college sport (Hums & MacLean, 2013; Smith, 2000). Second, NCAA divisional differences, financial structure, and current institutional challenges will be discussed to explain the various levels of college sport as well as the challenges that leaders face as a result of the structural differences. Furthermore, the profile of the athletic director position, including career progression and disparities will be explored because the role is the most powerful leadership position in intercollegiate athletics. Following these sections, various aspects of the turnover intentions from the business management literature will be addressed along with research conducted within the sport management field using these business concepts. Within this chapter, the following sections will be included: (a) history of intercollegiate athletics and the NCAA, (b) characteristics of athletic administrators, (c) disparities among athletic administrators, (d) turnover, (e) theoretical framework (f) turnover intentions, (g) professional advancement/upward mobility and turnover intentions, and (h) job satisfaction and turnover intentions. A summary of the review will conclude this chapter.

History of Intercollegiate Athletics and the NCAA

The first intercollegiate athletic event was a crew race between Harvard and Yale in 1852; Elkins Railroad Line commercially sponsored the event, years prior to commercial sponsorship becoming an integral part of intercollegiate athletics. Collegiate sports were initiated and controlled by student-athletes, eventually leading to the formation of the NCAA because of the issues that existed such as pressures to win,

commercialization, and cheating incidences (Smith, 2000). Although the NCAA has been the main governing body for intercollegiate athletics since 1906, faculty members had been attempting to control athletics years prior to its formation (Hums & MacLean, 2013).

Even though faculty had many concerns over student-led athletic programs during the late 1800's, it took many years before faculty gained control. More specifically, the earliest discussions of intercollegiate athletic control among faculty members occurred around the 1870's, with Princeton faculty members forming the first athletics committee in 1881. The following year, Harvard faculty members followed suit with the formation of a faculty-led committee and by the turn of the century, the majority of institutions formed faculty-led committees (Barr, 1999). Even so, many faculty members believed that being involved in intercollegiate athletics was not a valuable use of their time. However, the number of football-related injuries and deaths had become a major focus of student-led activities, even generating the concern of President Theodore Roosevelt (Barr, 1999; Hums & MacLean, 2013). As a result, the combined effort and persistence of several institutions helped form the NCAA in 1906, which, was formerly known as Intercollegiate Athletic Association of the United States (IAAUS) and renamed around 1910. Since that time, the NCAA has been the main governing body of intercollegiate athletics with a goal to provide oversight and regulation of the issues that existed during the early years of intercollegiate athletics (Hums & MacLean, 2013; Smith, 2000).

The issues within intercollegiate sport during the early 1900's continued to exist for several years because of the substantial growth, commercialization, and public interest in college athletics, particularly college football (Smith, 2000). One of the

biggest concerns during that time was the power struggle between university administrators and athletic personnel (Weight & Zullo, 2015). Moreover, university administrators had less control over intercollegiate athletics within their institutions than did athletic personnel.

In the 1950's, the NCAA attempted to enforce greater regulation over college sport. Shortly thereafter, Walter Byers became the first Executive Director who changed the financial and governance landscape of the NCAA. Byers negotiated the first television contract worth more than one million dollars and established the business model that would continue for years to follow. He also coined the term "student-athlete," which he credited to maintaining the amateur aspect of college sport and ensuring that student-athletes did not become employees of the institution (Byers & Hammer, 1995). Since that time, the NCAA has continued enforcing regulations and has solidified its role in the governance of intercollegiate athletics (Smith, 2000).

Structure of NCAA. In 1973, the NCAA created separate athletic divisions to provide better structure relative to an institution's desired level of competition. Three divisions (Divisions I, II, and III) were formed to support the different levels and structure that is still in place today (About the NCAA, n.d.). Division I became the revenue-producing model with the ability of institutions to offer full athletic scholarships to student-athletes. Division II institutions offer partial athletic scholarships, whereas Division III institutions offer no athletic scholarships at all (Bass, Schaeperkoetter, & Bunds, 2015). The creation of separate divisions was, in part, due to the criticism of the NCAA enforcing its authority over member institutions (Smith, 2000).

In the late 1990's, Division I institutions were restructured further to account for the various degrees of institutional revenue generation. To be more precise, the restructuring was based on football programs and was subdivided further into the following categories: (a) Division I-A, now Football Bowl Subdivision (FBS), (b) Division I-AA, now Football Championship Subdivision (FCS), and (c) Division I-AAA, No Football Subdivision (NFS). As of September 2015, there were 346 Division I institutions: 128 FBS, 124 FCS, and 94 NFS (Bass et al., 2015).

With 346 member institutions ("Composition," 2015), Division I is the most competitive of the three divisions, has the largest athletic budgets, and offers the highest number of athletic scholarships (Bass et al., 2015). The larger athletic budgets are mainly the result of larger fan bases and television rights contracts. An important financial point relating to Division I intercollegiate athletics is that the majority of the NCAA's revenue comes from Division I television-broadcasting rights for the men's basketball tournament known as March Madness (Bass et al., 2015).

Division II has 307 member institutions and is differentiated by the scholarship model that its member institutions follow ("Composition," 2015). For example, Division II institutions have the option of granting partial scholarships to student-athletes, whereas at the Division I level, student-athletes either receive full scholarships or no scholarship at all, as previously mentioned. From a financial standpoint, Division II programs typically have lower operating costs because of lower tickets sales and typically operate without television contracts. Division II institutions also are known for balancing their priorities with academic success.

Lastly, Division III has the largest number of member institutions, with 439, but is the least competitive of the three divisions. Division III programs do not provide athletic scholarships and focus more so on academic progress (“Composition,” 2015). Division III programs also are known for integrating student-athletes into the general student population (Bass et al., 2015).

Big-business of intercollegiate athletics. According to a USA Today report (Berkowitz, 2014), the NCAA had net assets of \$627 million in 2013, primarily held within unrestricted endowment funds. The total revenue for the same fiscal year was \$913 million, with approximately \$852 million in expenses. Of the total 2013 revenue reported, \$681 million was from multimedia and marketing rights agreement with CBS and Turner Broadcasting—most of which is generated from the NCAA Division I men’s basketball tournament (i.e., March Madness), which, as previously stated, is NCAA’s primary revenue source. Of the NCAA’s 2013 total revenue, approximately \$527.4 million was distributed among NCAA Division I institutions and conferences (Berkowitz, 2014).

In April 2016, the NCAA announced an 8-year extension to their existing contract with CBS and Turner Broadcasting for an additional \$8.8 billion, extending the contract until 2032 (“Turner,” 2016). The original contract was negotiated in 2010 for a total of \$10.8 billion for a 14-year period or until 2024. The NCAA maintains that contract accounts for 90% of generated revenue that is used for the association and member schools (“Turner,” 2016).

Among the three NCAA Divisions, Division I accounts for the greatest amount of revenues and expenditures (Fulks, 2014a, 2014b, 2014c). The primary sources of

generated revenue for Division I institutions were in the form of ticket sales, broadcast agreements, sponsorship, and fundraising (Fulks, 2014a). However, a common trend among Division I institutions was that expenses continued to outpace generated revenue growth (Brown, 2013; Burnsed, 2014). In fact, among all three subdivisions within Divisions I, expenses have exceeded revenue growth since 2004 (Fulks, 2014a).

Moreover, from 2004 to 2013, median generated revenues for FBS, FCS, and NFS institutions grew by 83.2%, 82.5%, and 62.5%, respectively (Burnsed, 2014). Over the same time period, expenses at FBS, FCS, and NFS institutions grew by 114.6%, 88.4%, and 95.5%, respectively. Of all NCAA Division I institutions, only 20 FBS athletic programs had revenues that exceeded the reported median expenses in the 2013 fiscal year (Burnsed, 2014; Fulks, 2014a, 2014b, 2014c). Division I institutions required a larger percentage of institutional funds because athletic budgets grew more quickly than did institutional budgets (Burnsed, 2014). Bass et al. (2015) also argue that the gap between revenues and expenditures has resulted in athletic programs requiring more institutional financial support. If the trend continues, Burnsed (2014) suggested that athletic programs would need to justify the increased spending that is requiring larger portions of institutional budgets. Refer to Table 3 for an overview of the net operating results for 2013 and increases to financial revenue and expenses from 2004 to 2013 for NCAA Division I institutions.

Table 3

NCAA Division I Intercollegiate Athletics Programs Net Operating Results by Subdivision

Subdivision (<i>N</i> = 345)	Number of Institutions	2013 Net-Generated Revenue	% Increase from 2004 to 2013	
			Revenues ^a	Expenses
FBS	120	(\$11,623,000)	83.2	114.6
FCS	124	(\$10,833,000)	82.5	88.4
NFS	101	(\$10,724,000)	62.5	95.5

Note. Data were obtained from NCAA Financial Reporting from 2004 to 2013 (Fulks, 2014a).

^aUsing the median generated revenue reported.

As expenditures have exceeded growth, the reliance has shifted to fundraising efforts and subsidies in the form of student athletic fees (Bass et al., 2015). An example of the reliance on student athletic fees is the University of New Orleans (UNO) who reclassified their athletic program from Division I to Division III in the years following Hurricane Katrina. Moreover, UNO enrollment dropped substantially (7,000 students) to the point that the institution could no longer sustain the operating costs without the student-athletic fee subsidy (Bass et al., 2015).

The financial trends are changing the dynamics of Division I FBS athletic programs and the skills required to manage them (Brown, 2013; Wong, 2014). Moreover, athletic directors leading these programs are now required to manage multi-million-dollar budgets (Wong et al., 2015). As a result, a trend over the last 20 years within Division I FBS programs is to hire athletic directors with more business-related experience (Wong et al., 2015).

Title IX. A financial discussion about intercollegiate athletics, specifically the NCAA, would be incomplete without an understanding of Title IX legislation. Title IX is a federal law that is part of the Educational Amendments of 1972; the law prohibits discrimination based on sex for any federally funded educational program or activity. In other words, the objective of the law was to ensure that federal funds were not used within programs or activities that discriminated on the basis of sex. The law specifically states, “No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance” (“Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972,” 2015, para 1).

Within sports, Title IX is best known for dramatically increasing participation rates for girls and women (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014). In the context of intercollegiate athletics, Title IX is known for being a complex and controversial topic particularly as it relates to college football programs. At the time of enactment, athletic administrators believed that Title IX had the potential to have negative effects on revenue generation sports programs because of the increased financial costs to administer women's programs (Bass et al., 2015).

Even though Title IX was enacted in 1972, it was not until 1978 that institutions actually had to comply with the law. Moreover, it took 6 years before institutions were held to compliance standards because of discussions that took place immediately following the grace period before the law was enforced (Bass et al., 2015). Coincidentally, the NCAA did not govern women's sports during the early years of Title IX, and it was not until 1981 before women were included in the NCAA bylaws at all. In fact, women's programs were governed by the Association of Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW) until 1982 and continued to receive funding for women's programs under that governing body. Even though the NCAA was not directly focused on Title IX during this time period, athletic departments continued to focus on revenue generation and turned their efforts towards fundraising, which is still a main source of revenue today (Bass et al., 2015).

The reason that these points are important is because critics of Title IX have argued that women's programs require administrators to cut men's non-revenue producing programs in order to be compliant with Title IX. Bass et al. (2015) demonstrate that funding issues and commercialization have existed long before Title IX

and before the NCAA incorporated women's programs into bylaws. Even 45 years after its enactment, Title IX continues to be a controversial topic among athletic administrators, scholars, and sport enthusiasts specifically as it relates to funding issues.

Challenges for the future. Although funding issues and commercialization have been concerns since the beginning of intercollegiate athletics, recent court cases have strained the financial model of the NCAA further (Bass et al., 2015). For example, the *O'Bannon v. NCAA* (2013) court ruling has led to changes that have financial implications on the NCAA and its member institutions. Moreover, the court ruling impacted two forms of compensation for student-athletes: scholarships and the use of names and likeness. More importantly, Judge Wilkins rejected the NCAA's argument that preserving amateurism prevents student-athletes from being compensated—representing the first time in history that a court has rejected the NCAA's position on amateurism and compensation. The outcome of this court case could set a precedent for other court cases regarding compensation for student-athletes against the NCAA.

The first court holding in the *O'Bannon v. NCAA* (2013) case granted student-athletes the ability to be compensated for their use of names and likeness by placing money in a trust to be held after eligibility expires, a decision that has been appealed by the NCAA (Bass et al., 2015). The second court holding impacted compensation in the form of scholarships that resulted in scholarship cap changes by the NCAA. The former cap was equal to grant-in-aid whereas the new cap could cover the full cost of attendance, amounting to an additional \$2,000-\$5,000 per student-athlete. In 2015, the NCAA granted approval for Division I institutions to increase the amount of scholarship to account for this outcome. The *O'Bannon v. NCAA* (2013) case could potentially be the

grounds for more changes to follow and these changes would impact the financial model of the NCAA and member institutions (Wong et al., 2015).

According to the USA Today, the NCAA spent \$25 million on outside legal fees for the 2015 fiscal year, more than double the costs from the year prior (Berkowitz, 2016). The legal expenses were more than the \$6.7 million originally budgeted for the 2015 fiscal year, and although the 2016 fiscal year has not yet been reported, a similar trend has ensued (Berkowitz, 2016). An NCAA representative stated that the 2017 allocation for legal fees would be substantially higher than previous years as a result of this trend (Berkowitz, 2016).

Wong et al. (2015) stated that athletic directors must be able to anticipate future changes related to legal ramifications of these court cases and impacts to their institutions. Institutions that have planned for future changes likely will be in better positions to manage the future financial changes (Wong et al., 2015). Additionally, revenues for NCAA Division I FBS institutions have increased by 37% since 2008 and 50% for expenditures (Wong et al., 2015). Division I FBS institutions operate more like a business than does any other department within higher education because of dependence on corporate sponsors, ticket sales, and television broadcast rights (Bass et al., 2015). Considering the financial and legal landscape of these institutions, it is not surprising that the percentage of athletic directors with business experience has increased over the last 20 years (Wong et al., 2015). Because of these changes, the profile and characteristics of athletic directors will be explored further.

Characteristics of Athletic Administrators

Career path. A few researchers have studied the career patterns of athletic directors since the 1970's (Fitzgerald, Sagaria, & Nelson, 1994; Quarterman, 1992; Wong et al., 2015). At one point in college athletics, the route to administrative responsibility within sport required being a part of the coaching network (Cuneen, 1992). Moreover, researchers have indicated that the athletic director's career evolved in a common and sequential manner involving a five-step progression: (a) student-athlete, (b) high school coach, (c) college coach, (d) assistant or associate athletic director, and (e) athletic director (Fitzgerald et al., 1994). In fact, Fitzgerald et al. (1994) discovered that 95.4% of athletic directors had career experience that traced the five-step progression pattern (Fitzgerald et al., 1994).

More recently, Wong et al. (2015) evaluated the athletic director position across Division I FBS institutions over a 20-year period. In order to identify trends, the researchers analyzed data for 3 academic years: 1989-1990, 1999-2000, and 2013-2014. Wong et al. (2015) discovered that the route to the athletic director position could have various career paths and the five-step progression pattern is no longer the primary track (Wong et al., 2015; Wong & Matt, 2014).

In the 2013-2014 academic year, 57% of athletic directors at Division I FBS institutions were former intercollegiate athletes compared to 88% in the 1989-1990 academic year (Wong et al., 2015). In an earlier comparison, Quarterman (1992) revealed that 76.3% of athletic directors were former intercollegiate athletes at historically black colleges and universities, whereas Fitzgerald et al. (1994) reported that 80% of athletic directors across all three divisions were former college athletes. In fact,

Fitzgerald et al. (1994) stated that being a former college athlete was the most common experience among athletic directors across all three NCAA Divisions. Wong et al. (2015) argue that the declining trend in hiring athletic directors who were former college athletes is indicative of the focus on more business-related experience in recent years.

Additionally, athletic directors with previous athletic coaching experience also have declined within Division I FBS institutions. Wong et al. (2015) reported a decrease in athletic directors with previous head coaching experience from 63% in the 1989-1990 academic year to 20% in the 2013-2014 academic year. However, most notable was the change in previous business experience among Division I FBS athletic directors, which increased from 36% in the 1989-1990 academic year to 93% in 2013-2014 academic year, or a 140% increase since the 1989-1990 academic year (Wong et al., 2015). A possible explanation is that athletic directors within NCAA Division I FBS institutions have been required to manage financial budgets that have grown since 2004 (Burnsed, 2014; Fulks, 2014a).

Demographic characteristics. According to Wong and Matt (2014), the average age of a NCAA Division I athletic director is 52.2 years old. However, the average age at the time of hire was 45.3 years old and average length of time in their position was 6.78 years. In comparison, the average length of time of a Division III athletic director in their positions was 8.92 years. This finding led the researchers to suggest that Division I athletic directors have a higher turnover rate than do Division III athletic directors (Wong & Matt, 2014).

With respect to race, 83% of all Division I athletic directors were White, 14% African-American, 2% Hispanic, and 1% Asian. Quite surprisingly, Division III

programs were racially less diverse, with African Americans representing only 5% of athletic directors at that level (Wong & Matt, 2014). In comparing the racial differences between the 1989-1990 and 2013-2014 academic years, the number of White athletic directors dropped from 95% to 80% respectively, a slight improvement, with African Americans representing the minority group with the greatest improvement or 13.5% of all athletic directors at that level (Wong & Matt, 2014). These findings support the longitudinal research documenting the lack of racial diversity among athletic directors within intercollegiate athletics (Lapchick, 2016).

From a gender perspective, only 9% of athletic directors were women across all Division I level institutions, compared to 29% at the Division III level (Wong & Matt, 2014). At the Division I FBS level, representation of women dropped to 6.4% (Wong, 2014). Put another way, there has been a slight gender improvement in the last few decades: men represented 99% of all athletic directors at Division I institutions during the 1989-1990 academic year, which decreased slightly to 90% during the 2013-2014 academic year (Wong et al., 2015). Acosta and Carpenter (2014) have documented the underrepresentation of women in athletic director positions since the advent of Title IX. However, Wong and Matt (2014) indicate that the gender disparity has been stable since 2010.

Educational characteristics. In 1992, Cuneen indicated that doctoral degrees could soon be a prerequisite for obtaining an athletic director position within colleges and universities. According to Hatfield, Wrenn, and Bretting (1987), 71.9% of Division I FBS athletic directors indicated that they held graduate degrees, with 19.3% holding doctoral degrees. During the 1989-1990 academic year, Wong et al. (2015) reported that

23% of Division I athletic directors held graduate degrees and 5% held doctoral degrees. In examining the differences reported between the two studies, Hatfield et al. (1987) examined characteristics across a smaller sample size ($n = 58$) of athletic directors within Division I FBS programs, whereas Wong et al. (2015) analyzed the characteristics for the entire population of athletic directors (Division I FBS).

The most recent educational profile examined was during the 2013-2014 academic year wherein researchers reported that 280 or 80% of Division I athletic directors held graduate degrees and 39 or 11% held doctoral degrees (Wong, 2014; Wong et al., 2015). The overall trend of the rise in attaining educational degrees is consistent to that of the general population (Wong et al., 2015). However, there has been a lack of research documenting the educational profiles of athletic directors and their business backgrounds until Wong et al.'s (2015) report. Reporting trend changes in the future will now be possible because Wong et al. (2015) have provided the educational profiles within their recent study.

Professional characteristics. Wong and Matt (2014) suggested that there are multiple paths to the athletic director position, which has changed since the five-step normative process previously reported by Fitzgerald et al. (1994). As previously mentioned, because of the revenue generation of Division I institutions, athletics directors have greater job responsibilities in areas of managing television contracts, sponsorship and marketing contracts, and ticket sales (Wong & Matt, 2014). Wong and Matt (2014) provided different career paths that were identified via their research study. Although not exhaustive, these tracks comprised: (a) head coach, (b) athletic administration, (c) sport

management education, (d) business experience, (e) sports industry, and (f) college student-athlete.

A head coaching position was previously a common experience for the athletic director role (Cuneen, 1992); however, recently, researchers revealed that only 22% of athletic directors previously held head coaching positions (Wong & Matt, 2014). With respect to previous athletic director experience, Wong and Matt (2014) revealed that 39% of Division I athletic directors previously held the same positions at another institution. In terms of educational degree area of study, many athletic directors obtained degrees in the area of sport management; at the Division I level, 40% of athletic directors have an advanced degree in this area compared to 20% at the Division III level. Athletic directors who have advanced degrees related to the education field (e.g., educational administration) include 32% at the Division I level and 34% at the Division III level.

As revenue generation becomes more of a priority, more Division I programs will hire athletic directors outside the higher education sector (Wong et al., 2015; Wong & Matt, 2014). More specifically, during the 2013-2014 academic year, 10% of athletic directors were hired outside of intercollegiate athletics with external business experience (Wong et al., 2015; Wong & Matt, 2014). Additionally, 82% or 287 of the 351 athletic directors at the Division I level have previous business experiences, which includes experiences external and internal to intercollegiate athletics (Wong, 2014). The most common business experiences of these athletic directors were in areas of fundraising (20%), operations (15%), marketing (11%), finance (11%), and compliance (8%) (Wong, 2014).

Disparities Among Athletic Administrators

Gender disparities. Across all three NCAA Divisions, women represented 36.2% of all intercollegiate athletic administrative positions (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014). For the athletic director position, women represented 22.3% across all three divisions, 10.6% at the Division I level, and only 6.3% at the Division I FBS level. Prior to Title IX, women held more than 90% of all intercollegiate coaching and athletic administrative positions for women's sports because of the way these programs were governed (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014).

Women have been underrepresented within intercollegiate athletic administration since Title IX was passed in 1972 and more so in positions of power (e.g., Burton, Barr, Fink, & Bruening, 2009; Burton, Grappendorf, & Henderson, 2011; Mullane & Whisenant, 2007; Regan & Cunningham, 2012; Sander, 2011; Whisenant, 2008; Whisenant, Pedersen, & Clavio, 2010; Whisenant, Vincent, Pedersen, & Zapalac, 2007). A large amount of data has been collected by way of longitudinal studies, documenting the underrepresentation of women within intercollegiate athletic administration, especially with respect to the athletic director position (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014). There are two compelling longitudinal reports that have captured the gender-related trends. The first report provides data pertaining to gender called "Women in Intercollegiate Sport" (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014) and the second report provides data pertaining to both gender and race called "The Racial and Gender Report Card" (Lapchick, 2016).

Reasons why women have been underrepresented are unclear but Hoffman (2011) indicated that men have had greater access to senior roles than have women, and women

have been at a disadvantage in obtaining athletic director positions. Researchers have explored aspects of the field including theories that explain the underrepresentation (Mullane & Whisenant, 2007; Regan & Cunningham, 2012), barriers that women face within the workplace (Schull, Shaw, & Kihl, 2013), hiring policies and practices that contribute to the problem (Burton & Hagan, 2009; Harrison, Lapchick, & Janson, 2009), and the *good old boys network* (Grappendorf et al., 2007); the list is not exhaustive. Despite the continued research that contributes to scholarly works in the area of athletic administration, the underrepresentation continues to exist.

Women have indicated that they are less likely to apply for athletic director positions because they have been used as *token* applicants for the purpose of complying with equal opportunity policies that obligate the interview of at least one woman for the position (Hoffman, 2011). Women also might be less likely to succeed in an environment where gender inequity exists and the lack of diversity leads to decreased job satisfaction (Robinson, Tedrick, & Carpenter, 2001). One issue associated with the underrepresentation of women has been the lack of role models, which negatively affects the perception of opportunities that might be available to women and, in turn, decreases the supply of women applying for positions (Shaw & Frisby, 2006).

Ethnic or racial disparities. According to Lapchick (2016), college sport received a 'B' rating for hiring practices related to race within the most recent Racial and Gender Report Card. Within this report, Lapchick (2016) mentions an improvement in hiring people of color for head coaching positions within Division I institutions, specifically for football and men's and women's basketball programs. Although improvements have been reported with regards to hiring Black coaches, lack of

opportunities are still a concern within college sport across all divisions. For example, White coaches within Divisions I, II, and III hold the majority of head coaching positions, or 87.1%, 88.8%, and 91.6%, respectively.

At the athletic director level, White individuals held the majority of positions during the 2014-2015 academic year across all three divisions, or 87.5%, 91.2%, and 94.3%, respectively. Within Division I FBS institutions, the number of Black athletic directors declined slightly from 21 in 2014 to 17 in 2015, with no women of color being represented at all (Lapchick, 2016). A similar trend was reported at the associate athletic director levels, at 87%, 90.1%, and 94.8% for Division I, II, and III levels, respectively. Latinos and Asians had even less representation among all positions across all divisions (Lapchick, 2016).

In comparison to administrative positions, male and female Black student-athletes represented 17% and 9.1%, respectively, of the total population across all three divisions during the 2014-2015 academic year (Lapchick, 2016). For a racial demographic distribution comparison, Black and White Americans represent 13.3% and 77.1%, respectively, and Hispanics or Latinos represent 17.6% of the total U.S. population ("Quick Facts," 2015). Hispanics are even less represented within intercollegiate athletic both at the administrator and student-athlete levels (Lapchick, 2016). For example, 2.4% of athletic directors and 1.8% of associate athletics directors across all three divisions were Hispanic and 5.4% of student-athletes were male and 4.9% were female (Lapchick, 2016).

Several researchers have examined the lack of diversity and its effects within the intercollegiate athletic administration field but more so from a gender perspective than

from a race perspective (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014; Cunningham & Sagas, 2004a, 2004b; Cunningham et al., 2001; Fink et al., 2001; Lapchick, 2016; Quarterman, 1992). In their review of leadership in the sport management field over the last 40 years, Welty Peachey et al. (2015) claimed that research was lacking that examined leadership and race.

Researchers who have focused on race have done so on intercollegiate athletic coaches (Cunningham, 2008, 2010; Cunningham & Sagas 2004a, 2004b). For example, Cunningham (2010) prepared a multilevel framework to help understand the underrepresentation of African American head coaches within college athletics. Because of the lack of research, Welty Peachey et al. (2015) suggest that more research is needed that examines the influences of race on leadership practices.

Turnover

Turnover intention has been regarded as being the best predictor of actual turnover (Hom, Caranikas-Walker, Prussia, & Griffeth, 1992; Tett & Meyer, 1993). In fact, Griffeth et al. (2000) indicated that turnover intention has the strongest predictive power of actual turnover. Barak, Nissly, and Levin (2001) explained that the rationale for using turnover intentions instead of actual turnover to predict turnover is two-fold. First, the decision to leave an organization is made prior to leaving and involves a deliberate and conscious thought process. Second, measuring actual turnover can be complicated whereas asking employees about their intentions to leave is a more practical method of assessing turnover behavior. Therefore, turnover intentions will be used within this study and will be the focus of the literature for the remainder of this section.

Turnover intentions have been the focus of researchers for several years (e.g., Allen et al., 2014; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Holtom et al., 2008; Hom et al., 2008), mainly

because of the high costs associated with employee attrition (Hinkin & Tracey, 2000; Holtom et al., 2008). Much of the research has been conducted within the United States in the management field (Allen et al., 2014). Bothma and Roodt (2013) noted that the phrase *organizational turnover intention* lacks a consistent definition within the current literature. According to Tett and Meyer (1993), organizational turnover intentions are “the conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave the organization” (p. 262). Within the intercollegiate athletic literature, Cunningham and Sagas (2004b) defined occupational turnover “as one's plan, desire, and intent to leave his or her profession” (p. 238). For the purpose of this study, both definitions will be considered because turnover intentions include both intraorganizational and interorganizational changes.

A constant comparison analysis approach was adopted in reviewing the turnover intention literature for this section (Onwuegbuzie, Leech, & Collins, 2012). More specifically, when reviewing relevant literature, studies were coded, categorized, and organized into themes; using this approach, five prevalent themes emerged that pertain to the present study. First, as previously mentioned, several scholars have indicated that the majority (84%) of research has been conducted within the United States, mainly because of the high turnover rate environment (Allen et al., 2014; Holtom et al., 2008).

Comparatively, much of the research in sport has been conducted within the interscholastic or intercollegiate athletic field in the United States (Cunningham & Sagas, 2008) and turnover intentions specifically within intercollegiate athletics. The lack of research in other domains is a limitation for both business and sport research within the current literature.

Second, turnover rates vary by industry and organizational type (Holtom et al., 2008; U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2016). This point is important because organizational culture has different effects on organizations and their environments (MacIntosh & Doherty, 2010). Additionally, turnover rates within intercollegiate athletics rarely have been documented (Ryan & Sagas, 2009), thereby supporting the need to conduct industry-specific research relating to turnover intentions.

Third, prior to 1985, researchers focused on individual characteristics (e.g., ability, job satisfaction); between 1985 and 1995, the focus shifted towards understanding variables external to the individual (e.g., group cohesion, organization culture). Since 1995, researchers have advanced theoretical concepts, but a cohesive view of the turnover process is still lacking among scholars (Holtom et al., 2008). Within the context of intercollegiate athletic administration, much of the research pertaining to turnover intentions has been conducted within the last 15 years; however, research examining advancements of the turnover intention research still is lacking, especially related to administrators. See Table 4 for a list of turnover studies within this field.

Table 4

Turnover Intention Variables Examined Within Intercollegiate Athletic Research

Year	Authors	Population	Constructs/variables examined
2014	Welty Peachey, Burton, & Wells	Senior Intercollegiate Athletic Administrators (All NCAA Divisions)	Transformational leadership Organizational commitment Job embeddedness Job search behaviors Organizational turnover intentions
2014	Wells, Welty Peachey, & Walker	NCAA Div. I assistant coaches (BB, SB, VB)	Leadership behaviors and perceived leader effectiveness Organizational turnover intentions
2011	Wells & Welty Peachey	NCAA Div. I assistant coaches (softball & volleyball)	Leadership behaviors (transformational, transactional, satisfaction with the leader) Satisfaction with pay Organizational turnover intentions
2009	Ryan & Sagas	NCAA Divisions (all) head coaches	Satisfaction with pay Work-family conflict (WFC) Occupational turnover intentions
2006	Cunningham	10 NCAA Div. IA athletic departments (excluding coaches and AD)	Coping with change Commitment to change Organizational turnover intentions

(continued)

Year	Authors	Population	Constructs/variables examined
2006	Turner & Jordan	NCAA Div. I & III head coaches	Organizational commitment Organizational turnover intentions Satisfaction Objective performance
2005	Turner & Chelladurai	NCAA Div, I & III head coaches (excluding track and field)	Organizational commitment Occupational commitment Occupational and organizational intentions to leave Performance
2005	Cunningham, Fink, & Sagas	NCAA Div, I Softball coaches and Div IA athletic department employees	Job embeddedness Job satisfaction Organizational commitment Job alternatives Job search Organizational stay intentions
2004a	Cunningham & Sagas	NCAA Div I Asst. coaches for men's BB	Ethnic dissimilarity Value dissimilarity Job satisfaction Organizational turnover intent
2004b	Cunningham & Sagas	NCAA Div IA Football coaches	Occupational commitment Occupational turnover intent

(continued)

Year	Authors	Population	Constructs/variables examined
2003	Cunningham & Sagas	NCAA Div I Asst. Coaches of Women's teams	Occupational turnover intent
2001	Cunningham, Sagas, & Ashley	NCAA Div I Asst. coaches' BB (men only)	Isomorphic pressures Professional socialization of coaches Affective occupational commitment of coaches Occupational turnover intent
2001	Sagas & Batista	NCAA all Divisions coaches of women's teams	Job satisfaction Occupational turnover intention Perceived Title IX compliance

Fourth, turnover intention research lacks rigor related to research design (Allen et al., 2014). For example, the majority of studies are conducted using quantitative research designs only or one-item scales to measure turnover intent. Within the intercollegiate athletic field, Cunningham and Sagas (2008) indicated that research lacks a multilevel approach or from the institutional, organizational, and individual levels. This point applies to turnover intention research as well.

Fifth, the lack of diversity continues to play a role in understanding the turnover process, specifically related to ethnicity or race (Allen et al., 2014; Hom et al., 2008; McKay et al., 2007) and gender (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Elvira & Cohen, 2001; Holtom et al., 2008; Peltokorpi et al., 2015) where differences continue to be reported within past and present literature. With respect to occupational turnover intentions research, Cunningham and Sagas (2004b) indicated that the sport field lacks diversity-related literature examining organizational outcomes. This trend is consistent within intercollegiate athletics research as well (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014).

The themes mentioned here represent topics relevant to the sport management literature, a list of other key contributions to turnover literature is provided in Table 5. All of the themes mentioned are important to the progression of turnover research; however, the focus of this literature review will be on the work-related variables or constructs that are internal to the organization (e.g., job satisfaction) and the diversity-related findings (i.e., ethnicity or race and gender). Additionally, both the management and athletic administration literature will be reviewed within the following sections: (a) theoretical framework, (b) turnover intentions, (c) professional advancement/upward mobility, (d) job satisfaction, and (d) summary of turnover research.

Table 5

Key Contributions to Organizational Turnover Research in Chronological Order

Date	Authors	Contribution to turnover literature
1977	Mobley	Turnover models focus on what happens after one has experiences job dissatisfaction.
1986	Cotton & Tuttle	Research focusing on individual demographics. Meta-analysis showed women have higher turnover rates; gender appears to be a better predictor of turnover for the professional jobs.
2000	Hinkin & Tracey	Analysis of costs of turnover; estimates of losses varies from a few thousand dollars to more than two times the person’s salary depending on the industry and other factors.
2002	Steel, Griffeth, & Hom	Decisions to stay or leave a workplace have different motives but these decisions can have overlapping rationale.
2005	McKay and Avery	Diversity recruitment initiatives could backfire if positive diversity climates are not fulfilled, thereby leading to higher turnover rates for minorities. Minority job applicants that are subsequently hired may believe that the recruitment tactics used to entice them were misleading if actual work-place diversity climates are unfavorable (p. 330).
2008	Hom, Roberson, & Ellis	Although turnover is most likely for all employees during initial employment, African Americans are especially at risk during this time (p. 29).

(continued)

Date	Authors	Contribution to turnover literature
2008	Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, & Eberly	<p>To date, bulk of research has taken place in Western contexts in relatively high-turnover environments.</p> <p>Turnover research prior to 1985 focused on individual-level of analysis. Focuses on other variables external to the individual between 1985 and 1995. Research from 1995 to 2008 experienced considerable theoretical expansion but lack a unified view of the turnover process</p>
2008	Zimmerman	<p>Research focus on traits; meta-analysis shows that personality traits do have an impact on turnover intentions (p. 309).</p>
2009	Steel & Lounsbury	<p>Systematic review of turnover process models.</p> <p>Job satisfaction construct has been a core mechanism of turnover theory.</p> <p>Turnover models constructs routinely are based on the same three mechanisms: attitudinal variables (i.e., job satisfaction), job-search (i.e., market-based), and turnover intentions (i.e., stay/quit intentions) (p. 275).</p> <p>Intraorganization mobility is an emerging construct in turnover research process models because they provide internal options for job satisfaction without leaving the organization.</p>
2009	Felps et al.	<p>Traditional models of turnover leave significant variance unexplained.</p>
2011	Swider, Boswell, & Zimmerman	<p>There may be a number of factors interacting to influence employees' turnover decisions (p. 432).</p>

(continued)

Date	Authors	Contribution to turnover literature
2014	Allen, Hancock, Vardaman, & McKee	<p>A review revealed that 84% of turnover research in last 50 years has been conducted on U.S. samples.</p> <p>Turnover research has mainly focused on occupational homogenous samples, supporting the need for understanding diversity related-implications within the turnover process.</p> <p>Review of more than 50 years of turnover research revealed that “the modal turnover study conducted with a 33-year old college educated Caucasians working full time in the United States” (S81).</p>
2015	Peltokorpi, Allen, & Froese	<p>Gender matters and can be used for predicting voluntary turnover; demographic information still predictive of turnover intent.</p>

Theoretical Framework

Within the business literature, researchers have explored social identity theory (SIT) in the context of understanding organizational behavior, especially turnover intentions (Van Dick et al., 2004). In its early form, SIT was formulated to help understand intergroup conflict and discrimination (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). According to Van Dick et al. (2004), the theory has powerful implications in understanding individual behaviors relating to organizational contexts such as performance and turnover intention behaviors. The tenets of social identity theory posit that individual behaviors are influenced by social group norms and values within the organizations in which one works. In other words, an individual's identity can be influenced or shaped by organizational group behaviors (Tajfel & Turner, 1986).

In understanding how an individual's identity is influenced by organizational behavior, it's important to understand that the theory postulates that self-identification is partially determined by group membership, thereby leading to a form of social identity (Van Dick, 2004). Van Dick (2004) explains that individuals achieve a position of social identity by associating themselves with in-group members. This explanation was supported by researchers who discovered that individuals were more likely to reward members of their own group (i.e., in-group) than to out-group members, leading to in-group bias (Tajfel, Billig, Bundy, & Flament, 1971).

Self-categorization theory (SCT) was developed approximately 10 years following SIT but is closely related. SCT focuses on the categorization processes that occur between individual and social identities. The notion of SCT is that individual and social identity function on a continuum with various levels between them; put another

way, SCT incorporates multiple dimensions of identity (Turner et al., 1987). The extension of this theory can help explain further how an individual's identity can influence social identity within organizational settings. For example, if an individual identifies with in-group members within an organization, the social identity of the individual can become more salient than the individual identity in that setting. Should this occur, an individual's attitudes and behaviors are influenced more by group membership than by individual identity; the benefits to the organization can result in greater organizational outcomes such as increased job satisfaction and lower turnover rates (Van Dick, 2004).

It's important to understand how individuals perceive themselves within organizational settings and how those perceptions can influence organizational behaviors and work-related variables. In the context of SIT and SCT, identification with in-group members can affect commitment to the organization; therefore, should be explored further within various settings. Van Dick (2004) suggested that organizational identification is a good predictor of turnover intentions and tenure and, therefore, will be used a theoretical framework in exploring other work-related variables within the present study. Cunningham and Sagas (2004a, 2004b) have used these frameworks to examine relationships between diversity-related differences and work outcomes within the intercollegiate athletic settings. Because perceptions of identity are based on physical differences, aspects of diversity will be discussed throughout this chapter.

Turnover Intentions

Reviews of turnover research theories (Allen et al., 2014; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Holtom et al., 2008; Griffeth et al., 2000) and models (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009) are

indicative of the extant literature relating to the employment construct. Since the 1950s, researchers have been focusing on the reasons why employees leave organizations (see Brayfield & Crockett, 1955). For example, Allen et al. (2014) conducted a content analysis consisting of 447 empirical turnover studies over the last 50 years and examined both methods and theories pertaining to turnover literature to reveal the analytic mindset that has been established by scholars and provide recommendations for future research. Additionally, Steel and Lounsbury (2009) conducted a systematic review of the conceptual literature examining process models of turnover research. These researchers indicated that at one point in history, there were more turnover models than there were job satisfaction studies. However, job satisfaction has been a core variable within turnover intention research for decades, so much so, that job satisfaction and turnover intentions almost have become synonymous (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009).

Several researchers have indicated that occupational variables such as upward mobility, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction are related to turnover intentions (Blau, 2000; Lee, Carswell, & Allen, 2000; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). As such, turnover models routinely have been constructed with three types of constructs: attitudinal- (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment), behavioral- (e.g., quit/stay intentions), and job-search-related variables (e.g., market or employee driven) (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). In 1984, Steel and Ovalle conducted a meta-analysis of turnover literature and claimed that behavioral variables were more predictive of turnover intentions than were attitudinal variables, and perhaps were the best indicators of turnover intent. Furthermore, Steel and Lounsbury (2009) explained that constructs relating to attitudes have become important within turnover theory because of the link

between organizational attitude characteristics (e.g., organizational commitment) and turnover behavior. However, Griffeth et al. (2000) stated that attachment variables only explain approximately 5% of the variance in predicting turnover intentions.

Notwithstanding the advancements within the turnover literature, many researchers have agreed that no singular model is complete or captures every variable that contributes to the turnover process (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009; Swider, Boswell, & Zimmerman, 2011). Indeed, Swider et al. (2011) stated that a number of factors might interact together to influence the decision to leave an organization. Adding to this point, Felps et al. (2009) indicated that traditional turnover models leave significant variables unexplained.

Most turnover models have focused on what happens after the employee experiences workplace dissatisfaction and decides to leave (Mobley, 1977). Understanding reasons why people leave are certainly helpful in developing retention strategies; however, Steel and Lounsbury (2009) asked an important question, namely: Should scholars be considering why people stay? Steel, Griffeth, and Hom (2002) suggested that reasons for staying and leaving an organization are made separately but might have common and overlapping characteristics. If that is the case, then researchers have assumed that the reasons for staying and leaving are opposite and unrelated in nature. However, if researchers have assumed incorrectly, then scholars could be missing other important criteria within the turnover process.

Turnover intentions and gender. Schwartz (1989) was one of the first researchers to identify a gender difference among top-performers in *corporate America*, revealing that women had a two-and-a-half times higher turnover rates than did men.

Furthermore, a meta-analysis revealed that gender was a better predictor of turnover intent for professionals than for nonprofessionals (e.g., nonmanagerial roles; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). Similarly, in their investigation of 20 large corporations within the United States, Hom et al. (2008) found that women were more likely to quit than were men. Within a more recent study, researchers revealed that gender helped explain the relationship between job embeddedness and turnover intentions in that women had a weaker relationship than did men (Peltokorpi et al., 2015). Peltokorpi et al. (2015) stated that gender does matter as a demographic characteristic in that it helps explain the relationship between job embeddedness and turnover intentions.

Hom et al. (2008) contended that women who were unrepresented and who were demographically different than their coworkers in their respective business areas were more likely to quit. This finding supports the importance of understanding how the ratio of men-to-women within a business unit affects turnover intent (Elvira & Cohen, 2001). Moreover, because women were perceived as being less aggressive than were men, they were also less likely to be promoted into management positions (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Even further, several researchers have indicated that women often were used as *token* applicants for higher level management positions and faced greater discrimination (e.g., prejudice, social isolation, sexual harassment), which led to social isolation and higher turnover (Dovidio & Hebl, 2005; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Riordan, Schaffer, & Stewart, 2005). These findings support previous research demonstrating that social isolation is worse for women within male-dominated professions, thereby leading to higher turnover rates (Valian, 1999).

In examining how these discriminatory factors affect women, Eagly and Karau (2002) claimed that women were prevented from advancing to higher level positions within their respective organizations. Coincidentally, Chatman and O'Reilly (2004) discovered higher turnover rates for both men and women in organizations with greater female representation. They argued that women's lower status within society reduced the attractiveness of working in women-dominated environments for members of both sexes (Chatman & O'Reilly, 2004). The finding that gender congruence matters within the workplace was partially supported by Hom et al. (2008). More specifically, Hom et al. (2008) discovered that turnover rates for women did not decrease with greater women representation. Instead, they discovered that the turnover rates for men increased with greater women representation (Hom et al., 2008); a phenomenon that the researchers suggested required further investigation. Indeed, Hom et al. (2008) produced one of the largest studies to date on quit rates within Corporate America across 20 professional organizations ($N = 404,052$), providing results that are indicative of the gender-related differences that exist.

Turnover intentions and ethnicity or race. As noted previously, much of the turnover research lacks diversity, which does not reflect the current demographic (e.g., age, gender, ethnicity or race) landscape of the management field (Allen et al., 2014). Moreover, because turnover research over the past 50-year period has mainly been conducted using homogenous samples (e.g., 33-year, college-educated, White professionals working fulltime within the United States; Allen et al., 2014), the generalizability of turnover research is unclear; therefore, diversity-related measures should be incorporated (Allen et al., 2014). Additionally, when diversity has been

explored, researchers have commonly categorized minority groups together into one group when comparing to White participants (Elvira & Cohen, 2001). Although White participants have lower quit rates when compared to an inclusive minority group overall, differences do exist when comparing specific minority groups with one another (Hom et al., 2008).

For example, African Americans have displayed the strongest negative relationship between diversity perceptions and turnover intentions among all minority groups (McKay et al., 2007). Hom et al. (2008) contended that findings from their research study provided substantial evidence that racial minorities have higher turnover rates than do White Americans and recommended that diversity initiatives incorporate both advancement and retention strategies within the workplace moving forward. Even further, diversity-related researchers have indicated that the hiring process is no longer the major barrier for African Americans; rather, the greatest risk is now during the initial stages of employment when new hires become acclimated to the organizational culture (Griffeth & Hom, 2001; Hom et al., 2008; Kilian et al., 2005).

Although recruitment strategies for minorities have been effective at increasing diversity within organizations, the same cannot be stated for turnover rates early within the hiring process. For example, newly hired minorities enter organizations with a positive sense of diversity within the climate, which could lead to higher turnover rates if expectations are not met (McKay & Avery, 2005). Hom et al. (2008) provided encouraging insight into the diversity-related research by arguing that entry into the workplace is a declining problem, but raised concerns about turnover rates and retention strategies for the future.

Turnover intentions and athletic administration. Limited research has been conducted focusing on turnover intent within athletic administration with the exception of a few notable scholars. Of the research that has been conducted, the majority pertains to coaching positions (Cunningham & Sagas, 2003, 2004a, 2004b; Cunningham et al., 2001; Ryan & Sagas, 2009; Turner & Chelladurai, 2005; Wells & Welty Peachey, 2011), with a few studies focusing on athletic department staff (Cunningham, 2006; Cunningham et al., 2005), and recently on senior athletic administrators (Welty Peachey et al., 2014). All studies are within intercollegiate athletics and, therefore, is the focus on this section.

Although turnover rates vary by industry and organization type (Holtom et al., 2008), no articles to date could be found that provides actual turnover rates within intercollegiate athletics for coaches or administrators. However, Ryan and Sagas (2009) indicated that even though turnover rates are rarely calculated within sporting organizations, financial costs of attrition could be greater for higher revenue-generating sports (i.e., men's basketball and football). Perhaps the higher costs associated with revenue-producing sports explain why more researchers have focused on turnover intentions for coaching positions instead of athletic administrators within intercollegiate athletics.

Turnover intentions among intercollegiate athletic coaches and administrators.

With respect to the turnover intent of intercollegiate athletic coaches, researchers have shown that job embeddedness (Cunningham et al., 2005) and organizational commitment (Turner & Chelladurai, 2005) help explain stay intentions and turnover intentions, respectively. In fact, Turner and Chelladurai (2005) stated that organizational commitment explained 24% of the variance in turnover intent among NCAA Division I

and III head coaches. When investigating the relationship between turnover intent and leadership behaviors among NCAA Division I assistant coaches, Wells and Welty Peachey (2011) discovered that satisfaction with the leader mediated the relationship between leadership behaviors and turnover intentions, meaning that when coaches were satisfied with the leadership of the head coach, then turnover intentions were lower. Ryan and Sagas (2009) examined the effects of pay satisfaction and work-family conflict on occupational turnover intent among head coaches across all NCAA divisions. They predicted that work-family conflict would influence the relationship between pay satisfaction and turnover intentions of coaches, which was supported by their findings. For example, as coaches were less satisfied with their pay, they were more likely to experience conflict at home because of work, resulting in higher turnover rates (Ryan & Sagas, 2009).

To date, only a few researchers have explored turnover intent among intercollegiate athletic department staff. Moreover, Cunningham et al. (2005) conducted a study to examine the job embeddedness construct among NCAA Division I FBS (formerly Division IA) athletic department staff; Mitchell et al. (2001) originally developed the job embeddedness construct. After examining Mitchell et al.'s (2001) construct, Cunningham et al. (2005) indicated that the new global-item measure accounted for a significant portion of the variance and was a good predictor of why people choose to stay within their organizations. In another study focusing on athletic department staff, Cunningham (2006) examined the relationship among commitment to change, coping with change, and turnover intent across 10 NCAA Division I FBS athletic departments. He reported an 18% variance between commitment and coping with change

in explaining turnover intentions; coping with change partially mediated the relationship between commitment to change and turnover intentions (Cunningham, 2006).

Within the existing literature, only one research article could be found focusing on turnover intent among senior athletic administrators within intercollegiate athletics. Specifically, Welty Peachey et al. (2014) sought to explore the influences of transformation leadership, organizational commitment, job embeddedness, and job search behaviors on voluntary turnover intentions. Findings of their study revealed that job embeddedness moderated the relationship between organizational commitment and job search behaviors. However, the researchers suggested that more research was required to develop a more complete model of turnover intent (Welty Peachey et al., 2014).

Turnover intentions, gender, and race within intercollegiate athletics. In examining the effects of group diversity, Cunningham and Sagas (2004b) indicated that ethnicity and tenure were significant predictors of occupational turnover intentions. Cunningham and Sagas (2004a) discovered that coaches with the highest degree of value similarity or value congruence to other coaches within the department were most satisfied with their jobs, and coaches with the highest degree of value dissimilarity displayed higher organizational turnover intentions. Because of the negative relationship between leader behaviors and turnover intentions, Wells and Welty Peachey (2011) suggested that demographic variables should be considered when examining turnover intent within the sport field. The suggested use of demographic variables also is consistent with other diversity-related research pertaining to turnover intentions (Peltokorpi et al., 2015; Wells & Welty Peachey, 2011).

Because diversity-related literature within the sport management field has contained limited research examining organizational outcomes, Cunningham and Sagas (2004b) studied the effects of diversity on occupational turnover intentions of NCAA Division I FBS football coaching staff. Moreover, Cunningham and Sagas (2004b) discovered that diversity was predictive of occupational turnover intentions among college football coaching staff. This finding was consistent with previous research examining organizational turnover intentions and diversity among intercollegiate basketball coaches where researchers revealed that Black coaches had higher turnover intentions than did White coaches (Cunningham et al., 2001).

Research pertaining to gender differences and turnover intent also has been reported, although limited research on the topic was found. Specifically, Cunningham and Sagas (2003) explored occupational commitment among NCAA Division I women's teams and reported that women anticipated leaving the coaching profession sooner than did men. Comparatively, Turner and Chelladurai (2005) indicated that both occupational and organizational commitment does affect turnover intent; however, they stated that women had the same organizational and occupational commitment as did men. In fact, they suggested that the argument that women are not as committed as men and are more likely to leave the coaching profession within intercollegiate athletics should no longer be used as an excuse for the underrepresentation of women within the field (Turner & Chelladurai, 2005).

Scholars across several disciplines have supported the use of demographic variables within the turnover intent literature because of differences based on race, gender, and tenure (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Hom et al., 2008; Peltokorpi et al., 2015;

Wells & Welty Peachey, 2011). Specifically, scholars contend that gender matters when predicting turnover intent among professionals and should continue to be used within turnover models (Peltokorpi et al., 2015). Additionally, scholars continue to report that ethnicity or race is predictive of turnover intent among professionals both within the management field (Allen et al., 2014) and within intercollegiate athletics (Cunningham & Sagas, 2004a, 2004b; Cunningham et al., 2001). Moreover, scholars should report differences according to ethnicity or race, instead of grouping minorities into one category (Elvira & Cohen, 2001). Lastly, because scholars focusing on diversity-related research within intercollegiate athletics have demonstrated a clear underrepresentation of minorities (see Acosta & Carpenter, 2014, Lapchick, 2016), the use of demographic variables within turnover research becomes even more critical to understanding the implications pertaining to reasons why professionals leave their respective organizations.

Professional Advancement/ Upward Mobility and Turnover Intentions

Intraorganizational mobility is an emerging construct within the turnover process because the work-related variable has not frequently been examined within turnover intentions studies (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). There are a number of factors that interact in the employee's decision to leave an organization and existing turnover models leave significant variance unexplained (Felps et al., 2009). Additionally, providing opportunities within an organization relates to higher levels of job satisfaction and should be considered when developing retention strategies (Coetzee & Stolz, 2015; João & Coetzee, 2012; Steel & Lounsbury, 2009).

Research pertaining to career mobility has been ambiguous in nature because of the inconsistent use of terminology (e.g., job vs. occupation vs. organization). For

example, researchers have examined various aspects of career mobility including perceived career mobility, career adaptability, promotability, and career satisfaction (refer to Table 6 for descriptions of these terms). Also, constructs designed to measure mobility have been used to measure a broad array of mobility types such as job, organizational, and occupational changes (Feldman & Ng, 2007).

Table 6

Terms Used to Describe Upward Mobility or Career Advancement Within the Literature

Term	Definition	Source
<i>Perceived career mobility</i>	Refers to an individual's perception of the opportunity for intra-organizational and inter-organizational career mobility	João & Coetzee, 2012
<i>Intra-organizational</i>	Job changes or movement within organizations including work responsibilities, hierarchical level or titles	Feldman & Ng, 2007
<i>Inter-organizational</i>	Job changes or movement between organizations	Feldman & Ng, 2007
<i>Career adaptability</i>	"The readiness to cope with the predictable tasks of preparing for and participating in the work role and the unpredictable adjustments prompted by changes in work and working conditions" (p. 254)"	Savickas, 1997
<i>Promotability</i>	"The favorability of an employee's advancement prospects" (p. 69)	Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990
<i>Career satisfaction</i>	Appraisal of one's career advancement in terms of objectives and accomplishments	Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990

Researchers have claimed that factors affecting various aspects of mobility include perceptions of mobility (João & Coetzee, 2012), career advancements and encouragement (Tharenou, Latimer, & Conroy, 1994), social networks (Marienau, 2016), organizational ambition (Desrochers & Dahir, 2000), career adaptability (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012), promotability (Chan, Kuok, Kong, & Mai, 2016), career satisfaction (Chan & Mai, 2015), and retention factors (Coetzee & Stolz, 2015)—most of which have been used to predict turnover intentions (refer to Table 7 for factors that have been examined with turnover intentions). However, not all factors have been researched in conjunction with turnover intentions but will be explored as part of the review of literature. As such, the following sections will be organized accordingly: (a) professional advancement/upward mobility factors; (b) professional advancement/upward mobility, gender, and race; and (c) professional advancement/upward mobility and athletic administration.

Table 7

Constructs Incorporated Within Upward Mobility Research Examining Turnover Intentions

Year	Author	Upward mobility-related construct within study	All constructs examined
2016	Chan et al.	Career adaptability Promotability	Career adaptability Turnover intentions Career satisfaction Promotability
2015	Chan & Mai	Career adaptability	Career adaptability Career satisfaction Turnover intentions
2015	Verbruggen et al.	Horizontal transition magnitude Vertical transition magnitude	Horizontal transition magnitude Vertical transition magnitude Basic needs satisfaction Work engagement Turnover intentions
2000	Desrochers & Dahir	Career advancement ambition	Job satisfaction and withdrawal intentions Organizational and professional commitment and ambition

Professional advancement/ upward mobility factors. According to Haslam, Eggins, and Reynolds (2003), social capital refers to workforce-related resources that contribute to organizational gains (e.g., loyalty), these resources can be in the form of alliances, networking, and relationships. One of the resources, social networking, has been known to influence career advancement; in fact, it is often stated that *who* you know is more important than *what* you know. In an effort to assess career advancement within organizations, Marineau (2016) conducted a mixed methods research study by asking whether and to what extent the accuracy of people's social network contributed to their promotion probability. Social networks that were both positive and negative contributed to an individual's promotion probability as long as the individuals' perceptions were accurate. Moreover, individuals who were more aware of who they could trust or not trust within their social network had a career mobility advantage over those were inaccurate about their social networks. In short, the accuracy of one's social network matters when it comes to promotion probability (Marineau, 2016).

Hoping to understand better the role that professional and organizational ambition had on organizational commitment and turnover intent, Desrochers and Dahir (2000) examined these relationships and suggested that ambition was perhaps another construct among the more common work-related variables such as job satisfaction and turnover intent. Using a scale that they developed for the study (i.e., career advancement ambition scale), they suggested that organizational commitment might mediate the relationship between career advancement ambition and turnover intent (Desrochers & Dahir, 2000). However, they suggested that the developed construct required further research for validation (Desrochers & Dahir, 2000).

Most recently, researchers have examined aspects of career adaptability as well as moderating and mediating variables; much of this research has been conducted internationally (Chan et al., 2016; Chan & Mai, 2015; Coetzee & Stolz, 2015; João & Coetzee, 2012; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Researchers have focused on developing a career adaptability scale in order to assess how well an individual adapts to professional demands within the workplace (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Researchers also have explored the connection between career adaptability and promotability (Chan et al., 2016); the link among career adaptability, satisfaction, and turnover intentions (Chan & Mai, 2015); and the relationship between career adaptability and retention factors (Coetzee & Stolz, 2015). Furthermore, researchers have shown that career adaptability impacts retention rates and voluntary turnover of employees (Ferreira et al., 2013).

In exploring the relationships among career adaptability, turnover intention, and career satisfaction, Chan and Mai (2015) reported a negative relationship between career adaptability and turnover intentions, a positive relationship between career adaptability and career satisfaction, a negative relationship between career satisfaction and turnover intention, and, lastly, that career satisfaction mediated the relationship between career adaptability and turnover intentions among low-ranking workers (e.g., shift workers) in Macau, China. Although the study was conducted to explore the relationships among low-ranking employees, the authors contended that their findings provide important information for employers in general (Chan & Mai, 2015). More specifically, because career adaptability is related to career satisfaction, which, in turn, is a good predictor of turnover intent, employers should develop professional training programs with these findings in mind (Chan & Mai, 2015).

More recently, Chan et al. (2016) examined the relationship among career adaptability, promotability, career satisfaction, and turnover intent. Their findings revealed that career adaptability was positively related to both career satisfaction and promotability, but negatively related to turnover intent (Chan et al., 2016). Similar to Chan and Mai (2015), the authors suggested that managers could influence turnover intent of employees by focusing on factors that affect promotability and career satisfaction by providing professional development opportunities. Additionally, they suggested that performance appraisals include clear and concise feedback to ensure that employees know exactly what performance improvements are required in order to attain promotion within the workplace (Chan et al., 2016).

According to Tharenou et al. (1994), career encouragement and training are important for managerial advancement within organizations; specifically, individuals who receive career encouragement are more likely to seek out training opportunities. As such, they examined situational and individual influences of men's and women's managerial advancement. Their findings revealed that career encouragement increased training and development, which, in turn, positively influenced managerial advancement. Overall, the model explained managerial advancement well and gender differences were apparent (Tharenou et al., 1994).

In exploring perceptions of advancement opportunities, João and Coetzee (2012) indicated that employees were more attached to their organizations when they experienced positive feelings about future growth. When asked, South African financial industry employees rated both intrinsic and extrinsic motives as reasons for staying in an organization; reasons included work-life balance; opportunities to apply and to utilize

knowledge, salary, and benefits; and opportunities for future growth (João & Coetzee, 2012). Moreover, employees who preferred to advance within organizations (i.e., intraorganizational mobility) had stronger feelings of attachment (João & Coetzee, 2012).

Because retention factors (e.g., training and development, career opportunities) contribute to a reduction in voluntary turnover rates and more satisfied employees (Ferreira et al., 2013; João, 2010), Coetzee and Stolz (2015) explored the multivariate relationships between career adaptability and retention factor satisfaction constructs. They discovered that career adaptability helped explain an employee's level of satisfaction with retention factors, specifically for factors related to career concerns. For example, career concerns were highly related to perceived career opportunities within an organization. Moreover, perceptions of advancement were important for aspects of career success and should be taken into account within retention strategies. In support of these findings, Feldman and Ng (2007) stated that perceptions of future growth opportunities influence retention rates, and Lesabe and Nkosi (2007) stated that employees become frustrated if there is lack of opportunity for future growth. Indeed, the suggestions about incorporating training and development and opportunities for future growth within retention strategies are supported by several scholars (Chan et al., 2016; Chan & Mai, 2015; Coetzee & Stolz, 2015).

Chen, Ployhart, Thomas, Anderson, and Bliese (2011) examined the relationship among job satisfaction, work expectations, and turnover intentions. In this context, work expectations referred to work-related variables such as relationships at work, job characteristics, career opportunities, and pay. These researchers discovered that work expectations partially mediated the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover

intentions. Because of the multiple variables included within the work expectation construct, the work-related variable should be examined further to account for the variance of each of the contributing factors, including career opportunities (Chen et al., 2011).

Because less research has been dedicated to internal transitions within recent years, Verbruggen, De Cooman, and Vansteenkiste (2015) examined when and why internal transitions affected motivation and retention of employees. For example, they attempted to differentiate between transitions that either promote growth and development or impede them. More specifically, transitions that promoted growth and development were characterized as challenges, whereas transitions that impeded them were characterized as hindrances. Their findings revealed that the type of transition was important in understanding whether the impact was positive or negative. More specifically, vertical transitions that were characterized as challenging related positively to work engagement and negatively to turnover intentions; however, horizontal transitions did not have the same effect. As well, the researchers indicated that social support also influenced vertical transitions in a positive manner. More importantly, categorizing types (i.e., challenges/hindrances or vertical/horizontal) of internal transitions was acknowledged as being important for understanding motivation and retention of employees (Verbruggen et al., 2015).

Professional advancement/ upward mobility, gender, and ethnicity or race.

Within the literature examined, few researchers have discussed gender and ethnicity or racial differences. With respect to gender, Tharenou et al. (1994) addressed gender differences in managerial advancement. From a race perspective, Coetzee and Stolz

(2015) and João and Coetzee (2012) briefly discussed ethnic or racial differences related to retention factors.

Previously, researchers have indicated that women required more encouragement than did men in order to advance to executive-level positions (Morrison, White, & Van Velsor, 1987). In the hope of examining this assertion, Tharenou et al. (1994) examined models used to assess managerial advancement. Their findings revealed gender differences in that training and development was more advantageous for men and produced more opportunities for managerial advancement. Comparatively, career encouragement was more important for women, which led to a more positive effect on training and development (Tharenou et al., 1994).

In exploring retention factors related to perceived career mobility and organizational turnover, João and Coetzee (2012) reported that Black respondents scored higher on measures of interorganizational career mobility than did White participants. However, younger Black employees were more likely to be optimistic about intraorganizational career mobility than were older employees. In examining the relationships between career adaptability and retention factors, Coetzee and Stolz (2015) indicated that Black participants scored higher than did White participants on all measures of career adaptability. However, White participants scored higher on measures of compensation and organizational commitment (Coetzee & Stolz, 2015). Because both studies were conducted in South Africa, generalization of these findings is limited due to the affirmative action and employment equity policies that exist in the region (Coetzee & Stolz, 2015; João & Coetzee, 2012). However, ethnic or racial differences should be explored further to determine whether targeted retention strategies should be considered

because ethnic or racial differences were evident within these studies (Coetzee & Stolz, 2015; João & Coetzee, 2012).

Professional advancement/ upward mobility and athletic administration. In reviewing the literature pertaining to advancement opportunities and/or upward mobility within sport organizations, the majority of the research has been conducted with a specific focus on gender differences (Burton et al., 2011; Cunningham & Sagas, 2008; Danylchuk & Pastore, 1996; Hoerber, 2007; Knoppers & Anthonissen, 2008; Sagas & Cunningham, 2004; Weaver & Chelladurai, 2002; Whisenant, 2003; Whisenant et al., 2002). One article was found that pertained to access discrimination as a function of race (Cunningham & Sagas, 2005) but none specifically focused on professional advancement as a function of ethnicity or race. Therefore, much of the discussion within this section will pertain to upward mobility as a function of gender.

In a report about gender and sex diversity in sport organizations, Cunningham and Sagas (2008) indicated that the majority of research was conducted in the United States and within interscholastic and intercollegiate athletic environments. One researcher assessed how women fared as administrators since Title IX was introduced to interscholastic athletics (Whisenant, 2003). A few other researchers included Canadian universities within their studies when examining gender issues within intercollegiate athletics (Danylchuk & Pastore, 1996; Hoerber, 2007). Only one study was found that examined gender discourses within a large international sport organization (Knoppers & Anthonissen, 2008). The lack of research across all sport organizations was a criticism within their report and suggested a broader scope of research was needed (Cunningham & Sagas, 2008).

In examining the underrepresentation of women and minorities within sport, researchers frequently have used the theory of homologous reproduction (Kanter, 1977) to explain the lack of advancement within the field (e.g., Burton et al., 2011; Knoppers & Anthonissen, 2008). According to this theory, people tend to hire those who are most similar to themselves or to their networks based on physical and social characteristics. As a result, women face discrimination within the promotion process and are denied opportunities to be included in professional networks needed to advance within the workplace (Kanter, 1977). In fact, Kanter (1977) claimed that individuals' perceptions of advancement opportunities could affect their workplace behaviors and attitudes. Additionally, those who are dissimilar to the majority tend to experience more discrimination and, in turn, are more likely to be dissatisfied and leave the organization (Kanter, 1977).

Within a large Dutch organization, researchers explored how discourse and subtexts were used and to what extent homologous reproduction was present. Knoppers and Anthonissen (2008) indicated that researchers should seek to understand how those in positions of power within sport organizations perceive gender, considering that those in power make major decisions that influence organizational strategic direction (Knoppers & Anthonissen, 2008). Findings revealed evidence of gendered discourses relating to instrumentality, relationally, emotionality, and homogeneity. For example, in order to be successful in sport organizations, those in positions of power must possess toughness, which was perceived to be more masculine. Those perceived as being more available within the workplace were viewed as being more committed, whereas those who were perceived as having domestic responsibilities were viewed negatively and were seen as

being less committed to the organization. Gendered discourses that existed within these sport organizations gave those in positions of power more privilege, thereby positioning women at a disadvantage, being less likely to assume leadership roles (Knoppers, & Anthonissen, 2008).

At the interscholastic level, as noted previously, one researcher wanted to assess how women have progressed as athletic administrators since the passage of Title IX (Whisenant, 2003). Results revealed that women were underrepresented (i.e., 13%) within administrator positions; both regional and state differences were reported. Findings from this study are consistent with those of intercollegiate athletics, which demonstrate a lack of women at higher levels of administrator ranks (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014). In fact, Whisenant (2003) states that women were further behind in positions of power than in other management fields at the time that the study was conducted.

With respect to intercollegiate athletics, Burton et al. (2011) examined the underrepresentation of women in administrator positions using role congruity theory as a framework. Specifically, role congruity theory refers to the influential factors that contribute to prejudices that can exist between gender roles and leadership roles, thereby leading to incongruity when women are viewed as being less capable than their male counterparts (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Even though women were perceived as being equally likely to possess the necessary skills to be successful in the athletic director position, they were less likely to be selected than were men. These findings indicated that role incongruity continues to influence hiring decisions, especially for the highest

leadership position (i.e., athletic director) within intercollegiate athletics, and that inconsistencies in perceptions should continue to be explored (Burton et al., 2011).

Within a Canadian intercollegiate athletic program, Hoeber (2007) wanted to understand how administrators made meaning of gender equity gaps and how those gaps affected business practice. In her qualitative analysis, Hoeber (2007) indicated that conflicting themes occurred based on the assumption that gender equity had existed but was not expected. Therefore, more work was needed in order to improve gender equity within the Canadian institution (Hoeber, 2007). An important distinction between U.S. and Canadian universities is that the Canadian provincial government provides funding for athletic programs; a similar legislation like Title IX to mandate gender equity does not exist.

In examining factors that influenced job attainment among athletic administrators and coaches across intercollegiate athletic programs within the United States and Canada, Danylchuk and Pastore (1996) concluded that the most important factor was previous work experience. The second and third most important factors affecting job attainment were training for the position and personal traits, respectively. These findings were consistent with more recent research pertaining to the importance of work experiences within intercollegiate athletics (Danylchuk & Pastore, 1996; Wong et al., 2015).

In determining gender differences in the rate of advancement for athletic directors across all NCAA Divisions, Whisenant et al. (2002) revealed that men had a higher rate of advancement at higher levels institutions (i.e., Division I), whereas women demonstrated higher rates of advancement at lower levels (e.g., Division III). In exploring career success factors among NCAA Division I athletic administrators, Sagas

and Cunningham (2004) reported that men received greater rewards from social capital than did women, which indicated that women faced discrimination for advancement opportunities (Sagas & Cunningham, 2004). These studies lead to other questions about the differences in advancement opportunities among various levels of NCAA institutions such as, “What factors contribute to men’s higher rates of advancement among NCAA Division I institutions?”

Adding to gender differences in career advancement research, Weaver and Chelladurai (2002) examined the impact of mentoring as a means to assess career progression among NCAA Division I and Division III athletic administrators. They revealed that both men and women experienced mentoring relationships equally and that those who were mentored were more satisfied within their respective careers. Additionally, no gender differences between divisions were reported (Weaver & Chelladurai, 2002).

Cunningham and Sagas (2008) suggested that research within the sport context should be analyzed from a multilevel approach. More specifically, researchers should consider examining their findings from three different levels: macro level (industry), meso level (organizational), and micro level (individual). Additionally, because much of the research has been conducted within interscholastic and intercollegiate environments, researchers should expand their focus on other sport organizations (Cunningham & Sagas, 2008). As such, Cunningham and Sagas (2005) have recommended that researchers consider the intersectionality of race, gender, and sexual orientation when examining diversity-related issues and discourses within the sport context.

Professional advancement/ upward mobility and athletic administration and ethnicity or race. From a race perspective, Cunningham and Sagas (2005) examined the underrepresentation of minorities among NCAA Division I men's basketball programs where they discovered that the head coach's race influenced the race of the coaching staff. More specifically, Black coaching staff were underrepresented under the direction of head basketball coaches who were White and vice versa. The authors suggested that diversity-related initiatives were needed in order to eliminate access discrimination or entry into the workplace based on racial discrimination. These findings also are consistent with longitudinal gender-related research conducted by Acosta and Carpenter (2014).

Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intentions

According to Locke (1969), job satisfaction refers to the pleasurable state that one achieves from professional values. Within the intercollegiate athletic field, Chelladurai (2006) described job satisfaction as an immediate reaction to job experiences, which fluctuates with changes. Job satisfaction has been one of the most commonly studied constructs within turnover research (Mobley, 1977; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979) and a core variable within turnover models (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). The affective construct has been included in turnover models because researchers have stated the importance of using this attitudinal characteristic to predict turnover decisions (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). Additionally, researchers have indicated that job satisfaction has a significant negative relationship to turnover intentions (Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom et al., 1992; Tett & Meyer, 1993).

The majority of literature examining the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions does so at a single point in time, whereas Chen et al. (2011) tested a new model to account for change in both constructs. More specifically, they accounted for the change in both job satisfaction and turnover intentions by examining data at three different points in time. Their findings revealed that turnover intention change mediated job satisfaction change, which, in turn, predicted actual turnover. They suggest that their model accounts for the dynamic relationship between the variables and brings new insight for professionals managing turnover intention relationships and scholars who focus on turnover intention research (Chen et al., 2011).

In examining the job satisfaction and turnover intention relationship, Mahdi, Zin, Nor, Sakat, and Naim (2012) addressed both intrinsic and extrinsic forms of job satisfaction. They discovered that both forms of job satisfaction helped explain turnover intentions; however, intrinsic satisfaction had a stronger influence on turnover intentions than did extrinsic satisfaction. Moreover, when employees were challenged by their jobs and were able to apply their skills, they were less likely to leave the organization. These findings were consistent with the research findings of João and Coetzee (2012), wherein financial services employees provided both extrinsic and intrinsic motives as reasons for staying within an organization (e.g., work-life balance, opportunities to apply and to utilize knowledge, salary and benefits, and opportunities for future growth).

In the literature in this area, some researchers focus specifically on the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Chen et al., 2011; Grissom, Nicholson-Crotty, & Keiser, 2012; Mahdi et al., 2012), whereas others on the relationship among job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions (Ahmad &

Rainyee, 2014; Tarigan & Ariani, 2015; Tett & Meyer, 1993). However, several researchers have incorporated other variables when examining the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions within their studies. A review of these studies will be discussed and be organized into the following sections: (a) job satisfaction, turnover intention, and organizational commitment; (b) job satisfaction, turnover intention, and other constructs; (c) job satisfaction, turnover intention, and gender; (d) job satisfaction, turnover intention, and race; and (e) job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and athletic administration.

Job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and organizational commitment. Tett and Meyer (1993) conducted a meta-analysis to test models and to assess the strength of the relationships among job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions. They discovered that job satisfaction and organizational commitment were both predictors but contributed independently to turnover intentions. Moreover, findings revealed that job satisfaction was a stronger predictor of turnover intentions than was organizational commitment (Tett & Meyer, 1993). Their findings were consistent with the previous meta-analysis of Steel and Ovalle (1984) who also suggested that job satisfaction was a stronger predictor of turnover intentions. In contrast, Tarigan and Ariani (2015) stated that organizational commitment was a better predictor of turnover intentions than was job satisfaction. Tarigan and Ariani (2015) suggested that although job satisfaction is one of the factors that explain turnover intentions, the relationship is mediated by organizational commitment.

In an attempt to determine which variable (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational commitment) was a stronger predictor of turnover intentions, Ahmad and Rainyee (2014)

conducted a systematic review of the literature. Their review revealed that both constructs had a positive relationship to each other and a negative relationship to turnover intentions; however, the research determining which construct was a better predictor of turnover intentions was divided, as demonstrated here. They posited that the relationship among variables depends on nature of the job and context (e.g., environment) in which the variables are examined (Ahmad & Rainyee, 2014).

Job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and other constructs. In addition to the researchers who have examined the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions, other researchers have explored additional factors that contribute to the work-related outcome such as personality type, job training satisfaction, work engagement, and organizational identification. The review of the additional factors that have been used to predict turnover intentions in this section is not a thorough review of research. Rather, the intent is to provide examples of studies demonstrating the additional factors that have been explored in conjunction with job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

Glover, Mynatt, and Schroeder (2000) wanted to assess the influence of personality type to help explain why some individuals were more satisfied in specific working environments, whereas others were not; in this study, they focused on the accounting profession. Although their study focused on differences between male and female African American accountants, the findings provide insight into the use of personality characteristics as a predictor variable. Furthermore, they did not find that personality type and attitudes influenced the outcome of job satisfaction and turnover intentions among African Americans in the accounting profession. Instead, they suggested that perceptions of advancements and barriers within the workplace might

contribute more to turnover behavior and, therefore, would help in understanding the relationship better (Glover et al., 2000).

Van Dick et al. (2004) posited that organizational identification has not been adequately explained within the relationship to job satisfaction and turnover intentions. As such, they explored the relationships further. Moreover, they discovered that organizational identification did factor into the job satisfaction relationship when predicting turnover intentions across three samples of European bank employees. More importantly, the researchers discussed how the perceptions of social identify within organizations can have an impact on job satisfaction, which, in turn, predicts turnover intentions (Van Dick et al., 2004).

Huang and Su (2016) explored the influence of job training satisfaction, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions among 150 Taiwan workers from various organizations; the workers were enrolled in continuing education programs in a university setting at the time that the study was conducted. Their findings revealed a negative relationship between job satisfaction training and turnover intentions, which was mediated by job satisfaction. In other words, job satisfaction was a good predictor of turnover intentions, attributing 49.7% of the variance to turnover intentions (Huang & Su, 2016). Coincidentally, the importance on job training was consistent with research findings relating to career adaptability and turnover intent (Chan et al., 2016; Chan & Mai, 2015; Coetzee & Stolz, 2015).

Lu, Lu, Gursoy, and Neale (2016) wanted to evaluate whether workers' levels (i.e., line workers versus supervisors) had an influence on job satisfaction and turnover. Moreover, the intent of their study was to investigate the influence of positions on work

engagement, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions within the hospitality industry (Lu et al., 2016). They discovered that supervisors were less likely to leave their jobs than were line workers; however, job satisfaction did not differ among the various levels of workers (Lu et al., 2016).

Job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and gender. Research relating to the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions as a function of gender is limited. Grissom et al. (2012) conducted research in this area; however, no other studies were found examining this specific relationship. Therefore, this section will briefly discuss the impact of gender on job satisfaction and the results of Grissom et al. (2012).

Despite gender discrimination and underrepresentation of women in leadership positions within the workplace, scholars have reported that women have higher levels of job satisfaction than do men (Clark, 1997; Grissom et al., 2012; Lu et al., 2016). In contrast, Singhapakdi et al. (2014) reported gender disparities at the management level of workers from Thailand and the United States in that female managers experienced lower levels of job satisfaction than did their male counterparts. Comparatively, women working in male-dominated workplaces report greater levels of discrimination, which, in turn, negatively affects job satisfaction (Dovidio & Hebl, 2005; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Riordan et al., 2005).

Interestingly, 58% of men indicated that the sex of their boss mattered, compared to only 34% of women who said the sex of their boss mattered (Gallup, 2014). Is the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions affected by a preference for a male or female boss? To address this question, Grissom et al. (2012) investigated whether gender of the supervisor would influence employee job satisfaction and turnover

intent among public teachers and principals across the United States. Overall, they found that women were more likely to be satisfied with their jobs and less likely to leave. Additionally, their findings revealed that teachers had a preference for working for male principals; however, the preference was stronger for men. In other words, gender congruency mattered most for male teachers working in schools with a female principal where job satisfaction rates were lower and turnover rates were higher (Grissom et al., 2012). These findings were consistent with those of Lu et al. (2016) who found that women were more satisfied with their jobs than were men and less likely to leave among line workers in a North American hotel management company.

Job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and ethnicity or race. Glover et al. (2000) examined the relationships of personality type, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions among African American accountants. These researchers reported that African Americans advanced less within the accounting field but personality type was not a factor. In other words, lack of advancement for African Americans had less to do with personality type and was more likely related to perceptions about diversity and organizational barriers (Glover et al., 2000). These findings were in line with those of Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley (1990), who reported that Black managers felt less accepted and experienced lower levels of career satisfaction than did their White counterparts (Glover et al., 2000).

More recently, Madera, King, and Hebl (2012) explored whether suppression of social identity affected perceived discrimination, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions as a function of diversity (i.e., ethnicity/ace, age, sexual orientation, religion, or disability). Moreover, suppressing one's identity was positively related to perceived

discrimination, which predicted job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Or more simply put, employees who suppressed their social identities perceived higher levels of discrimination, which, in turn, resulted in job dissatisfaction and higher levels of turnover intention (Madera et al., 2012).

Within the education sector, Grissom and Keiser (2011) assessed whether the race of one's supervisor among teachers and principals affected job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Data were collected from a national database for public schools across the United States. They discovered that job satisfaction was higher and turnover intentions lower for teachers when the principal was of the same race. Further, teachers were more likely to stay in a school with a principal of the same race and the effect was stronger for schools with Black principals. The race discrepancy is similar to that found in a gender-related study where men had a stronger preference for working for principals of the same sex, indicating that gender and race congruency does matter (Grissom et al., 2012).

Job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and athletic administration. Overall, research within the athletic administration field that examines the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions has been limited. Of the limited research that is available, the authors of one study focused on the influence of organizational culture on job satisfaction and intention to leave within a fitness industry setting in Canada (MacIntosh & Doherty, 2010). Within the intercollegiate athletic administration field, researchers focused on the diversity-related effects on job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Cunningham & Sagas, 2004a) and on the job embeddedness construct (Cunningham et al., 2005). Research pertaining to ethnicity or race (Cunningham & Sagas, 2004a) and gender (Sagas & Batista, 2001) was particularly limited, with only a

few studies located. Therefore, research within this section will be organized into the following areas: (a) job satisfaction and turnover intentions outside of intercollegiate athletics, (b) job satisfaction and turnover intentions within intercollegiate athletics, (c) job satisfaction, turnover intentions, intercollegiate athletics, and gender, and (d) job satisfaction, turnover intentions, intercollegiate athletics, and ethnicity or race.

Job satisfaction and turnover intentions outside of intercollegiate athletics.

Within the Canadian fitness industry, MacIntosh and Doherty (2010) investigated the impact of organizational culture on job satisfaction and turnover intentions. They discovered that organizational culture explained 14.3% of the variance in job satisfaction and 50.3% of the variance in turnover intentions. In other words, organizational culture influenced both job satisfaction and turnover intent of employees in the Canadian fitness industry. More importantly, organizational culture varied by organization, as did its effect, thereby adding to the complexity of the relationship and the importance of understanding its impact (MacIntosh & Doherty, 2010).

Job satisfaction and turnover intentions within intercollegiate athletics.

Scholars who have examined the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions within intercollegiate athletic administration have done so with the focus more on athletic coaches (Cunningham et al., 2005; Cunningham & Sagas, 2004a; Sagas & Batista, 2001; Turner & Jordan, 2006) than on administrators (Cunningham et al., 2005). Also, it is important to note that scant research has been conducted within the last 10 years. Refer to Table 4 for turnover research and related constructs within intercollegiate athletics.

Turner and Jordan (2006) examined the relationship between commitment and satisfaction of coaches because, previously, no researchers had examined these constructs together in predicting turnover intentions. Results revealed that the combined relationship accounted for 33.8% of the variance in predicting turnover intentions, with job satisfaction having a stronger negative relationship than did commitment on turnover intentions (Turner & Jordan, 2006). Turner and Jordan (2006) suggest that researchers should consider other aspects of job satisfaction such as pay satisfaction and advancement opportunities.

Cunningham et al. (2005) were the only researchers who examined the job satisfaction and turnover intention relationship among intercollegiate athletic administrators, although coaches also were included within their study. Although the objective of their study was to examine the job embeddedness construct, they also examined the influence of other constructs including job satisfaction. The findings of the study revealed that job satisfaction and organizational commitment were good predictors of turnover intentions and explained more than 30% of the variance, supporting the previous work of Griffeth et al. (2000).

Job satisfaction, turnover intentions, intercollegiate athletics, and gender.

Because fewer women than men enter the coaching profession, Sagas and Batista (2001) explored turnover rates among coaches of women's teams across all divisions. Sagas and Ashley (2001) stated that the reason that more women leave the coaching profession is because of lower job satisfaction and occupational commitment. Therefore, Sagas and Batista (2001) wanted to examine whether job satisfaction of coaches contributed to higher turnover intention rates among women. They discovered that turnover intentions

were higher for women in NCAA Division II and III institutions; with minimal gender differences reported within NCAA Division I institutions. However, they reported a non-significant effect for job satisfaction and gender (Sagas & Batista, 2001).

Job satisfaction, turnover intentions, intercollegiate athletics, and ethnicity or race. Cunningham and Sagas (2004a) were among the few scholars who focused on the diversity-related effects of job satisfaction and organizational turnover intentions within intercollegiate athletic administration. Moreover, they examined the impact of diversity on the two work-related outcomes among NCAA Division I assistant coaches of men's basketball teams. Within this study, the authors examined both value similarity and ethnic dissimilarity; value similarity referred to shared organizational values and ethnic dissimilarity referred to ethnic differences. Here, they discovered that value similarity was more predictive of job satisfaction and turnover intentions than was ethnic dissimilarity. In other words, those who were most similar in values (value congruence) displayed higher levels of job satisfaction and lower turnover intentions; however, ethnic dissimilarity did not affect work-related outcome.

Summary of Turnover Intentions Research

Researchers have indicated that turnover intention is the strongest predictor of actual turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000; Steel & Ovalle, 1984; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Aside from turnover intentions, job satisfaction has been the most commonly researched behavioral variable within turnover studies (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). Researchers have debated (see Ahmad & Rainyee, 2014) which construct—job satisfaction or organizational commitment—was a better predictor of turnover intentions; however, Ahmad and Rainyee (2014) claimed that the nature and context of the environment

should be taken into account when determining which variables should be examined. Additionally, turnover intentions models routinely have been constructed with three types of variables: attitudinal, behavioral, and/or job-search related (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). More specifically, upward mobility, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction constructs have been related to organizational turnover intentions (Blau, 2000; Lee et al., 2000; Meyer et al., 1993).

A criticism of turnover research is that samples have been homogenous and unrepresentative of the population in which they are studied (Allen et al., 2014). Moreover, when diversity has been explored, minorities have been grouped together instead of examining groups between one another (Elvira & Cohen, 2001). Homs et al. (2008) provided evidence that women and racial minorities have higher turnover intention rates compared to non-minority groups. Moreover, they discovered that entry into the workplace is a declining problem for both women and minorities; however, they draw attention to retention strategies because of the higher rates of attrition for these groups (Hom et al., 2008). As such, scholars have argued that demographic information (i.e., gender, race) is an important variable within turnover intention research that continually should be used within research studies (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Hom et al., 2008; Peltokorpi et al., 2015; Wells & Welty Peachey, 2011).

A consistent message within the career mobility research is the importance of developing training programs for the retention of employees (Chan et al., 2016; Chan & Mai, 2015; Coetzee & Stolz, 2015; Tharenou et al., 1994). Additionally, researchers contend that perceptions of career opportunities are important for career success as well as for retention strategies (Coetzee & Stolz, 2015; Feldman & Ng, 2007). For example,

Chen et al. (2011) discovered that work-related variables, including career opportunities, partially mediated the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions but the researchers did not examine which work-related variables contributed the greatest variance. This finding supports the need for development and further refinement of the upward mobility/advancement opportunity constructs (Chen et al., 2011). Consistent with these findings, João and Coetzee (2012) indicated that employees are more attached to the organization when they perceive that opportunities for future growth exist, which supports the importance of assessing perceptions of advancement opportunities and the development of targeted strategies to address equity issues. Steel and Lounsbury (2009) have indicated that measures of mobility (intraorganizational, opportunities) are emerging constructs within turnover intention research because perceptions of upward mobility or advancement opportunities are positively related to job satisfaction (Coetzee & Stolz, 2015; João & Coetzee, 2012; Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). More importantly, perceptions of upward mobility or advancement opportunities have not yet been explored within the intercollegiate athletic administration context.

Job satisfaction has been a core variable within turnover research because of the direct negative relationship to turnover intentions (Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom et al., 1992; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Substantial research, to date, has been provided that supports the inclusion of this behavioral variable in predicting turnover intentions (for a review, see, for e.g., Holtom et al., 2008; Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). However, few scholars within the intercollegiate athletic field have examined the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions (refer to Table 4). Of the limited research that was available, most pertained to athletic coaches (Cunningham & Sagas, 2004a; Turner & Jordan,

2006), with only one focusing on athletic administrators (Cunningham et al., 2005) but none specifically at the senior athletic administrator level. More importantly, because the research exploring the relationship between the two constructs was limited, little could be concluded regarding the influence of demographic variables such as ethnicity or race and gender. However, research within the educational field has indicated that both gender and race incongruence matter with respect to the job satisfaction and turnover intention relationship (Grissom & Keiser, 2011; Grissom et al., 2012), supporting the need for further clarification of this relationship within the intercollegiate athletic field. Lastly, because divisional differences have been reported within intercollegiate athletics (Sagas & Batista, 2001), research examining these differences should be examined.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this chapter is to provide the methodology for the present study. As previously stated, there are two purposes of the study; the first was to collect descriptive data in order to provide profile characteristics of senior-level administrators within NCAA Division I FBS institutions. The second purpose was to examine perceptions of perceived career mobility, job satisfaction, and organizational turnover intentions as a function of gender and ethnicity or race among the same population. Within this chapter, the methodology will be described within the following sections: (a) participants, (b) instruments, (c) procedures, and (d) data analysis.

Participants

The focus of this study was on senior-level administrators; specifically, associate directors of athletics at NCAA Division I FBS institutions. The reason that this population was chosen for the present study was because senior-level administrators most likely report directly to the Athletic Director, which is the next level of professional advancement within the industry. Put another way, the associate athletic director is the highest administrator level within intercollegiate athletics, with the exception of the athletic director position, and the only professional advancement position within the department.

As of 2017, there were 352 NCAA Division I member institutions; at the subdivision level, there were 129 FBS, 127 FCS, and 96 NFS member institutions (“NCAA Members,” 2017). There were a total of 1,887 associate athletic directors across all three NCAA Divisions during the 2015-2016 academic years. Although

NCAA Division I institutions represent 37% of total, these institutions employ a greater number of associate athletic directors overall. More specifically, there were a total of 1,076 associate athletic directors at NCAA Division I FBS, including historically black colleges and universities (“National Collegiate Athletic Association,” 2016).

Associate athletic directors were chosen from five business areas of intercollegiate athletic administration: (a) fundraising/development, (b) operations, (c) marketing, (d) finance, and (e) compliance. However, not all FBS institutions had an associate athletic director level assigned to each respective business area. For example, if the highest-level administrator in charge of the business department for the selected areas was an assistant athletic director, the administrator was not selected for participation in the study. Therefore, only senior associate or associate athletic directors was selected for this study.

The five business areas were chosen for this study because previous researchers have identified career paths to the athletic director position—experience within intercollegiate athletic administration being one path (i.e., Wong, 2014). Moreover, a large number of Division I athletic directors have worked their way up through intercollegiate athletic administration (Wong, 2014). Additionally, Wong (2014) observed that athletic directors with previous intercollegiate athletic experience had business experiences that were most common from these five business areas.

The participants were identified using the member institution websites and a professional organization database. First, the researcher collected and compiled contact information from each member institution’s website. Second, the contact information was checked against a professional organization database (i.e., National Association of

Collegiate Directors of Athletics (NACDA)) used by many administrators within the industry. After the participant information had been compiled, a pre-notification email was sent to all participants. This process will be described further within the procedure section of this chapter.

The participants for this study were selected because of the level of their positions (i.e., senior associate or associate athletic directors) within intercollegiate athletic administration. Additionally, administrators working only for NCAA Division I FBS institutions were selected to participate in this study. Therefore, the sampling scheme described within this section reflects criterion sampling, or choosing participants based on certain criteria (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007).

Welty Peachey et al. (2014) have conducted research among the same population and achieved a 32% response rate; however, a 20% response rate was assumed for the present study. Additionally, Welty Peachey et al. (2014) reported a 13% rate for undeliverable emails. The same undeliverable email rate of 13% was assumed within this study; using this 13% undeliverable rate, the adjusted population size was $1,076 \times 13\% = 936$ participants; and with an expected 20% response rate, approximately 187 surveys were anticipated. According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970), in order to obtain a representative number of participants, a minimum sample size of 269 would be ideal for a population size of 900. Several researchers (cf. Table 8) have yielded higher response rates when examining turnover intentions among intercollegiate athletic coaches; however, a more conservative responses rate was assumed for this study because these researchers had conducted several studies within the sport administration field

previously, which could have resulted in higher response rates due to their high profile as researchers in this area.

Table 8

Response Rates and Instrument Format for Turnover Intention Studies Within Intercollegiate Athletics

Year	Authors	Population	Instrument Format	Sample Size	Response Rate
2014	Welty Peachey, Burton, & Wells	Senior Intercollegiate Athletic Administrators (All NCAA Divisions)	Online survey	196	32%
2014	Wells, Welty Peachey, & Walker	NCAA Div. I assistant coaches (BB, SB, VB)	Online survey	294	23%
2011	Wells & Welty Peachey	NCAA Div. I assistant coaches (softball & volleyball)	Online and in-person survey	208	28.7% (online) 44.7% (overall)
2009	Ryan & Sagas	NCAA Divisions (all) head coaches	Mailed survey	346	3.5%
2006	Cunningham	10 NCAA Div. IA athletic departments (excluding coaches and AD)	Mailed Questionnaire Packet	299	37.5%
2006	Turner & Jordan	NCAA Div. I & III head coaches	Mailed Questionnaire	328	45.3%

(continued)

Year	Authors	Population	Instrument Format	Sample Size	Response Rate
2005	Turner & Chelladurai	NCAA Div. I & III head coaches (excluding track and field)	Mailed Questionnaire	328	45.3%
2005	Cunningham, Fink, & Sagas	NCAA Div. I Softball coaches and Div. IA athletic department employees	Mailed Questionnaire	213 coaches 189 employees	43% coaches 7.25% employees
2004	Cunningham & Sagas (a)	NCAA Div. I Asst. coaches for men's BB	Mailed questionnaire	235	37%
2004	Cunningham & Sagas (b)	NCAA Div. IA Football coaches	Mailed questionnaire	387	37.7%
2003	Cunningham & Sagas	NCAA Div. I Asst. coaches of Women's teams	Mailed questionnaire	188	51.6%
2001	Cunningham, Sagas, & Ashley	NCAA Div. I Asst. coaches' BB (men only)	Mailed questionnaire	152	35.2%
2001	Sagas & Batista	NCAA all divisions coaches of women's teams	Emailed questionnaire	273	22%
Average Response Rate					38%

Instruments

The survey was created using an electronic survey application, Survey Monkey, and was sent electronically to the participants within the study. The quantitative survey contains four sections: (a) demographic information, (b) perceived career mobility scale, (c) job satisfaction, and (d) organizational turnover intentions. Each section will be described separately within this section and a copy of the survey is provided in Appendix A.

Demographic information. The first section of the survey was designed to meet the first purpose of the study, to collect descriptive data pertaining to profile characteristics (i.e., demographic, professional, and educational) for senior-level administrators within NCAA Division I FBS institutions. The included items within this section were based on a combination of two previous research studies examining profile characteristics among intercollegiate athletic administrators. More specifically, the demographic section was designed using Quartermann's (1999) study examining the profile characteristics of intercollegiate athletic conference commissioners. Quartermann (1999) was one of the first researchers who collected descriptive data that included personal, educational, and professional characteristics for intercollegiate athletic administrators. The section also was designed using more recent research studies examining profile characteristics of intercollegiate athletic directors (Wong et al., 2015). However, the recent works of Wong et al. (2015) were not conducted using a survey instrument. Instead, the researchers collected data from a variety of resources at three different points in time; the data sources were not disclosed within the study.

There were a total of 20 items within the demographic information section of the survey. Three items pertained specifically to demographic information, namely, gender, ethnicity, and age. Two items were used to identify the type of institution and athletic conference. One item was used to categorize the educational background of the administrator. Four items were incorporated to examine the normative five-step career patterns as described by Fitzgerald et al. (1994). Five items focused specifically on current experience and two items about previous or total experience within intercollegiate athletic administration. Two items elicited information regarding the gender distribution of leadership positions at the institution to address previous research exploring homologous reproduction theory within intercollegiate athletic administration (Burton et al., 2011; Stangl & Kane, 1991; Whisenant et al., 2002). Lastly, one item specifically focused on previous involvement or attachment to the institution (i.e., alumni). Where possible, responses to items were categorical in nature (e.g., number of years of experience).

In order to address content-related validity, four professors from a kinesiology department were asked to review the survey; feedback was received from three of the four professors. Of the three professors who provided feedback, two had extensive experience developing survey instruments and one with extensive experience in the area of gender and sport. The combined suggestions for the demographic information section are provided below:

- a) Two reviewers suggested the use of sex instead of gender when obtaining demographic information; therefore, the use of sex instead of gender was used within the demographic information section of the instrument.

- b) Two reviewers suggested the use of continuous variables when obtaining information related to age and years of experience.
- c) Two reviewers provided grammatical changes for two items.
- d) One reviewer suggested obtaining more specific educational characteristics (i.e., doctoral degree type).
- e) Two reviewers suggested obtaining more detailed information on previous work experience.

Perceived career mobility scale. Researchers have developed career mobility models; however, Feldman and Ng (2007) suggested that these constructs are somewhat ambiguous and require further refinement. Feldman and Ng (2007) suggested that researchers needed to be more precise with the terms used to define mobility, the constructs used to measure them within their studies, and the inferences made to avoid misconceptions about research findings. In order to examine perceptions of advancement and/or upward mobility, a perceived career mobility scale was selected. More specifically, João, and Coetzee (2012) designed an instrument for their study in examining job retentions, perceived career mobility, and organizational commitment factors in the South African financial sector. A scale designed to measure perceptions of career mobility was included within this study because the construct has yet to be explored among intercollegiate athletic administrators. Additionally, the scale designed by João, and Coetzee (2012) was selected due to its ability to measure perceptions of both intraorganizational and interorganizational career mobility. Permission to use the scale can be found in Appendix B.

The scale consists of 15-items divided into two subscales designed to measure intraorganizational (4 items) and interorganizational (9 items) factors. The two scales also include 17 items relating to factors that would keep people from leaving an organization. Responses were recorded on a 5-point Likert-format scale (5 = strongly agree to 1 = strongly disagree). An internal consistency score reliability coefficients of .85 for perceived interorganizational career mobility and .64 for perceived intraorganizational career mobility were reported, which was considered to be acceptable by the authors for the study (João & Coetzee, 2012). However, Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) recommend an internal consistency measure of at least .75.

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured using a 12-item scale originally developed by Weaver and Chelladurai (2002). The scale specifically was designed for use within a study to examine mentoring within intercollegiate athletic administration (Weaver & Chelladurai, 2002). This scale was chosen for the present study because it was specifically designed for use within intercollegiate athletic administration.

Participants were asked to indicate their levels of satisfaction to items relating to their current job using a 7-point Likert-format scale (7 = very satisfied to 1 = very dissatisfied). Weaver and Chelladurai (2002) conducted an exploratory factor analysis and reported three factors, which were named: (a) Extrinsic rewards, (b) Intrinsic satisfaction, and (c) Work group. Internal consistency score reliabilities of .77, .88, and .74 were reported respectively for the three factors—indicating that each item was appropriate for the factors reported (Weaver & Chelladurai, 2002). Permission to use the scale was granted from one of the authors, a copy of the email can be found in Appendix C.

Turnover intention constructs. A five-item scale developed by Crossley, Bennett, Jex, and Burnfield (2007) was used within this study to examine voluntary turnover intentions or intentions to leave the organization. The rationale for choosing to use this construct was two-fold; first, Allen et al. (2014) stated that many research studies rely heavily on one-item surveys to measure organizational turnover intention; therefore, a 5-item scale was chosen. Second, a three-item scale has been more commonly used within intercollegiate athletics; however, Welty Peachey et al. (2014) used the five-item scale to examine leadership behaviors on turnover intentions among intercollegiate athletic administrators. In keeping with Welty Peachey et al.'s (2014) study, Crossley et al.'s (2007) 5-item scale was used within the present study because turnover intentions were examined among a similar population (i.e., senior administrators within intercollegiate athletics). Refer to Table 9 for turnover intentions scales used within intercollegiate athletic administration.

Table 9

Turnover Intention Scales Within Intercollegiate Athletic Research

Year of Publication	Author	Original Source	Occupational or Organizational	Items	Scale
2014	Welty Peachey, Burton, & Wells	Crossley, Bennett, Jex, & Burnfield (2007)	Organizational	5-items	5-point Likert-format scale (5 = strongly agree to 1 = strongly disagree)
2014	Wells, Welty Peachey, & Walker	Meyer, Allen, & Smith (1993); Cunningham (2006)	Organizational	3-items	
2011	Wells & Welty Peachey	Meyer, Allen, & Smith (1993); Cunningham (2006)	Organizational	3-items	5-point Likert-format scale (4 = strongly agree to 0 = strongly disagree)
2009	Ryan & Sagas	Cunningham, Sagas, & Ashley (2001)	Occupational	3-items	7-point Likert-format scale
2006	Cunningham	Meyer, Allen, & Smith (1993)	Organizational	3-items	Not provided
2006	Turner & Jordan	Meyer, Allen, & Smith (1993)	Organizational	2-items	7-point Likert-format scale (7 = strongly agree to 1 = strongly disagree)

(continued)

Year of Publication	Author	Original Source	Occupational or Organizational	Items	Scale
2005	Turner & Chelladurai	Meyer, Allen, & Smith (1993)	Both	2-items	Not provided
2005	Cunningham, Fink, & Sagas	Modified from Meyer, Allen, & Smith (1993)	Organizational	2-items	7-point Likert-format scale (7 = strongly agree to 1 = strongly disagree)
2004a	Cunningham & Sagas (a)	Meyer, Allen, & Smith (1993)	Organizational	2-items	7-point Likert-format scale (7 = strongly agree to 1 = strongly disagree)
2004b	Cunningham & Sagas (b)	Meyer, Allen, & Smith (1993)	Organizational	3-items	7-point Likert-format scale (7 = strongly agree to 1 = strongly disagree)
2003	Cunningham & Sagas	Not indicated	Occupational	1-item	Not provided
2001	Cunningham, Sagas, & Ashley	Adapted from Sagas (2000)	Occupational	2-items	7-point Likert-format scale (7 = often to 1 = never)
2001	Sagas & Batista	Meyer, Allen, & Smith (1993)	Occupational	1-item	7-point Likert-format scale (1 = not at all to 7 = very likely)

The five-item turnover intentions scale was assessed via 7-point Likert-format items (7 = strongly agree to 1 = strongly disagree) (Crossley et al., 2007). Crossley et al. (2007) reported the voluntary turnover intention scale to yield reliable scores ($\alpha = 0.89$). Moreover, results from a principal-factor analysis revealed correlations for the five items that ranged from .73 to .91, suggesting that each item was a good fit for the variable. A copy of the scale and permission from the first author is provided within Appendix D.

Procedures

An application was submitted to the Institutional Review Board (IRB) for approval prior to conducting the study. A copy of the IRB Approval is provided in Appendix E. After IRB approval was granted, the data collection phase of the study consisted of approximately 4 to 5 weeks from the time the first contact with participants had been established, or from Step 2 of the procedures described below. The procedures were as follows:

1. The contact information for all senior associate and associate athletic directors was obtained by visiting each member institution school website for all NCAA Division I FBS institutions ($N = 129$). Contact information collected included title, email address, and phone number; the contact information was incorporated into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet, creating a contact information database.
2. A pre-notification email (Day 1) was sent to all administrators within the database to inform them of the study. The pre-notification step helped to manage undeliverable email addresses as well as for administrators who had retired or had changed positions (Welty Peachey et al., 2014).

3. Immediately following the pre-notification emails, a second attempt was made to obtain correct contact information for any undeliverable emails using a third party professional organization database (i.e., NACDA).
4. Within 1 week of the pre-notification email process (Day 7), the electronic surveys were sent to the identified athletic administrators. An Informed Consent Letter was sent, along with the link to the online survey; to insure anonymity, participants were informed that completion of the survey indicated consent. A copy of the Informed Consent Letter is displayed in Appendix F.
5. A reminder email was sent within 7 days following the email invitation (Day 14).
6. A final reminder was sent 7 days after the first reminder email (Day 21).
7. The survey link remained open for approximately 30 days from the time that the survey invitation was sent out (Day 7). The data collection phase of the study concluded after approximately 4 to 5 weeks from the time that the pre-notification email was sent (i.e., Step 2).

The procedures described earlier had been adapted from a quantitative research study using an electronic survey instrument, focusing on a similar population within intercollegiate athletic administration (i.e., senior-level intercollegiate athletic administrators across NCAA institutions) (Welty Peachey et al., 2014). As noted previously, Welty Peachey et al. (2014) reported a 13% rate for returned email addresses or administrators who had retired or changed positions; this assumption was applied to the current study as well.

Due to the nature and objective of the study, a postpositivist research paradigm was utilized (Phillips & Burbules, 2000). According to Creswell (2014), postpositivists study problems in hopes of identifying causes in order to determine outcomes. Because the objective of this study was to understand better the effects of turnover intention behavior among intercollegiate athletic administrators as a function of gender and ethnicity, the postpositivist paradigm was appropriate. More specifically, the intent of this study was to understand the relationship among perceived career mobility, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions for intercollegiate athletic administrators as a function of gender and ethnicity.

In order to examine the relationship of work outcomes (i.e., perceived career mobility, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions) among participants, a quantitative research design using causal-comparative research was used (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). Causal-comparative research is used best when researchers attempt to discover effects among group behaviors (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2009). In this study, the objective was to examine perceived career mobility, job satisfaction, and turnover intention behaviors among intercollegiate athletic administrators, as previously stated.

Data Analysis

The data analyses conducted within this study were based on the following research questions:

RQ1: What are the demographic, educational, and professional characteristics of senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions?

- RQ2: What is the difference in perceived career mobility among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender?
- RQ3: What is the difference in perceived career mobility among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of ethnicity?
- RQ4: What is the difference in perceived career mobility among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender and ethnicity?
- RQ5: What is the difference in job satisfaction among senior-level athletic administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender?
- RQ6: What is the difference in job satisfaction among senior-level athletic administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of ethnicity?
- RQ7: What is the difference in job satisfaction among senior-level athletic administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender and ethnicity?
- RQ8: What is the difference in organizational turnover intentions among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender?

RQ9: What is the difference in organizational turnover intentions among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of ethnicity?

RQ10: What is the difference in organizational turnover intentions among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender and ethnicity?

RQ11: What factors (perceived career mobility, job satisfaction, gender, and ethnicity) best predict organizational turnover intentions among senior-level administrators within NCAA Division I FBS institutions?

Both descriptive and inferential statistics were conducted for all research questions to analyze data pertaining to demographic information (i.e., gender and ethnicity or race), perceived career mobility, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions. Additionally, assumptions of normality (e.g., skewness and kurtosis; e.g., via Shapiro-Wilk tests) were assessed for all variables prior to determining which statistical tests were used for further analyses; a level of .05 was used to determine statistical significance. The software program that was used to interpret and to analyze the collected quantitative data was Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Version 22 (IBM Corp, 2013).

Descriptive statistics were reported to address the first research question. Specifically, means were reported as a measure of central tendency and standard deviations used to assess variation. For research questions examining mean differences between an independent variable and dependent variable, a series of univariate analyses was conducted. Moreover, a series of independent samples *t* tests was conducted for RQ2, RQ3, RQ5, RQ6, RQ8, and RQ9.

Perceived career mobility (RQ4), job satisfaction (RQ7), and turnover intentions (RQ10) all served separately as dependent variables, and gender and ethnicity served as independent variables for each of these research questions. A factorial two-way analysis of variance (ANOVAs) was performed to determine the interaction effects involving the independent variables for these questions (i.e., gender x ethnicity interaction), as well as the two main effects—one pertaining to each independent variable. To ensure that data were normally distributed with equal variances, a Shapiro-Wilk test was conducted.

The last research question (RQ11) was analyzed by performing a standard multiple regression analysis in order to examine the portion of variance in the dependent variable (i.e., organizational turnover intentions) that was explained by the independent variables (perceived career mobility, job satisfaction, gender, and ethnicity). Descriptive statistics, including means, standard deviation, variance, skewness, and kurtosis, were reported. Assumptions of normality or the distribution of scores were assessed using Shapiro-Wilk test. In order to assess the linearity of variables, a scattermatrix was reviewed to assess the bivariate relationships involving all independent variables. Correlations of all variables were examined by using Pearson's r . The assumption of independence was assessed using the Durbin-Watson statistic. Homogeneity of variance assumptions were assessed using scatterplots. Lastly, multicollinearity was assessed to review the variance inflation factor (VIF) of the independent variables. Effect sizes were reported and interpreted for all statistically significant findings.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

As previously stated, the objective of this study was two-fold; the first purpose of the study was to describe profile characteristics of senior-level athletic administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions using descriptive statistics. Characteristics included three categories: (a) demographic, (b) education level and discipline, and (c) business-related experience. The second purpose was to determine whether differences existed in perceived career mobility (PCM), job satisfaction (JS), and organizational turnover intentions (TO) as a function of gender and ethnicity among this population.

An instrument was developed specifically for this study to collect and to describe profile characteristics. Moreover, the instrument was constructed by using a combination of surveys where researchers obtained characteristic information in order to profile administrators within athletic administration (Quartermann, 1999; Wong et al., 2015). Feedback on the constructed survey instrument for this study was received from researchers within the sport administration field for readability and content-related validity. Refer back to Chapter III for specific information pertaining to the rationale for all items included within this scale.

For the second purpose, three separate scales were used that were developed previously. The first scale was designed to measure perceived career mobility and included items to assess both intraorganizational and interorganizational constructs ((João & Coetzee, 2012). The second scale was developed previously for use within athletic administration to measure levels of job satisfaction (Weaver & Chelladurai, 2002).

Finally, the third scale measures organizational turnover intentions; the scale was developed from scholars within the business management field (Crossley et al., 2007); however, it has been recently used within intercollegiate athletic administration turnover intention research (Welty Peachey et al., 2014).

Organization of Data Analysis

The remaining chapter will include results that address the following research questions within the study:

RQ1: What are the demographic, educational, and professional characteristics of senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions?

RQ2: What is the difference in perceived career mobility among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender?

RQ3: What is the difference in perceived career mobility among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of ethnicity?

RQ4: What is the difference in perceived career mobility among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender and ethnicity?

RQ5: What is the difference in job satisfaction among senior-level athletic administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender?

RQ6: What is the difference in job satisfaction among senior-level athletic administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of ethnicity?

RQ7: What is the difference in job satisfaction among senior-level athletic administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender and ethnicity?

RQ8: What is the difference in organizational turnover intentions among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender?

RQ9: What is the difference in organizational turnover intentions among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of ethnicity?

RQ10: What is the difference in organizational turnover intentions among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender and ethnicity?

RQ11: What factors (perceived career mobility, job satisfaction, gender, and ethnicity) best predict organizational turnover intentions among senior-level administrators within NCAA Division I FBS institutions?

To address the first research question, descriptive data and statistics were presented and discussed, as previously stated. The following research questions provided results for a series of independent sample *t* tests to report the differences between levels of each independent variable (i.e., gender and ethnicity) by each dependent variable (i.e., PCM, JS, and TO) within the study: RQ2, RQ3, RQ5, RQ6, RQ8, and RQ9. A two-way factorial ANOVA was conducted to explain the interaction and main effects for both independent variables by each dependent variable for three separate research questions in the study (RQ4, RQ7, and RQ10, respectively). Finally, the last research question (RQ11) was included to determine which variables (i.e., gender, ethnicity, PCM, and JS) and to what extent were predictors of TO; results of a multiple regression analysis will be provided to conclude the results section of this chapter.

The organization of this chapter will begin with an overview of the data collection phase. Content within this section will include a description of the process commencing with IRB approval, followed by the procedures described within Chapter III, and a report of response rates and survey completion time as well as feedback from the research participants (i.e., free format text). The remaining sections will be presented in the following order: (a) RQ1: descriptive data; (b) RQ2, RQ3, RQ5, RQ6, RQ8, and RQ9: descriptive and inferential statistics; (c) RQ4, RQ7, and RQ10; descriptive and inferential statistics and (d) RQ11: descriptive and inferential statistics.

Data Collection Phase

The data collection phase began immediately following IRB Approval on May 31, 2017. As part of the data collection process, a database was created by collecting contact information for senior-level administrators from all ($N = 130$) NCAA Division I FBS institutions. The following titles were included within this database: Deputy Director, Chief Financial Officer, Chief Operating Officer, Chief Marketing Officer, Associate Vice President, Executive Associate Athletic Director, Senior Executive Associate Athletic Director, Senior Associate Athletic Director, and Associate Athletic Director.

After compiling contact information for senior-administrators with specific titles, a total of 1,257 senior-level administrators were collected. The average number of senior-level administrators at each NCAA Division I FBS institutions was 9.7, the maximum number was 23, and the minimum number was three. The minimum and maximum number of senior-level administrators at each NCAA Division I FBS institutions varied overall; however, the size and athletic budgets of institutions were not collected and, therefore, not compared to analyze this information further. In other

words, no conclusions can be made regarding the number of administrators employed at each institution based on institutional size or budget.

As previously described, the first point of contact was a pre-notification email (Day 1) sent to all 1,257 participants informing them of the study. Additionally, the pre-notification email provided the opportunity to correct undeliverable email addresses within the database; the pre-notification email was sent on June 23, 2017. A total of 148 emails were deemed undeliverable, producing an undeliverable rate of 11.77%. Both institution websites and a national directory for college athletic administrators (i.e., NACDA) were used to obtain correct contact information for 121 of the 148 returned emails, reducing the undeliverable rate to 2.15%. A total of 27 email addresses could not be corrected or obtained; therefore, the adjusted population for this study was 1,231 and will be used to report response rates.

Following the pre-notification email (Day 1), a total of four additional emails were sent to the participants in this study. More specifically, the second email was sent on June 28, 2017 (Day 7); this email and all subsequent emails included the link to the survey, via Survey Monkey as a data collection application. The third email was sent on July 6, 2017 (Day 14), the fourth email was sent on July 12, 2017 (Day 21), and the final email was sent on July 19, 2017 (Day 28). Because the email distribution was sent utilizing an internal mass email system at the institution where the study took place, the four additional emails were sent using the same letter and email distribution list in order to streamline the process. More specifically, the email and mailing list were not modified for all subsequent emails and any additional returned email addresses were not corrected further.

A total of 228 responses were received; however, 15 surveys were incomplete and removed from the dataset for analysis. Therefore, the final number of completed responses was 213, yielding a 17% response rate. The majority or 38% of responses were recorded after the week of Day 7, 21% were received after the Day 14 mailing, 25% were received after the Day 21 mailing, and 14% of responses were received after the final week of data collection on or after Day 28.

The length of time to complete the survey was a consideration in the early design stages of this study. Moreover, in the design phase, four professors from a Kinesiology Department were asked to complete the survey and report the average length of time to complete the survey, as previously described within the procedures section. Three of the four professors completed the survey and reported an average completion time at approximately 10 to 15 minutes.

After the data collection phase was completed, the actual average time to complete the survey was 8 minutes and 4 seconds, which, was less than expected based on the reviewers' feedback. Survey Monkey, the data collection application, was used to report the average time. Additionally, participants were provided the opportunity to provide feedback at the end of the survey. A total of 35 participants provided feedback within this free-format field. To examine the data further, a qualitative frequency analysis method was used (Onwuegbuzie, Leech, & Collins, 2012). Moreover, seven participants specifically provided feedback pertaining to either the length of time or process of completing the survey; all seven comments were interpreted as positive feedback. Comments indicated that the survey was easy to complete and required no

more than 10 to 15 minutes. For example, one respondent stated, “the survey did not take very long to complete. It took less than the anticipated 10 to 15-minute time frame.”

Findings

Descriptive analysis.

RQ1: What are the demographic, educational, and professional characteristics of senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions?

Demographic, educational, and professional data were collected and analyzed further among senior-level athletic administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions to address the first research question. More specifically, gender, ethnicity, and age were collected to describe the demographic characteristics of senior-level athletic administrators. Educational degree type and area of study were collected to describe educational characteristics among the same population. And lastly, participants were asked to provide the current title of their position, number of years in their current position, the age when they first became a senior-level athletic administrator, and the total number of years as a senior-level athletic administrator to describe the professional characteristics. The results will be described within this section.

Demographic characteristics. As previously stated, there were 213 complete responses to the survey. Of the completed surveys, 131 were men and 82 were women. With respect to ethnicity or race, 176 or 83% were White, 25 or 12% were Black or African American, six or 3% were Hispanic, one was Asian, one from multiple races, and three participants chose not to answer the question. For the purpose of this study, only White and Black or African American categories will be analyzed due to the insufficient

sample sizes of the other categories obtained within these data. Therefore, only two ethnic categories will be examined further.

With respect to age, the mean age of participants was 47.04 ($SD = 9.79$) years (Male $M = 46.90$, $SD = 10.11$; Female $M = 47.27$, $SD = 9.295$); however, only 209 participants provided their age. The youngest senior-athletic administrator was 29 years of age and the oldest was 70 years of age. A histogram is provided below to display the age distribution.

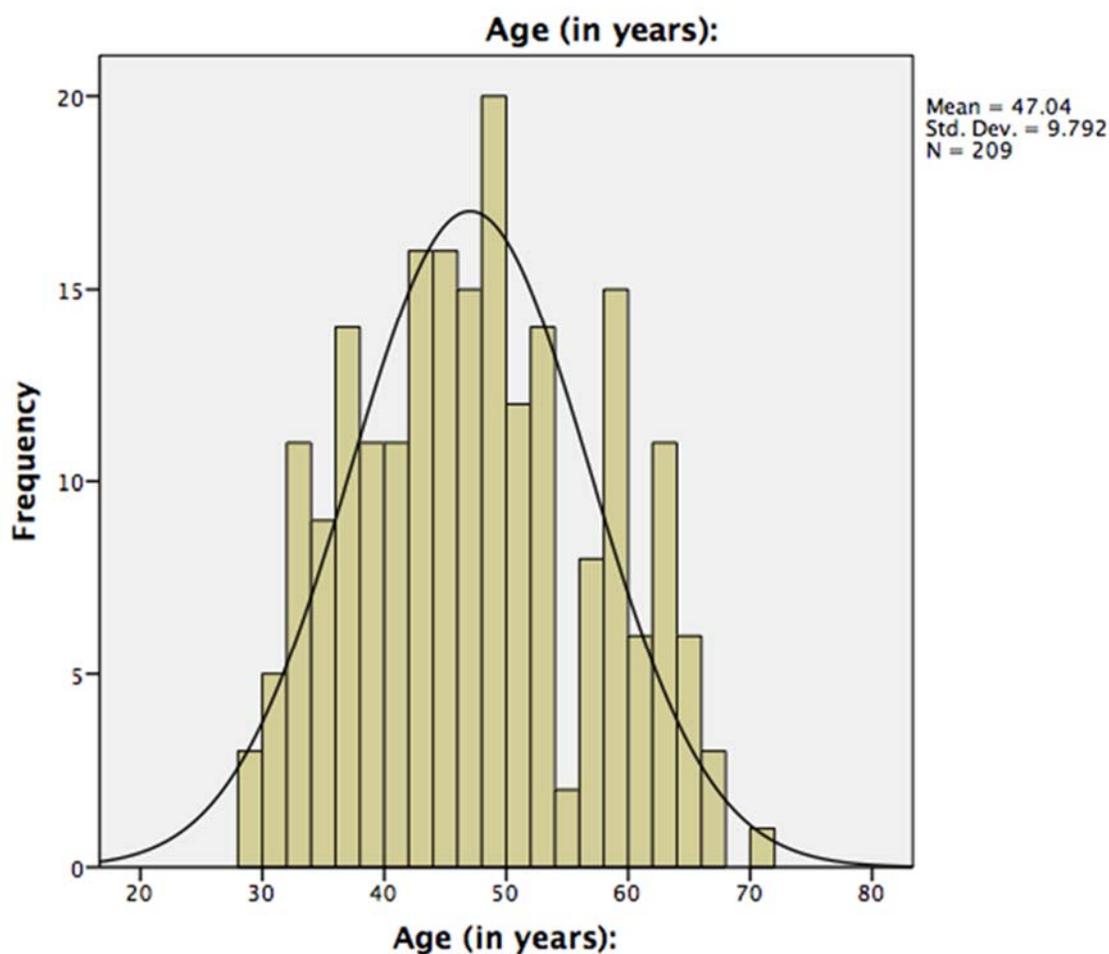


Figure 1. Age distribution of athletic administrators.

Educational characteristics. In examining the educational characteristics among senior-level administrators, all of the senior-level athletic administrators held undergraduate degrees and the majority held graduate degrees. More specifically, all of the 213 participants had completed a Bachelor's Degree and 165 or 77% of participants had completed a Master's Degree. For advanced degrees, 27 or 13% of 213 participants held a doctoral degree and 18 or 9% held J.D. or law degrees. Women were slightly more likely than were men to hold graduate or advanced degrees. Refer to Table 10 for the distribution of educational level by gender and ethnicity.

Table 10

Educational Level by Gender and Ethnic Group

		Totals	Educational level							
			Bachelor's		Master's		Doctoral		J.D. or Law	
Men			#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
	White	107	106	99%	82	77%	8	7%	9	8%
	Black	17	17	100%	11	65%	6	35%	1	6%
	Hispanic	3	3	100%	3	100%	0	0%	0	0%
	Asian	1	1	100%	1	100%	0	0%	0	0%
	Multiple races	1	1	100%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
	Some other race	1	1	100%	1	100%	0	0%	0	0%
	Prefer not to answer	1	1	100%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
Total		131	130	99%	98	75%	14	11%	10	8%
Women										
	White	69	66	96%	56	81%	8	12%	6	9%
	Black	8	8	100%	7	89%	3	38%	1	13%
	Hispanic	3	3	100%	3	100%	2	67%	0	0%
	Asian	0	N/A		N/A		N/A		N/A	
	Multiple Races	0	N/A		N/A		N/A		N/A	
	Other Race	0	N/A		N/A		N/A		N/A	
	Prefer not to answer	2	1	50%	1	50%	0	0%	1	0%
Total		82	82	100%	67	82%	13	16%	8	10%
Combined total		213	212	99%	165	77%	27	13%	18	9%

The areas of study varied at the undergraduate level; however, both graduate and advanced degrees were more likely to be in an area of study related to education or athletic administration specifically. For Bachelor's degrees, 166 respondents provided a specific area of study, 42 respondents provided either a generic response (e.g., BS) or a degree that was uncommon, and five respondents did not indicate an area of study at all even though they had completed advanced degrees. Of the respondents who did indicate an area of study, the most common undergraduate degree was in business, with 28 participants having completed a degree in this area.

As mentioned, a total of 165 participants indicated that they had completed a graduate degree and 143 provided a specific area of study. The most common area of study at this level was in sport administration, with 80 participants having completed a Master's Degree in this discipline. Business administration was the second most common area of study, with 18 participants obtaining a degree in this field.

With respect to advanced degrees, there were a total of 29 participants who completed doctoral degrees and 18 who completed a J.D. or law degree. The most common academic discipline at the doctoral level was in Educational Leadership, with 13 participants having completed a degree within this area of study. Sport Administration was the second most common area of study, with a total of six participants.

Professional characteristics. In examining the professional characteristics, the respondents were asked to provide a title for their current position; the most common position was Associate Athletic Administrator ($n = 86$), followed by Senior Associate Athletic Administrator ($n = 73$). A total of five respondents chose 'other' and provided titles that included Chief Financial Officer (CFO) Chief Operating Officer (COO),

Associate Dean, Executive Director, and Coach. The titles of all respondents are provided in a histogram below.

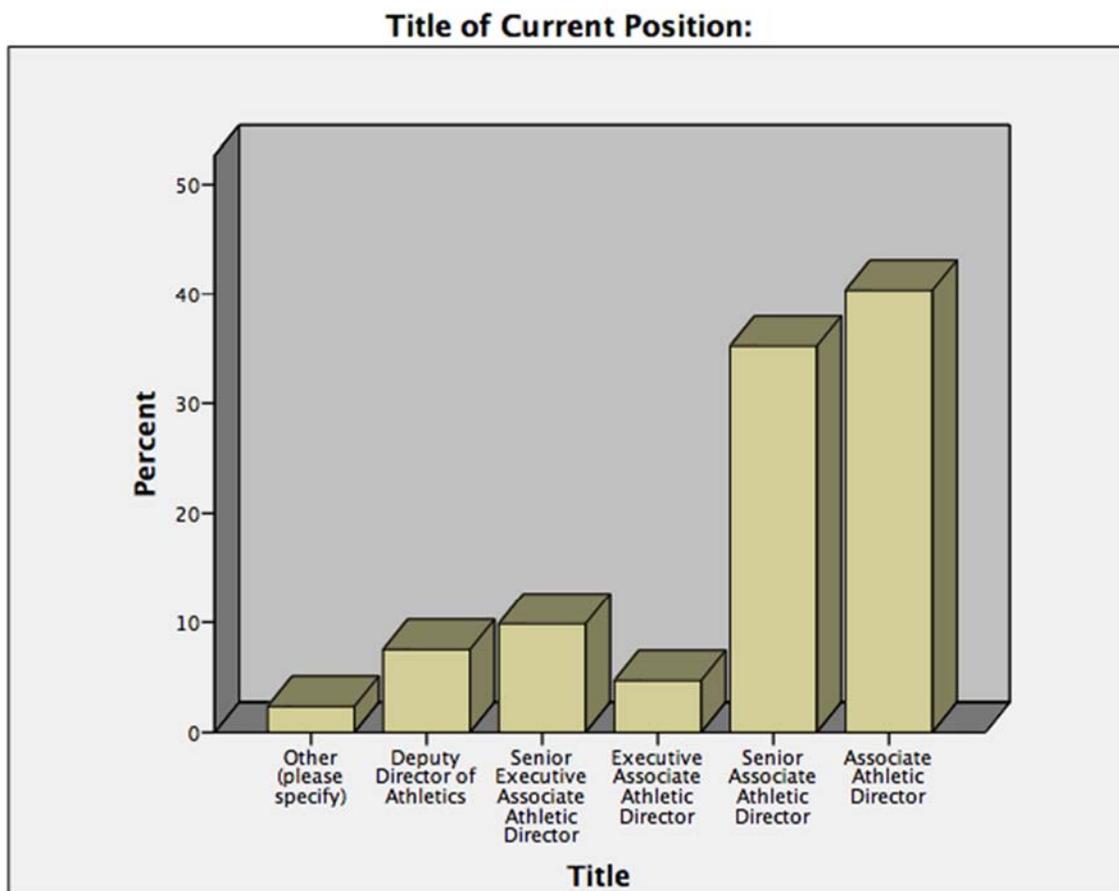


Figure 2. Titles of administrators within the study.

Senior athletic administrators were asked to indicate the number of years in their current position. The mean number of years reported was 6.83 ($SD = 6.67$); however, 22 participants did not respond to the question. The minimum length of time in the current position was 1 year or less; this was also the most common response, with a total 35 participants indicating that they had been in their position for this length of time. The maximum length of time in a current position was 42 years, reported by only one

participant in the study. Furthermore, the title of the person who had been in their role for 42 years was an Associate Athletic Director.

Participants were asked to indicate the age when they first became a senior-level athletic administrator ($M = 37.72$, $SD = 8.57$); a total of 14 participants did not respond to this question. The minimum or youngest age to become a senior athletic administrator was 23 years of age and the oldest age to become a senior athletic administrator was 66 years of age. The most common age to become a senior-level athletic administrator was 34 years of age, with a total of 16 participants indicating this is when they first become a senior-athletic administrator. Approximately 30% of the participants had become a senior-level athletic administrator between the ages of 30 and 35 years of age and approximately 58% between the ages of 30 and 42 years of age.

Lastly, participants were asked to indicate the total number of combined years working at the senior athletic administrator level. A total of 105 participants had indicated that their current position was the only position held at this level, in which case, their responses were reflected in the length of time in their current position previously reported. A total of 103 participants indicated that they held two or more positions at the senior athletic administrator level, with a mean of 13.66 years ($SD = 8.38$). However, only 92 of the 103 participants provided the combined number of years at the senior athletic administrator level. The minimum length of time for participants who held more than one position at this level was 1 year and the maximum length of time was 34 years for combined positions at this level.

Independent Samples *t* test.

RQ2: What is the difference in perceived career mobility among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender?

RQ3: What is the difference in perceived career mobility among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of ethnicity?

RQ5: What is the difference in job satisfaction among senior-level athletic administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender?

RQ6: What is the difference in job satisfaction among senior-level athletic administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of ethnicity?

RQ8: What is the difference in organizational turnover intentions among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender?

RQ9: What is the difference in organizational turnover intentions among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of ethnicity?

To compare mean differences for each level of the dependent variable (i.e., PCM, JS, and TO) by each independent variable (i.e., gender and ethnicity), a series of independent samples *t* tests was conducted. Furthermore, histograms and measures of skewness and kurtosis were examined further for all independent and dependent variables to assess whether the data were distributed normally. Means and standard deviations are provided for all variables as a measure of central tendency and variation, respectively, as displayed in Table 11.

Table 11

Means and Standard Deviations for Dependent Variables (PCM, JS, and TO) as a Function of Gender and Ethnicity

Variable	PCM			JS			TO		
	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Total	213	35.94	6.64	213	62.32	13.35	213	14.39	6.98
Gender									
Men	131	36.61	6.23	131	62.66	12.96	131	15.08	6.86
Women	82	34.88	7.16	82	61.79	14.03	82	13.29	7.06
Ethnicity									
White	176	35.81	6.59	176	62.46	13.65	176	14.61	7.14
Black	25	35.96	6.29	25	60.44	11.54	25	13.64	6.54

A review of the histograms (not presented) indicated that data were distributed normally for the dependent variables (i.e., PCM, JS, and TO) for both men and women within the study. Additionally, assumptions of normality were also met for the dependent variables (i.e., PCM, JS, and TO) for both White and Black participants. More specifically, the standardized skewness (i.e., skewness coefficient divided by the standard error of skewness) and standardized kurtosis (i.e., kurtosis coefficient divided by the standard error of kurtosis) coefficients for PCM, JS, and TO were all within the range of normality (i.e., -3.00 and 3.00; Onwuegbuzie & Daniel, 2002); coefficients are presented in Table 12. Because there was no deviance from normality, the use of a parametric test was justified. Therefore, a series of independent samples *t* tests was conducted to examine the differences in PCM, JS, and TO as a function of gender and ethnicity.

Table 12

Standardized Skewness and Kurtosis for Dependent Variables (PCM, JS, TO) as a Function of Gender and Ethnicity

Variable	PCM		JS		TO	
	Skewness	Kurtosis	Skewness	Kurtosis	Skewness	Kurtosis
Total	0.26	-0.17	-2.90	-1.30	2.80	-0.81
Gender						
Men	-0.08	-1.04	-2.44	-1.09	2.09	-0.33
Women	0.83	0.72	-1.61	-0.75	2.14	-0.63
Ethnicity						
White	-0.08	0.31	-2.63	-1.16	2.74	-0.73
Black	0.20	-0.97	-0.86	-0.81	0.27	-1.28

Gender differences. There were no statistically significant differences in PCM, JS, and TO between men and women as yielded by the independent samples *t* test. Moreover, men ($M = 36.61$, $SD = 6.23$) and women ($M = 34.88$, $SD = 7.16$) at senior-athletic administrator levels within NCAA Division I FBS institutions scored relatively similarly on measures of perceptions of career mobility; $t(211) = 1.86$, $p = .06$. More specifically, men and women were likely to respond to questions regarding intraorganizational and interorganizational mobility in a similar manner; in other words, women and men perceived their career mobility within intercollegiate athletic administration to be similar within their respective organizations.

Additionally, no statistically significant differences were present in measures of job satisfaction between men ($M = 62.66$, $SD = 12.96$) and women ($M = 61.79$, $SD = 14.02$) at the same administrative level ($t[211] = 0.46$, $p = .65$). In other words, men and women reported similar levels of job satisfaction at the senior athletic administrative level among NCAA Division I FBS institutions. Moreover, men and women reported similar responses to questions regarding their levels of job satisfaction about their current positions within intercollegiate athletics at senior administrator levels.

Finally, there was no statistically significance difference with respect to organizational turnover intentions between men and women ($t[211] = 1.83$, $p = .07$). Men ($M = 15.08$, $SD = 6.86$) and women ($M = 13.29$, $SD = 7.06$) at senior administrator levels responded similarly to their turnover intentions within NCAA Division I FBS institutions. Furthermore, men and women were similarly likely to respond to questions regarding whether they planned to stay or leave their respective organizations alike.

Ethnic differences. No statistically significant differences were discovered on measures of PCM, JS, and TO between White and Black or African American participants, as revealed by the independent samples t test. More specifically, there was no statistically significant difference in perceptions of career mobility between participants who identified as White and those participants who identified as Black or African American ($t[199] = -0.11, p = .92$). Both White ($M = 35.81, SD = 6.59$) and Black/African American ($M = 35.96, SD = 6.29$) administrators were likely to respond to questions regarding intraorganizational and interorganizational mobility in similar ways within their current positions and organizations.

With respect to job satisfaction, there was no statistically significant difference between White and Black/African American athletic administrators ($t[199] = 0.71, p = .48$). Both White ($M = 62.46, SD = 13.65$) and Black/African American ($M = 60.44, SD = 11.54$) administrators were likely to report similar levels of job satisfaction within their respective organizations. In other words, there were no ethnic differences in job satisfaction levels within NCAA Division I FBS institutions at senior-levels of administration.

Lastly, the independent sample t test revealed no statistically significance difference in measures of organizational turnover intentions between White and Black/African American senior-level athletic administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions ($t[199] = 0.64, p = .52$). Particularly, White ($M = 14.61, SD = 7.14$) and Black/African American ($M = 13.64, SD = 6.54$) senior-level athletic administrators did not respond in different ways to questions regarding their intent to stay or to leave within the current jobs or organizations. The results revealed that no ethnic differences existed

with regard to how senior-level athletic administrators reported their turnover intentions among the highest level of intercollegiate athletic institutions.

Two-way Factorial ANOVA.

RQ4: What is the difference in perceived career mobility (PCM) among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender and ethnicity?

RQ7: What is the difference in job satisfaction among senior-level athletic administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender and ethnicity?

RQ10: What is the difference in organizational turnover intentions among senior level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender and ethnicity?

To determine the effects of gender and ethnicity on the three work-related outcomes (i.e., PCM, JS, and TO) among senior-level athletic administrators, three separate two-way ANOVAs were conducted. Because the independent variables (i.e., gender and ethnicity) were categorical, a two-way ANOVA was conducted (i.e., 2 X 2 factorial design). Additionally, participants in each group being observed were from different groups, supporting the use of a two-way ANOVA test.

An examination of the histograms (not presented) for gender and ethnicity in relation to the dependent variables (i.e., PCM, JS, and TO) indicated no departure from normality. Moreover, measures of standardized skewness and standardized kurtosis coefficients were examined for each dependent variable in order assess normality ranges. More specifically, standardized skewness (0.26) and standardized kurtosis (-0.17) for

PCM, standardized skewness (-2.90) and standardized kurtosis (-1.30) for JS, and standardized skewness (2.80) and standardized kurtosis (-0.81) for TO measures were all within the bounds of normality. Refer to Table 12 for review of standardized skewness and kurtosis. Because these data were distributed normally, a factorial two-way ANOVA was conducted in order to examine (a) gender differences in relation to each work-related outcomes, (b) ethnic differences in relation to each work-related outcome, and (c) whether an interaction existed between gender and ethnicity with respect to each of the three work-related outcomes examined within the study (i.e., PCM, JS, and TO).

In examination of the Levene's homogeneity of variance test, a statistically significant relationship was not revealed, indicating that variances were not statistically significantly different across all groups for each of the dependent variables examined (i.e., PCM, JS, and TO respectively). Means and standard deviations for PCM, JS, and TO as a function of gender and ethnicity are presented in Table 13.

Table 13

Means and Standard Deviations for Work-related Outcomes (i.e., PCM, JS, and TO) as a Function of Gender and Ethnicity

Source	Men (<i>n</i> = 124)		Women (<i>n</i> = 77)	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
PCM				
White	36.14	6.11	35.30	7.30
Black	37.18	5.83	33.38	6.84
JS				
White	62.73	13.15	62.04	14.45
Black	59.18	12.94	63.13	7.88
TO				
White	15.29	7.01	13.55	7.26
Black	14.71	6.43	11.38	6.61

The two-way interaction effect between gender and ethnicity for PCM was not statistically significant, $F(1, 197) = 0.99, p = .32, \eta^2 = .005$. Gender did not account for any differences in measures of perceptions of career mobility, $F(1,197) = 2.41, p < .12, \eta^2 = .012$. Additionally, ethnicity did not yield a statistically significant result main effect for PCM, $F(1, 197) = 0.09, p = .77, \eta^2 = .001$. A summary of the two-way ANOVA results for PCM is provided in Table 14.

Table 14

Summary Table for Two-Way ANOVA of the Effects of Gender and Ethnicity on PCM

Source	<i>SOS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	η^2
Gender	103.56	1	103.56	2.41	.12	.012
Ethnicity	3.84	1	3.84	0.09	.77	.001
Gender * Ethnicity	42.35	1	42.35	0.99	.32	.005
Error	8449.85	197	42.89			
Total	266612.00	201				

In interpretation of the effects for PCM, men ($M = 36.28$, $SD = 6.06$) were slightly more likely to report higher perceptions of career mobility than were women ($M = 35.10$, $SD = 7.24$) within intercollegiate athletic administration; however, this difference was not statistically significant. Additionally, administrators who were Black/African American ($M = 35.96$, $SD = 6.29$) reported slightly higher perceptions of career mobility than did administrators who were White ($M = 35.81$, $SD = 6.59$) but, again, the differences were statistically nonsignificant. In examining the interaction effect between gender and ethnicity, administrators who were Black/African American men ($M = 37.18$, $SD = 5.83$) reported slightly higher perceptions of career mobility than did White men ($M = 36.14$, $SD = 6.10$); however, the opposite relationship was true for women. Specifically, White women ($M = 35.30$, $SD = 7.30$) reported slightly higher perceptions of career mobility than did Black/African American women ($M = 33.38$, $SD = 6.84$). Considering the lack of diversity within intercollegiate athletics, particularly at higher levels of administration, the finding that Black/African American men reported higher levels of perceived career mobility than did White men was unexpected; however the results were statistically nonsignificant and could not be deemed as representing a non-chance finding. Therefore, the null hypothesis for gender and ethnicity main effects, and the interaction between the two independent variables on PCM scores, were not rejected.

With respect to JS, the two-way ANOVA interaction effect between gender and ethnicity on levels of job satisfaction (JS) was not statistically significant, $F(1, 197) = 0.57$, $p = .45$, $\eta^2 = .003$. Additionally, there was no statistically significant gender difference in job satisfaction levels, $F(1, 197) = 0.28$, $p = .60$, $\eta^2 = .001$. Likewise,

ethnicity did not display differences in job satisfaction levels, $F(1, 197) = 0.16$ $p = .69$, $\eta^2 = .001$. The two-way ANOVA results for JS are displayed in Table 15.

Table 15

Summary Table for Two-Way ANOVA of the Effects of Gender and Ethnicity on JS

Source	<i>SOS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	η^2
Gender	51.27	1	51.27	0.28	.60	.001
Ethnicity	29.40	1	29.40	0.16	.69	.001
Gender * Ethnicity	103.409	1	103.409	0.57	.45	.003
Error	35677.355	197	181.103			
Total	813732.00	201				

None of the main effects for gender and ethnicity, or interaction effect of the two variables on levels of JS produced a statistically significant result. However, findings revealed that men ($M = 62.24$, $SD = 13.13$) were slightly more likely than were women ($M = 62.16$, $SD = 13.90$) to report higher levels of job satisfaction, although this difference could not be deemed as representing a non-chance finding. With respect to ethnicity, White administrators ($M = 62.46$, $SD = 13.65$) reported higher levels of job satisfaction than did Black administrators ($M = 60.44$, $SD = 11.54$). Regarding the interaction effects, White men ($M = 62.73$, $SD = 13.15$) scored higher on measures of job satisfaction than did Black/African American men ($M = 59.18$, $SD = 12.94$). However, the reverse relationship occurred for women; specifically, Black/African American women ($M = 63.13$, $SD = 7.88$) reported higher levels of job satisfaction than did White women ($M = 62.04$, $SD = 14.47$). Because of the small sample size of Black/African American men ($n = 17$) and Black women ($n = 8$) within the current study, caution should be used when interpreting these findings irrespective of the lack of statistical significant results.

The last two-way ANOVA within the study pertained to TO; as for the other dependent measures, the results did not reveal a statistically significant two-way interaction effect between gender and ethnicity on TO scores, $F(1, 197) = 0.25$, $p = .62$, $\eta^2 = .001$. Additionally, neither gender ($F[1, 197] = 2.50$, $p = .12$, $\eta^2 = .013$), nor ethnicity ($F[1, 197] = 0.74$, $p = .39$, $\eta^2 = .004$) produced a statistically significant effect. The summary results for TO are displayed in Table 16.

Table 16

Summary Table for Two-Way ANOVA of the Effects of Gender and Ethnicity on TO

Source	<i>SOS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	η^2
Gender	123.776	1	123.776	2.50	.12	.013
Ethnicity	36.671	1	36.671	0.74	.39	.004
Gender * Ethnicity	12.203	1	12.203	0.25	.62	.001
Error	9756.496	197	49.525			
Total	52152.000	201				

Consistent with the two previous two-way ANOVA analyses within this section, none of the effects for gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two variables produced statistically significant results for levels of TO. Nonetheless, the findings provide slight differences that can be reported. Specifically, men ($M = 15.21$, $SD = 6.91$) indicated that they were more likely to have higher organizational turnover intentions at senior-level of intercollegiate athletic administration than were women ($M = 13.32$, $SD = 7.19$). Negligible ethnic differences existed: White administrators ($M = 14.61$, $SD = 7.14$) reported turnover intentions that were similar to those of their Black/African American administrators ($M = 13.64$, $SD = 6.54$). Finally, White women ($M = 13.55$, $SD = 7.26$) were more likely than Black/African American women ($M = 11.38$, $SD = 6.61$) to report higher turnover intentions within their respective organizations or positions. Again, due to the lack of diversity within intercollegiate administration, particularly as it relates to ethnicity, caution is advised with the interpretation of the results regardless of the lack of statistical significance reported.

Multiple regression analysis.

RQ11: What factors (i.e., PCM, JS, gender, and ethnicity) best predict organizational turnover intentions (TO) among senior-level administrators within NCAA Division I FBS institutions?

The organizational turnover intention (TO) scores for 201 senior-level athletic administrators were examined to determine whether gender, ethnicity, PCM, and JS could be used to predict TO. In order to determine whether a relationship existed and to what extent, a standard multiple regression was conducted. For this analysis, gender, ethnicity, PCM, and JS were predictor variables and TO was the outcome variable. As previously

presented, the data indicated a normal distribution. Further, the assumptions of linearity were not violated and there were no missing data.

Correlations between all variables were examined (displayed in Table 8); a few of the correlation combinations revealed statistically significant results (i.e., $p < .01$). In particular, there was a statistically significant positive correlation between PCM and JS ($r = .56, n = 213, p = < .001$), a statistically significant negative relationship between PCM and TO ($r = -.32, n = 213, p = < .001$), and a statistically significant negative relationship between JS and TO ($r = -.55, n = 213, p = < .001$). Means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations for TO and all predictor variables are presented in Table 17.

Table 17

Means and Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for Organizational Turnover Intentions (TO) and TO Predictor Variables

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4
TO	14.49	7.06	-0.13	-0.05	-0.32	-0.55
Predictor variables						
1. Gender	1.38	0.487	—	-.05	-.09	-.01
2. Ethnicity	1.12	0.331		—	.01	-.05
3. PCM	35.83	6.54			—	.56
4. JS	62.21	13.39				—

Note. Statistical significance (*p* values) for intercorrelations were not provided (*N* = 201).

Multicollinearity was assessed via a review of the variance inflation factor (VIF) pertaining to the independent variables. The VIF for each of the predictor variables was well within the recommended value of < 10 , (VIF = 1.01 for gender, 1.01 for ethnicity, 1.49 for PCM, and 1.48 for JS). A statistically significant relationship of the prediction model, $F(4, 196) = 23.191, p < .001$, accounting for 31% of the variance of organizational turnover intentions ($R^2 = .32$, Adjusted $R^2 = .31$). For this analysis, the null hypotheses was rejected.

The multiple regression results indicated that organizational turnover intentions (TO) can be predicted by the selected independent variables, primarily by JS ($\beta = -.535$) and to a less extent, gender ($\beta = -.138$). The raw and standardized regression coefficients for the dependent and independent variables, as well as the structure coefficients, are displayed in. From the results, we can determine that turnover intentions of athletic administrators increased as perceptions of career mobility and job satisfaction levels decreased. Additionally, turnover intentions also increased for administrators who were women or Black/African American. Although the model produced a statistically significant result, JS was the strongest predictor of TO, explaining 29% of the variance.

Table 18

Regression Analysis Summary for Gender, Ethnicity, PCM, and JS, Predicting Outcome on Organizational Turnover Intentions

Variables	<i>b</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r_s</i>
Gender	-1.998	0.86	-.138	-2.33	.021	.02
Ethnicity	-1.677	1.26	-.079	-1.33	.185	.01
PCM	-0.028	0.077	-.026	-0.36	.719	.00
JS	-0.282	0.038	-.535	-7.48	<.001	.29

Note. The dependent variable was Organizational Turnover Intentions. $R^2 = .32$, Adjusted $R^2 = .31$. * $p < .01$

Summary of Results

This chapter presented the results for the 11 research questions included within the study. The objective of the first research question was to collect descriptive data in order to describe the demographic, educational, and business-related characteristics of senior-level athletic administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions. The results section included a presentation of the descriptive statistics; because the results contained descriptive statistics, there were no research hypotheses tested.

A series of independent sample *t* tests was conducted to address RQ2, RQ3, RQ5, RQ6, RQ 8, and RQ9. These research questions were included to determine whether there were differences for each dependent variable (i.e., PCM, JS, and TO) as a function of each independent variable (i.e., gender and ethnicity) within the study. As presented, none of the analyses produced a statistically significant difference. Therefore we failed to reject the null hypotheses for all six *t* tests conducted.

To determine the interaction and main effects for both independent variables (i.e., gender and ethnicity) by each dependent variable (i.e., PCM, JS, and TO), three separate two-way factorial ANOVA's were conducted for RQ4, RQ7, and RQ10. Again, none of the three analyses produced a statistically significant relationship and the null hypotheses were rejected.

The majority of the results did not reveal statistical significance with the exception of RQ11, the standard multiple regression. The intent of the multiple regression was to examine which variables (i.e., gender, ethnicity, PCM, and JS), and to what extent each variable predicted organizational turnover intentions (TO). Here, I

discovered that the model was a good predictor of TO; however, JS explained the greatest degree of variance (i.e., 29%); therefore, we rejected the null hypotheses.

Although statistical significance was revealed for RQ11 only, the findings can be interpreted in a variety of ways, which will be discussed in the next chapter. Moreover, Chapter V will include an interpretation and discussion of results from this chapter. The findings will be related to both the theoretical framework and literature review within this study.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a discussion relating to the findings of the study. Additionally, the intent is also to provide research implications and recommendations for future research. The organization of the chapter will be presented in the following manner: (a) Summary of the Study, (b) Discussion of Findings in Relation to Research Questions, (c) Discussion of Findings in the Context of Theoretical Framework, d) Implication of the Findings, (e) Recommendations for Future Research, and (e) Conclusions.

Summary of the Study

There were two purposes of this study; the first purpose was to obtain profile characteristics for senior-level athletic administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions. The second purpose was to examine differences in perceived of career mobility, job satisfaction, and organizational turnover intentions as a function of gender and ethnicity. The rationale for conducting this study was to address the gaps within the current literature, which, will be discussed further within this section.

Regarding the first purpose of the study, there was no research examining profile characteristics for senior-level administrators within intercollegiate athletics that could be located at the time that this study was conducted. However, there were a few studies examining profile characteristics and career paths of athletic directors. Most recently, Wong et al. (2015) reported trends among Division I athletic directors across a 20-year period. These trends included changes in demographics, educational background, work experience, and career paths for the athletic director position. Wong et al.'s (2015)

research was the first of its kind to publish profile characteristics, trends, and changes in those patterns for the athletic director position. However, a gap within the literature continues to exist in providing characteristics, beyond demographic information, among senior-level athletic administrators.

With respect to the second purpose of the study, research examining organizational outcomes among athletic administrators also was lacking, particularly by incorporating demographic variables such as gender and ethnicity (Cunningham & Sagas, 2004b; Wells & Welty Peachey, 2011). Refer to Table 19 for an overview of research within intercollegiate athletic administration.

Table 19

Turnover Intentions and Athletic Administration

Sources	Constructs						Population		Demo	
	TO	JS	OC	JE	LE	SE	C	A	G	R
Welty Peachey et al. (2014)	X		X	X	X	X		X		
Wells et al. (2014)	X				X		X		X	
Wells & Welty Peachey (2011)	X				X		X			
Ryan & Sagas (2009)	X						X			
Cunningham (2006)	X						X	X		
Turner & Jordan (2006)	X	X	X				X			
Turner & Chelladurai (2005)	X		X				X			
Cunningham et al. (2005)	X	X	X	X		X	X	X		
Cunningham & Sagas (2004a)	X	X					X			X
Cunningham & Sagas (2004b)	X		X				X			X
Cunningham & Sagas (2003)	X						X		X	
Cunningham et al. (2001)	X		X				X			X
Sagas & Batista (2001)	X	X					X		X	

Note. TO = Turnover, JS = job satisfaction, OC = occupational commitment, JE = job embeddedness, LE = leadership behavior, SE = job search, C = coaches, A = administrators, G = gender, and R = race or ethnicity.

When examining the organizational turnover intention business management body of research, previous researchers consistently supported the use of job satisfaction to predict turnover intentions; therefore, the construct was included within this study. The perceived of career mobility construct was included as a predictor of turnover intentions because the construct had not previously been examined within athletic administration at all. Therefore, perceived of career mobility, job satisfaction, and organizational turnover intentions were all included in order to assess organizational outcomes among senior-level athletic administrators as a function of gender and ethnicity.

To provide an overview for this study, the background of organizational turnover intention research was provided first within the literature review section. Moreover, turnover intentions have been researched extensively within the business management field (Allen et al., 2014) and more recently within the athletic administration field (Welty Peachey et al., 2015). Scholars have indicated that organizational outcomes, including turnover intentions, are contingent on organizational climates (Cunningham, 2011a, 2011b).

Job satisfaction has been a core mechanism of turnover research (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). However, Felts et al. (2009) explained that several models leave significant variance unexplained. Researchers have stated that occupational variables such as upward mobility are related to turnover intentions and should be explored further (Meyer et al., 1993). However, Swider et al. (2011) indicated that decisions to leave an organization are complex and that a number of factors might be interrelated. Researchers also have indicated that demographic variables such as gender and race influence

turnover intentions (Hom et al., 2008). Therefore, these variables also were included within the study.

Within the intercollegiate athletic administration field, researchers have explained that the environment lacks diversity, which can negatively influence organizational climates for members of unrepresented groups (Cunningham & Sagas, 2005; Walker & Melton, 2005). However, much of the research has focused on athletic coaches instead of athletic administrators (cf. Table 19). Because research was lacking among this population, athletic administrators were chosen as participants for this study.

More specifically, senior-level athletic administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions were chosen as the population for this study. Senior administrators within NCAA Division I FBS institutions are among the highest levels of administrators within intercollegiate athletics, with the exception of the athletic director position. The intent was to examine organizational outcomes among this population as a method of assessing administrators' perceptions of being able to advance to the highest position within the industry, the athletic director.

Because a database was not available for this population, the exact number of senior-level athletic administrators could not be confirmed within the early stages of the study. As described in the previous chapter, names and contact information were collected directly from each institution's website. After collecting the contact information, a total population of 1,257 senior-level administrators was reported, with an adjusted population of 1,231 after undeliverable names and email addresses were removed from the database. After the data collection phase was completed, a total of 213 responses were received or a 17% response rate.

Discussion of Findings in Relation to Research Questions

Within this section, each research question will be presented along with a discussion of the findings. The organization will be presented as such: (a) profile characteristics of athletic administrators: RQ1; (b) differences between dependent variables (PCM, JS, and TO respectively) and independent variables (gender and ethnicity): RQ2, RQ3, RQ5, RQ6, RQ8, and RQ9; (c) main effects of PCM, JS, and TO and interaction of gender and ethnicity; RQ4, RQ7, and RQ10; and (d) factors (PCM, JS, gender, and ethnicity) that best predict TO: RQ11.

Profile characteristics of senior-level athletic administrators, RQ1.

RQ1: What are the demographic, educational, and professional characteristics of senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions?

As presented, the first research question was included to address the first objective within the study, to provide a profile for senior-level athletic administrators. Because research of this nature had not been completed previously, no comparisons can be made relating to educational or business-related experiences. However, there is research relating to athletic directors in these areas, which will be the basis for this discussion. Substantial information has been reported on demographic differences of athletic administrators at every level (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014; Lapchick, 2016); therefore, comparisons can be made and discussed accordingly. Because this research question necessitated descriptive data, no research hypothesis was tested.

Three categories of profile characteristics were included within the survey: (a) demographics, (b) educational, and (c) professional. The demographic variables included

were gender, race or ethnicity, and age. Within the demographic section, each variable will be discussed in that order.

Demographics. Within this study, 39% of the 213 respondents were women. In the 2015-2016 academic year, Lapchick (2016) reported that associate athletic directors who were women had increased across all three divisions within intercollegiate athletics. More specifically, women represented 29.9% of all associate athletic directors at the Division I level, compared to 28.3% in the previous academic year. Unfortunately, the distribution of women at the FBS level was not reported; therefore, a comparison could not be made to this study. However, because diversity tends to decline at higher administrative levels within college sport, we can assume that women representation at the FBS level is likely to be less than that of Division I as a whole. With that being stated, a 39% ratio of women in this study is likely to be greater than the actual ratio of women at senior administrative levels across all FBS institutions.

According to Wong and Matt (2014), gender disparity has remained stable for the athletic director position in recent years. Wong and Matt (2014) reported that 9% of all NCAA Division I athletic directors were women but only 6.4% at the FBS level. In comparison, 29% of athletic directors at the NCAA Division III level were women. This difference is indicative of that fact that women are less likely to hold administrative positions at higher levels of intercollegiate athletics.

Although we cannot make a generalization about the total population, the fact that 39% of the respondents within this study were women is promising in two ways. First, a greater percentage of women working at higher levels of administration at the FBS level will provide a larger pool of women who are eligible to advance to the next level, the

athletic director position. This statement is supported by Lapchick's (2016) recent report that women working at this level had increased from previous years. Second, the percentage of women who responded to the survey might suggest that women are interested in participating and learning more about perceptions of career mobility, job satisfaction, and organizational turnover intentions of administrators at this level. In fact, I spoke to a few women senior-level administrators who were interested in hearing more about the results of this study because of the challenges that currently exist relating to the lack of representation and professional advancement. Perhaps more women than ever before are interested in *breaking the glass ceiling* at the highest administrative level of intercollegiate athletics.

From an ethnic standpoint, 83% of the participants were White, 12% Black or African-American, and 3% Hispanic. Less than 1% were Asian ($n = 1$) or from multiple races ($n = 1$), and three participants did not to answer the question. In comparison to the most recent Tides Report, Lapchick (2016) reported that 87% of associate athletic administrators were White. Additionally, Wong and Matt (2014) reported that 83% of all NCAA Division I athletic directors were White and 14% were African American. The comparison to this longitudinal research indicates that the ethnic distribution within this study is reflective of the current population of senior-level athletic administrators at the NCAA Division I level.

The comparison between the ethnic distribution of senior-athletic administrators within this study and athletic directors from Wong and Matt's (2014) research is suggestive that the distribution is likely to remain unchanged. More specifically, if we can assume that the succession plan for senior-level athletic administrators is the athletic

director position, then the demographic landscape within Division I FBS institutions is unlikely to change within the near future due to the lack of change in ethnic diversity among senior level administrators. More importantly, in order for opportunities to be more equitable within intercollegiate athletics among senior administrators, diversity-related initiatives should occur at earlier stages of professional development.

Considering the lack of diversity that has been reported within this environment (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014; Lapchick 2016), especially at higher levels of administration, leaders should commit to ensuring that minorities are being given the opportunity to advance within their respective organizations. Indeed, Lapchick (2017) reported that leadership at NCAA Division I FBS institutions was still dominated by White men, giving collegiate athletic leadership at this level a D+ rating for the lack of gender and race representation. Clearly, more work needs to be undertaken in order to improve the diversity-related landscape among athletic administrators of intercollegiate athletics, especially at the Division I level.

With respect to age, the average age of senior athletic administrators in the sample was 47.04 ($SD = 9.79$), with men ($M = 46.90$, $SD = 10.11$) and women ($M = 47.27$, $SD = 9.295$) being close in age. Additionally, the age in which administrators first became a senior-level administrator was 37.72 ($SD = 8.57$) and the most common age was 34 years. According to Wong and Matt (2014), the average age of a NCAA Division I athletic director was 52.2 years but the average age at the time of hire was 45.3 years. Because previous research focusing on senior athletic administrators is lacking, little conclusions can be drawn in reporting trend changes. However, combined with the recent athletic director research, the average age reported is consistent with the athletic director average

age and a natural progression into the athletic director position. In other words, someone hoping to become an athletic director at the NCAA Division I level can expect to reach senior administrative levels in their mid-30's and potentially the athletic director position in their mid-40's (Wong & Matt, 2014).

Educational. All of the 213 participants within the study had completed bachelor degrees, 77% completed master degrees, 13% completed doctoral degrees, and 9% held J.D. or law degrees. Women were more likely than were men counterparts to complete master's, doctoral, and J.D. or law degrees. Perhaps women entering a male-dominated industry are aware of the need to be more professionally prepared than men. Previous scholars have discovered this to be case within NCAA Division I FBS institutions; Fink et al. (2001) stated that women executives believed that they needed to outperform men in order to establish credibility. Refer to Table 10 for a breakdown of degrees by gender and ethnicity.

The most common discipline at the undergraduate level was in business administration ($n = 28$), followed by sport administration ($n = 16$). However, there were several participants who did not indicate the specific area of study for bachelor degrees. At the graduate level, participants were more likely to specialize in academic programs related to their fields. Moreover, the majority of the graduate degrees were in sport administration ($n = 80$). This finding is important in that academic specialization is more likely to occur at the graduate level. This could be the case for a few reasons; perhaps individuals are focusing on academic programs related to their career interests, academic advisors are suggesting the degree type for those wanting to pursue opportunities within college sport, or administrators are realizing the competitiveness of the industry and

looking for ways to advance within their respective fields by specializing their education programs. None of these reasons were explored within this study but perhaps should be an area for further research for those in academic program development, particularly sport administration.

At the doctoral level, the majority of degrees were in educational leadership ($n = 13$), followed by sport administration ($n = 6$). Senior administrators working at the FBS level are clearly specializing in academic programs related to their field. Again, this information is helpful for those hoping to work at higher levels within intercollegiate athletics; in other words, advanced degrees are expected and the most common area of study is sport administration for master's degrees or educational leadership at the doctoral level. Additionally, a total of 18 individuals completed J.D. or law degrees, considering the NCAA legal challenges in recent years, this finding was not surprising. I would anticipate that having a legal background or law degree will continue to increase because of the legal complexities within the NCAA landscape. An example of an NCAA legal challenge is the *O'Bannon v. NCAA* (2013) court case challenging compensation of student-athletes through the use of names and likeness; the court case marked the first time in history that the court system rejected the NCAA's claim that student-athletes are amateur and, therefore, should not be compensated. The NCAA has appealed the decision; however, the court case has influenced the change of compensation policies among NCAA Division I institutions.

Professional. Senior-level administrators across all NCAA Division I FBS institutions ($N = 130$) were chosen to participate in this study; however, the titles for senior administrators varied across institutions. For example, some institutions listed

Associate and/or Senior Associate Athletic Directors, whereas other institutions also included Executive and/or Senior Executive Athletic Directors within their staff directories. The discrepancy in title usage creates challenges for researchers hoping to compare trends relating to professional experiences. Nonetheless, the most common titles for participants within this study were Associate Athletic Administrator ($n = 86$), and Senior Associate Athletic Administrator ($n = 73$). Additionally, the fewest number of senior-level administrators employed at an institution was three and the greatest number was 23; the average number of senior administrators per institution was 9.7. Additional research relating to size of institutional budget or size of institution compared to the total number of senior level administrators employed at each institution would also help in understanding professional differences.

Senior administrators reported that the mean number of years in their current position was 6.83 ($SD = 6.67$) and a combined mean number of years at the senior administrative level was 13.66 years ($SD = 8.38$). The least amount of time in a current position was 1 year and the maximum was 42 years. Wong and Matt (2014) compared the average length of time for athletic directors in their positions at NCAA Division I and III institutions and suggested that the turnover rate was higher for Division I athletic directors. Because Division I FBS institutions were the only level included in this study, no comparisons can be made to other levels within intercollegiate athletics. For the athletic director position, Wong and Matt (2014) reported that the average length of time in a position across all Division I institutions was 6.78 years. Perhaps researchers could explore turnover rates across all levels of intercollegiate athletic administration. Therefore, we can only assume that turnover rates might increase at higher levels of

intercollegiate athletics (e.g., Division I), as Wong and Matt's (2014) had indicated based on their research findings of the athletic director position. Thus, turnover rates should be examined further.

Differences between dependent variables (PCM, JS, and TO, respectively) and independent variables (Gender and Ethnicity): RQ2, RQ3, RQ5, RQ6, RQ8, and RQ9.

RQ2: What is the difference in perceived career mobility among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender?

RQ3: What is the difference in perceived career mobility among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of ethnicity?

RQ5: What is the difference in job satisfaction among senior-level athletic administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender?

RQ6: What is the difference in job satisfaction among senior-level athletic administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of ethnicity?

RQ8: What is the difference in organizational turnover intentions among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender?

RQ9: What is the difference in organizational turnover intentions among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of ethnicity?

There were six research questions included in this study to examine the differences with respect to each dependent variable (PCM, JS, and TO) as a function of each independent variable (gender and ethnicity). The first dependent variable, PCM, was included in this study because researchers had stated that the construct is an

emerging construct and has not been explored previously (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). Furthermore, few researchers have examined gender and ethnic differences as they relate to PCM. Within the sport administration literature, researchers have focused on gender differences more so than on ethnic differences.

PCM: RQ2 and RQ3. Morrison et al. (1987) suggested that women required more encouragement than did men in order to advance to executive levels. Additionally, Tharenou et al. (1994) stated that career encouragement was more important for women than for men. However, these studies were conducted more than two decades ago and are somewhat outdated considering women's advancement within the workplace over the last 20 years. Consequently, there is a need to conduct research within the current business environment in order to generalize findings on a larger scale. Most importantly, limited research has examined the influence of gender on perceptions of career mobility overall and, therefore, should be explored further—hence the reasons for including the PCM variable within this study. However, no gender difference emerged for PCM. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Considering the lack of women represented at both senior-administrator and athletic director levels within intercollegiate sport, especially at the Division I level, the lack of statistical significance was unanticipated. Additionally, the majority of athletic administration research pertaining to advancement focused specifically on gender differences, most of which have indicated that gender differences do exist and can be explained through discourses (Knoppers & Anthonissen, 2008), difference rates of advancement among athletic directors (Whisenant et al., 2002), role congruity (Burton et al., 2011), and homologous reproduction (Burton et al., 2011; Kanter, 1977).

Furthermore, Whisenant et al. (2002) stated that men had higher rates of advancement at higher levels of intercollegiate athletics (i.e., Division I). When exploring career success factors (i.e., social capital), Sagas and Cunningham (2004) indicated that women might be experiencing discrimination for advancement opportunities among Division I athletic administrators. Indeed, Kanter (1977) explained that those dissimilar to the majority within the workplace tend to experience discrimination, which in turn, can affect attitudes towards perceptions of advancement opportunities.

The lack of statistical significance, however, does not indicate that gender differences should be disregarded for future research. On the contrary, researchers should begin to explore this variable across all levels of intercollegiate athletic administration. For example, Hancock and Hums (2016) suggested recently that researchers have not explored the reasons why women have or have not pursued athletic director position; certainly, there is an opportunity for research pertaining to perceptions of advancement from a gender perspective.

Perhaps conducting qualitative research among senior-level administrators will help us understand better the gender-related challenges that continue to exist. More specifically, we cannot ignore the fact that women advance to the athletic director position less often than do men, as consistently reported through longitudinal research (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014; Lapchick, 2016). Additionally, researchers should explore other factors that might contribute (e.g., mentorship, social capital) to men's higher rates of advancement at the highest level of intercollegiate athletic administration. Finally, researchers should explore why women are being overlooked for the athletic director

position even though they are perceived as possessing the skills necessary for the position (Burton et al., 2011).

From a racial or ethnic perspective, Joao and Coetzee (2012) discovered racial differences on measures of PCM in that Black employees were more likely to report higher levels of interorganizational mobility. However, the research examining PCM and racial or ethnic differences relating to turnover intentions has been limited to date. The lack of research is clearly an indication that these differences need to be explored further. The same could be said for research within athletic administration, with little research examining the diversity-related effects of PCM, with the exception of a few studies.

For example, Cunningham and Sagas (2005) reported racial differences when examining representation of racial minorities of basketball coaching positions within NCAA Division I programs. More specifically, White and Black coaches were more likely to hire assistant coaches of the same race; however, this research specifically focused on access discrimination (i.e., hiring discrimination) and not PCM. Moreover, no research among athletic administrators could be located examining ethnic differences in PCM. Therefore, no comparison to prior research can be made in light of the findings from this study. Nonetheless, the lack of statistical significance in racial or ethnic differences in PCM was unpredicted. Because of the lack of diversity at higher levels of administration within intercollegiate athletics (Lapchick, 2016), particularly for ethnic minorities, I would expect to discover that racial minorities would have lower levels of PCM than would non-minority administrators; however, this was not the case within this study.

Regardless of the lack of statistical significance, researchers should include race or ethnicity as a variable when exploring perceptions of advancements among administrators because of the lack of research in this area. The research documenting the lack of diversity has been beneficial. However, researchers should focus on *why* the lack of representation continues to exist. More importantly, research exploring ethnic differences and perceptions of advancements would be helpful in determining whether retention strategies are needed. This area of research is essentially unexplored; perhaps exploring the diversity-related influences of PCM among athletic administrators will help expand the research further.

As previously stated, PCM is an emerging construct (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009) in turnover research. We have much to learn about PCM within the intercollegiate athletic context; therefore, expanding the research in this area perhaps will shed light on why minority administrators have yet to advance to senior-level positions. In fact, Glover et al. (2000) suggested that perceptions of advancement as well as barriers within the workplace might contribute to understanding better the relationship for African American professionals. Again, this area of research represents uncharted territory within intercollegiate athletics.

JS: RQ5 and RQ6. As previously explained, job satisfaction is a core variable within turnover research, and research to date has been abundant (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). However, researchers have stated that the relationship among the variables (i.e., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions) is dependent upon the context and nature of the job in which they are examined (Ahmad & Rainyee, 2014). Within the athletic administration context, researchers have examined the relationship

between job satisfaction and turnover intentions among athletic coaches, with limited research focusing on athletic administrators (Cunningham & Sagas, 2004a; Sagas & Batista, 2001; Turner & Jordan, 2006). Additionally, few researchers have explored gender and ethnic differences in job satisfaction, specifically among athletic administrators. Within this study, gender and ethnic differences in JS were examined to address these gaps in research within the intercollegiate athletic administration setting.

In examining the turnover intention literature, limited research was available examining the relationship between turnover intentions and job satisfaction as a function of gender. Grissom et al. (2012) reported that women had higher levels of job satisfaction than did men when examining gender congruency among public school teachers. In male-dominated industries, researchers have reported that women experienced discrimination, which negatively affected job satisfaction (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Riordan et al., 2005). However, no gender differences emerged in the present study. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Similar to the JS research as a whole, the gender differences in JS within intercollegiate athletics also has been limited. Additionally, the focus has been that of coaches instead of administrators (Cunningham et al., 2005), as previously mentioned. For example, Sagas and Batista (2001) did not discover gender differences when examining JS among coaches of women's teams across all divisions. In other words, there were no differences in levels of job satisfaction between men and women coaches, even though women are underrepresented within the coaching profession overall.

As with PCM, the lack of a statistically significant gender difference in JS was unexpected. However, because of the limited research in this area, firm conclusions are

not warranted at this point. Gender congruency research indicates that the gender of a supervisor matters more for men than for women (Grissom et al., 2002). This finding is consistent with a Gallup (2014) poll where men reported a stronger preference than did women for working for a supervisor who was a man. Certainly, gender congruency should be explored among senior-level athletic administrators across all divisions. In a male-dominated industry where only a few women have advanced to the highest-level position within intercollegiate athletics, determining whether gender differences exist and the extent to which there are preferences for working for men athletic directors would be beneficial for those working within the field.

From a racial or ethnic perspective, Black managers have reported lower levels of career satisfaction than have their White peers (Greenhaus et al., 1990). Additionally, Grissom and Keiser (2011) reported that teachers had higher levels of job satisfaction when the principal was of the same race. This finding supports the need to conduct more race congruency-related research in order to explore this concept further.

Within the intercollegiate athletic context, few researchers have explored racial or ethnic differences in JS among administrators. Of the limited research in this area, Cunningham and Sagas (2004a) explored ethnic and value dissimilarity differences in JS levels and discovered that value dissimilarity negatively affected job satisfaction. More specifically, value congruence mattered but ethnic dissimilarity did not. In other words, those with different values than the majority had lower job satisfaction and higher turnover intentions but the work outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction and turnover intentions) were unaffected for those who were ethnically dissimilar (Cunningham & Sagas, 2004a). The researchers (Cunningham & Sagas, 2004a) examined these differences among

athletic coaches. The lack of statistical significance in the relationship between job satisfaction and ethnicity in this study is consistent with those of Cunningham and Sagas (2004a). However, comparing Cunningham and Sagas's (2004a) findings to this study should be undertaken with caution because of the different populations in which they were examined (i.e., athletic coaches and athletic administrators).

Yet, the lack of statistical significance does not mean that the findings should be disregarded. Moreover, Cunningham and Sagas (2004a) are of the few researchers who have examined surface- and deep-level diversity effects on organizational outcomes, as previously explained. Additionally, as with gender, race congruency should be explored further. Perhaps there are other reasons that might help us understand better additional factors that contribute to differences in job satisfaction levels among minorities working within intercollegiate athletics.

TO: RQ8 and RQ9. Turnover intentions have been researched extensively (Allen et al., 2014; Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). Additionally, researchers have stated that turnover intentions are the best predictor of actual turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom et al., 1992). Considering the lack of diversity-related research examining organizational outcomes (Cunningham & Sagas, 2004b), turnover intentions were explored within this study.

Findings from gender-related research examining turnover intentions have supported the assertion that women leave the workplace at higher rates than do men (Hom et al., 2008). Moreover, Eagly and Karau (2002) suggested that women were prevented from advancing to higher level positions within organizations. Additionally,

researchers have stated that gender is predictive of turnover intentions and should be incorporated within turnover models (Peltokorpi et al., 2015).

Within intercollegiate athletic administration, Cunningham and Sagas (2003) discovered that women coaches intended to leave their occupations at higher rates than did men. In contrast, Turner and Chelladurai (2005) stated that women had the same occupational and organizational turnover intentions as did men who were coaches. Wells et al. (2014) discovered that gender moderated the relationship between perceptions of the leader effectiveness and turnover intentions; however, these researchers suggested that findings related to turnover intentions and gender were mixed overall. Within this study, no statistically significant gender difference in TO emerged—contributing to the assertion that findings regarding TO and gender are mixed.

Although no comparisons to prior research can be made for athletic administrators, women coaches have been found to have higher turnover rates than men coaches within intercollegiate athletics (Cunningham & Sagas, 2003). However, coaching professions have different dynamics than do administrative positions, especially at the most competitive level of college sport. Additionally, it is conceivable that turnover rates for coaches are different from those of administrators, even though turnover rates have not been reported. For example, the findings of this study revealed that the average age for first becoming a senior-level administrator was 37 years and the average age of senior-level administrators was 47 years. A possible explanation for the lack of statistical significance in turnover intentions is that both men and women who are dedicated to *climbing the ladder* within intercollegiate athletics realize the time that it takes to become an athletic director (average age 52 years; Wong et al., 2015). Perhaps

both men and women, who have advanced to senior levels at the highest level within college sport, display positive self-efficacy relating to their professional abilities. That is, administrators who have ascended to this level have confidence in their professional capabilities. Perhaps this is another area of research that could be explored within athletic administration, namely, the relationship between self-efficacy and turnover intentions.

From an ethnic perspective, turnover research lacks rigor when evaluating ethnic differences (Allen et al., 2014). More specifically, a criticism of diversity-related research is that the sample sizes involved have been homogenous in nature so that the generalizability of findings is unclear (Allen et al., 2014). Furthermore, when diversity has been explored, minorities have been categorized together instead of examining the various minority groups separately (Elvira & Cohen, 2001). Because of the limitation that Allen et al. (2014) point out related to the lack of rigor in examining ethnic minorities, the intent of this research was to compare minority groups with each other. However, the minority group sample sizes were insufficient to justify minority subgroup analyses in the present study. Therefore, only White and Black/African American participant responses were compared. The comparison of ethnic differences between White and Black/African American participants only is a limitation within the present study but researchers should work to expand minority categories for comparison when possible within athletic administration research.

Among the business management literature, Hom et al. (2008) stated that racial minorities have higher turnover rates than do White Americans. Because of ethnic differences in turnover intentions that have been reported, McKay et al. (2007) sought to

understand better how perceptions of diverse climates influenced turnover intentions by ethnic groups. Moreover, McKay et al. (2007) discovered that African American workers displayed the strongest negative relationship between diversity climate perceptions and turnover intentions of all minority groups on measures of turnover intentions.

Within athletic administration, Cunningham et al. (2001) discovered that assistant basketball coaches at Division I institutions who were Black displayed higher levels of occupational turnover than did coaches who were White. Additionally, Cunningham and Sages (2004b) stated that ethnicity was a significant predictor of occupational turnover intentions among football coaches at Divisions I institutions. In contrast, Cunningham and Sages (2004a) did not find ethnic differences relating to job satisfaction levels and turnover intentions among intercollegiate athletic coaches and contended that findings on the relationship between turnover intentions and ethnicity are mixed.

Consistent with the findings of Cunningham and Sages (2004a), no ethnic differences in TO were discovered in the present study. Although the lack of statistical significance was unexpected, there are a few possible explanations. As contended by Cunningham and Sages (2004b), it is possible that the results are specific to the athletic administration context, particularly at the Division I level. Furthermore, perhaps ethnic categorization (i.e., how individuals categorize each other) as a comparison variable is different among athletic administrators, as suggested by Cunningham and Sages (2004a). In other words, are there other ways in which athletic administrators categorize themselves as in-group members? This is another way in which this research could be

expanded further; that is, to explore how administrators identify with each other at this level.

Main effects of PCM, JS, and TO and the interaction between Gender and Ethnicity: RQ4, RQ7, and RQ10.

RQ4: What is the difference in perceived career mobility among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender and ethnicity?

RQ7: What is the difference in job satisfaction among senior-level athletic administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender and ethnicity?

RQ10: What is the difference in organizational turnover intentions among senior-level administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions as a function of gender and ethnicity?

To understand the relationship among variables further, three separate research questions were included to examine the interaction effects between gender and ethnicity with respect to each dependent variable (i.e., PCM, JS, and TO). However, none of the analyses produced a statistically significant interaction effect. More specifically, the interactions between gender and ethnicity for PCM, JS, and TO were not statistically significant, although interesting differences did emerge.

Moreover, Black/African American men were slightly more likely than were White men to have higher levels of PCM. However, the opposite was the case for women: White women reported higher levels of PCM than did Black/African American women. With respect to JS, White men reported higher levels of job satisfaction than did

Black/African American men and again, the opposite was true for women. Black/African American women were more likely than were White women to report satisfaction within their positions. Lastly, White women were more likely than were Black/African American women to report higher TO, and the same was true for men: White men reported higher TO than did Black/African American men. However, interpretation of all of these findings should be undertaken with caution due to the lack of statistical significance.

Although the findings for all three analyses were statistically nonsignificant, the findings are insightful in two ways. First, the research helps expand the existing body of research by examining organizational outcomes and the interaction effects of demographic variables. The literature makes it unequivocal that intercollegiate athletics has been and continues to be dominated by White men (Lapchick, 2016). Researchers have often examined demographic variables separately and have not examined how multiple identities might influence organizational outcomes (Melton & Cunningham, 2014). By examining the interaction effects of demographic variables, researchers can understand better the intersectionality of race and gender as well as other forms of oppression. Intersectionality is the overlap of multiple forms of oppression or minority status (e.g., gender, race, sexual orientation) (Walker & Melton, 2015). Within this study, gender and race or ethnicity were examined. However, additional demographic variables such as age and sexual orientation should be explored further.

Second, because of the conflicting findings relating to gender and ethnicity, researchers should continue to explore these interaction effects with organizational outcomes across other divisions (e.g., FCS institutions) within intercollegiate athletics.

Additionally, comparisons can be made across various levels of administration to determine whether these effects are different when compared to senior administrative levels. More importantly, a basis of research can now be made to which we can compare findings. To that point, this research should be considered foundational in nature, meaning that the findings from the present research study could form the basis for comparison with those emanating from future research.

Factors (PCM, JS, Gender, and Ethnicity) that best predict TO: RQ11.

RQ11: What factors (perceived career mobility, job satisfaction, gender, and ethnicity) best predict organizational turnover intentions among senior-level administrators within NCAA Division I FBS institutions?

The last research question within this study was included to determine the best predictor variables (i.e., PCM, JS, gender, and ethnicity) of TO. The findings for this analysis were statistically significant, indicating that the model was in fact a good predictor of TO, explaining 31% of the variance. Interestingly, the strongest predictor of TO was JS, which explained 29% of the variance. Gender also was predictive of TO but to a much lesser extent, explaining only 2% of the variance. Therefore, we can conclude that job satisfaction is a good predictor of turnover intentions among senior-level administrators within intercollegiate athletics.

Research supporting the use of job satisfaction to predict turnover intentions has been extensive (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). Additionally, researchers have stated that job satisfaction is the best predictor of turnover intentions (Steel & Ovalle, 1984), apart from actual turnover. As such, the multiple regression results within the current study were expected in that job satisfaction has been considered to be a core variable within turnover

models for some time (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). However, Ahmad and Rainyee (2014) indicated that the extent to which job satisfaction is the best predictor of turnover intentions would depend upon the nature and context of the organization in which variables are examined.

Again, this research should be considered foundational in that additional variables that previously have been used to predict turnover intentions have not been examined. For example, organizational commitment is also considered a core variable and has also been shown to be predictive of turnover intentions. Researchers have been divided as to whether jobs satisfaction or organizational commitment is the best predictor of TO (Tarigan & Ariani, 2015). Organizational commitment was not explored within this study but has been incorporated into previous turnover studies within intercollegiate athletics (cf. Table 19). Although researchers have explored predictor variables of turnover intentions within athletic administration, only a few have done so focusing on athletic administrators (Cunningham, 2006; Cunningham et al., 2005; Welty Peachey et al., 2015). Additionally, it is worthy to mention that none of these studies have incorporated demographic variables.

Recently, researchers have explored leader behaviors, job embeddedness, and job search behaviors among athletic administrators. However, job satisfaction was not included within the model (Welty Peachey et al., 2015). As Walker and Melton (2015) have indicated, few researchers have examined how having multiple identities influences organizational outcomes. Organizational climates that are inclusive and diverse for both minority and majority groups tend to produce more positive organizational outcomes (Cunningham, 2011a, 2011b). Considering this assertion, there is an opportunity to

expand turnover models and to address the portion of the unexplained variances, particular via the inclusion of demographic variables. Indeed, more work should be conducted to expand this research considering the lack of diversity within intercollegiate athletic administration (Lapchick, 2016).

Discussion of Findings in the Context of Theoretical Framework

This study was framed within the context of social identity theory (SIT) and self-categorization theory (SCT). SIT is a concept that describes the process in which individuals determine which groups they belong—in-groups or out-groups (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). The process involves a social comparison of self to others in order to determine one's social status within a group setting. That status then contributes to an individual's self-esteem depending on similarity or dissimilarity to in-group members, more favorably with likeness to the in-group (Tajfel & Turner, 1979).

SCT is an extension of SIT and involves a more complex approach to social identify. More specifically, SIT is a social categorization process in which identity is based on an interaction between individual and group identity (Turner et al., 1987). Hogg and Terry (2000) describe SIT as social cognitive processes that involve the relationship between individual identity and group behaviors that influence one's social identity.

Hogg and Terry (2000) explain that historically, interest in groups have changed from smaller group interactions to an interest in the social cognitive processes that determine group membership, essentially referring to the complex categorization processes of SIT and SCT. From an organizational context perspective, social identify is dynamic and dependent upon organizational norms that influence organizational

behaviors. A strong basis of comparison within social contexts is that of gender and race, which researchers argue is important to understand because of the influence on organizational outcomes based on group identity (Chattopadhyay, Tluchowska, & George, 2004).

SIT and SCT theorists have explained that demographic dissimilarity influences social identity within the workplace, specifically as it relates to race and gender (Chattopadhyay et al., 2004). For example, lower status employees use three strategies as a means of enhancing their social status: (a) social creativity, (b) social competition, and (c) social mobility (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Social creativity refers to changing the criteria that are used as basis of comparison, for example using organizational norms or values for comparison. Social competition occurs when members of minority groups work to enhance the status for members of the low-status group, typically through equality efforts. Social mobility involves disassociating to the low-status group and adopting behaviors of the high-status group (Chattopadhyay et al., 2004). In exploring demographic dissimilarity further, these strategies could be explored among senior-level administrators to determine whether women and/or ethnic minorities within intercollegiate athletic administration utilize any of these strategies as a means of enhancing their social identities. Additionally, researchers could explore how utilization of these strategies influences organizational outcomes for members of low-status groups (i.e., women and racial/ethnic minorities).

To that point, Goldberg, Riordan, and Zhang (2008) contend that demographic similarity differs among low-status groups, particularly women and racial minorities. Furthermore, individuals differ on measures of self-continuity as it relates to social

identity, whereas self-continuity refers to an individual's ability to be open to experiences (Goldberg et al., 2008). For example, individuals who are less open would have a high need for self-continuity—in other words, the need to be with others who are similar. Researchers have stated that the ability to function within a diverse work environment relates to one's ability to be open to the experience, or the concept self-continuity (Ang, Van Dyne, & Koh, 2006). Goldberg et al. (2008) discovered different effects for self-continuity by race and gender, supporting the notion that members of low-status groups use other strategies for social identity. Perhaps self-continuity is another dimension that could be explored among senior-level intercollegiate athletic administrators.

On the other hand, Cunningham (2007) examined the influence of actual and perceived demographic dissimilarity and discovered that actual dissimilarity influenced perceptions of perceived dissimilarity, but these differences were more apparent for White individuals than for racial minorities. Additionally, Cunningham (2007) observed that deep-level dissimilarity was related to work outcomes. More specifically, perceived deep-level dissimilarity contributed to negative coworker satisfaction and higher turnover intentions.

Perceptions of deep-level dissimilarity were not explored within this study; however, there were no differences in perceptions of career mobility, job satisfaction, or turnover intentions that could be explained by the effects of gender or ethnicity or actual dissimilarity. Therefore, at first glance, the notion of SIT and SCT were not supported within this study. However, examining deep-level dissimilarity (e.g., values, belief) is important because of the effects on work outcomes, particularly job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Cunningham, 2007; Cunningham & Sagas, 2004a). Perceptions of

deep-level dissimilarity could be explored further to help explain these relationships among senior-level athletic administrators, considering the lack of gender and ethnicity differences in organizational outcomes within this study.

Additionally, Turner and Chelladurai (2005) found no gender differences in organizational commitment among intercollegiate coaches and stated that other factors might influence the reasons why women stay in their coaching positions. For instance, the love of sport might supersede any negative treatment or discrimination that women coaches might experience working in a male-dominated work environment. These reasons for staying in administrative positions could certainly be explored among senior-athletic administrators as well. Even further, exploring common in-group (e.g., values, attitudes) identities among senior-athletic administrators could be a basis of future research. Finally, findings from this study could be specific to the athletic administrative context, meaning that gender and ethnic differences in organizational outcomes might differ when compared to other fields (Cunningham & Sagas, 2004a).

From an organizational turnover perspective, those who do not identify with the majority in some way, or perceive that they *fit* within an organization, will likely leave (Cunningham & Sagas, 2004a). When we examine these constructs within intercollegiate athletic administration, particularly at senior levels, it does not appear that surface-level diversity is the main identity in which administrators use a guide to determine their in- or out-group status. However, within every group, there are some criteria that members use to determine organizational *fit*. Therefore, we can conclude that social identity criteria should be examined further. In other words, who is the *in-group* among senior-level athletic administrators? What criteria influence in-group identity (e.g., values,

behaviors)? Perhaps a better question to ask someone working at this level is, “In what ways do you identify with others within the workplace?” Clearly, the tenets of SIT and SCT should be explored further within this context. SIT and SCT theorists recently have expanded these concepts, as demonstrated by Chattopadhyay et al. (2004). Perhaps the expansion of the theory can be used to explain these differences or lack thereof among senior administrators within intercollegiate athletics.

Implication of the Findings

As previously mentioned, this study can be viewed as providing foundational research within intercollegiate athletic administration, particularly among senior-level administrators. More specifically, this study expanded research within this setting in a few ways. First, this study was a first to include demographic variables as a basis of comparison with organizational outcomes (i.e., PCM, JS, and TO) among senior-level athletic administrators. Second, this study was a first to examine perceptions of career mobility as a construct within turnover intention research among this population (i.e., athletic administrators). Even though this research was foundational in nature, there are implications for research in a variety of ways. These implications are discussed in the following sections.

Implications for program development. The first implication of this research pertains to curriculum design for sport administration programs. Because the majority of senior-level administrators indicated that their area of study was in sport administration for both the graduate and doctoral level, those who develop academic programs should pay particular attention to the preparation needs of athletic administrators within intercollegiate athletics. For example, administrators have indicated that the landscape of

intercollegiate athletics has changed, especially at the NCAA Division I level (Wong et al., 2015). More specifically, administrators at this level have stated that financial preparation is essential, especially in areas of finance, budget management, and fundraising (Hancock & Hums, 2016). Additionally, program developers could consider incorporating curriculum pertaining to the different skills needed to oversee the various levels of intercollegiate athletic administration (e.g., NCAA Division I vs. III) because skills required to manage institutions differ based on legal and financial challenges (Brown, 2013; Wong, 2014). Overall, academic programs should be designed to meet the needs of future administrators who hope to work in intercollegiate athletics by providing coursework that reflects the current issues within the field today.

Implications for future administrators. For those hoping to work within intercollegiate athletic administration, this study provides an overview of the profile characteristics for senior-level athletic administrators at the highest level of college sport, the Division I FBS level. More specifically, the educational and professional characteristics are provided to give those hoping to work within the field a general awareness about the preparation that might be required. For example, because the majority (i.e., 77%) of senior administrators within this study hold master's degrees, future administrators can expect to obtain a graduate degree. Additionally, the majority of degrees were in the sport administration area of study at both the graduate and doctoral level, suggesting that educational degree programs that future administrators pursue should relate to athletic administration for those hoping to work in intercollegiate athletics.

The number of administrators in this study holding doctoral degrees was 13%, and 9% for J.D. or law degrees. Wong et al. (2015) indicated that 5% of athletic directors at the Division I level held doctoral degrees during the 1989-1990 academic year and 11% during the 2013-2014 academic year. Although research indicates that athletic directors obtaining advanced degrees have increased, we cannot make the same assumption about senior-level administration without a basis for comparison. This study, however, provides the educational information so that researchers can make comparisons in the future.

The professional characteristics provided within this study are informative for those hoping to advance within athletic administration. For example, future administrators will have a general idea about the length of time that they can expect to work within the field before advancing to senior administrative levels, with most administrators in this study advancing to this level in their mid-30's. Profile characteristic research can be expanded to include professional experiences both within and outside of intercollegiate sport, as Wong et al. (2015) had collected when profiling the athletic director position.

Implications for administrators. Understanding the importance of diversity-related effects on organizational outcomes has implications for administrators. Researchers have reiterated this point over the years (Cunningham & Sagas, 2004b) but we have yet to comprehend fully the influence of gender and race/ethnicity among intercollegiate athletic administrators because the majority of researchers have focused on athletic coaches (Cunningham & Sagas, 2003, 2004a, 2004b). Moreover, SIT and SCT theorists have expanded their focus to differentiate between demographic dissimilarity

and perceptions of dissimilarity as well as the strategies used by low-status groups such as women and racial minorities (Chattopadhyay et al., 2004; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Also, research has been expanded to understand the influences on organizational outcomes among perceptions of dissimilarity (Cunningham, 2007).

Within this study, I discovered that no gender and ethnic differences existed in the organizational outcomes that were examined. Perhaps athletic directors within intercollegiate athletic departments should consider implementing methods of assessing the organizational cultures within their respective departments. Further, athletic directors also should consider the barriers and conflicts that senior-level athletic administrators face within the workplace. Assessments could be in the form of an anonymous survey to the entire department on an annual basis. Considering that individuals are likely to leave an organization if they do not perceive it as a fit (Cunningham & Sagas, 2004a), assessing the organizational climates of departments could contribute to better retention rates and less attrition of athletic administrators at this level.

Understanding organizational climates and the barriers and conflicts that senior-athletic administrators might face leads to the last implication. Moreover, research continues to support the need for more diversity-related initiatives within the intercollegiate athletic administration arena. Regardless of the lack of differences reported in this study, researchers continue to report a lack of diversity, especially at the most senior-administrator levels (Lapchick, 2016). When diversity is valued within an organization, differences are likely to result in positive work outcomes (Cunningham, 2007). Additionally, because strong organizational climates contribute to positive organizational outcomes for members of all groups (Cunningham 2011a), it is critical that

athletic administrators implement such initiatives within their respective organizations. However, administrators must realize the relationship between diversity and organizational outcomes first (Cunningham & Sagas, 2004b). For example, athletic departments that are diverse and provide a proactive approach to diversity perform better than organizations that do not (Cunningham, 2011b). Such diversity-related initiatives for senior-level administrators could include human resource practices or mentorship programs. In fact, athletic administrators who were mentored have been shown to more be satisfied with their careers (Weaver & Chelladurai, 2002). A dedication to improving the diversity-related culture within intercollegiate athletics at senior levels must occur in order to realize the positive influences on organizational outcomes.

Recommendations for Future Research

Despite the advancements within turnover intention research, several gaps remain both within the business management and sport administration literature. Within this section, I reiterate the gaps that were addressed within systematic turnover literature that was discussed early within this study, specifically because these gaps were influences in the research design of this study. Moreover, researchers indicated that turnover rates vary by organizational type (Holtom et al., 2008), which has implications to this study because of the unique nature of intercollegiate athletics. Turnover intention research lacks rigor related to research design (Allen et al., 2014); this was also the case within intercollegiate athletics (Cunningham & Sagas, 2008). Lastly, diversity continues to influence the turnover process especially relating to race or ethnicity (e.g., Allen et al., 2014) and gender (e.g., Peltokorpi et al., 2015). Again, this point is relevant to research

within intercollegiate athletic administration as well (Cunningham & Sagas, 2004b). These three gaps contribute to the suggestions for future research that I provide here.

Research suggestions based on the unique nature of intercollegiate athletics.

The first suggestion for future research relates to the unique nature of intercollegiate athletics in two ways. As previously described, the structure of intercollegiate athletics varies by division type, with Division I being the most competitive and operating more like a business than any other department within higher education (Bass et al., 2015). Because of the complexities of managing Division I institutions, especially FBS levels, more research is needed to understand divisional differences related to organizational outcomes of athletic administrators across all three levels. The initial intent of this study was to include administrators across all three levels; however, the magnitude of the study was too great considering that no database exists for administrators at this level. Therefore, it is hoped that future researchers will be replicate this study or conduct similar research across other divisions within intercollegiate athletics.

Second, because researchers have previously stated that findings from studies might be related to the unique nature of sport, research should be expanded to help explain the lack of statistically significant gender and ethnic differences in organizational outcomes. For example, Turner and Chelladurai (2005) stated that love of the game might explain the lack of findings related to occupational commitment among women coaches. Cunningham and Sagas (2004a) also reported that no relationships existed between surface-level diversity and organizational outcomes, suggesting that findings might be specific to the sport context. Future researchers should continue to explore organizational outcomes as a function of gender and ethnicity because of the

inconsistencies within the literature. More specifically, strategies (e.g., social creativity) used for low-status members could be examined further to determine whether and to what extent these strategies are used and how they might relate to organizational outcomes. Additionally, perceived dissimilarity could be explored further among senior-level athletic administrators, as Cunningham (2007) examined among coaches.

Research suggestions based on the research design. Allen et al. (2014)

indicated that turnover research studies are conducted using mostly quantitative research designs; this point is also apparent within intercollegiate athletic administration because the majority of studies reviewed represented quantitative research designs (refer to Table 4 for a list of studies). There is an opportunity to conduct qualitative research within this setting to supplement the understanding of the quantitative findings. There are two ways in which this objective can be accomplished. First, researchers should conduct studies using qualitative research approaches to understand better the social categorization processes that occur among senior administrators. As a second phase of this project, I hope to conduct a qualitative research study to enrich the findings and help explain the lack of statistically significant gender and ethnic differences in organizational outcomes.

The second suggestion is to conduct a mixed methods research study to enrich the data further. For example, Collins, Onwuegbuzie, and Sutton (2006) provide a typology for using mixed methods research designs. Utilizing Collins et al.'s (2006) rationale typology, the reason for utilizing a mixed method research design examining the diversity-related effects of organizational outcomes among senior-level administrators would be significance enhancement, or the process of enhancing the researcher's interpretations of the findings. For example, a study could be conducted using a

sequential quantitative-qualitative approach (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998) and data obtained within the qualitative phase (i.e., interviews) would enhance the interpretation of the data obtained within the quantitative phase (i.e., surveys) of the study (Collins et al., 2006). Had a mixed methods research design been utilized for this study, I could have explored further the barriers and conflicts that administrators might face, other forms of social identity, and whether gender and ethnic differences emerged. These are just a few examples that could have been examined in more depth.

Research suggestions based on diversity-related research. From an athletic administration perspective, Cunningham and Sagas (2004b) stated that the sport industry lacks diversity-related research examining organizational outcomes, which was a basis of support for this study. However, a gap remains within the literature to discover why minorities continue to be overlooked for the athletic director position. For example, if future researchers support the findings of this study in that gender and ethnic differences do not exist in organizational outcomes, then researchers should continue to explore other rationales to support the lack of advancement for women and racial and ethnic minorities to the athletic director position.

There are several ways in which research could be explored further, all of which pertain to expanding the variables examined within turnover models. For example, Welty Peachey et al. (2015) were the first to examine the influence of leader behaviors on organizational outcomes among athletic administrators. However, the research could be expanded further by including gender and ethnicity as independent variables when examining the influence of leader behavior on organizational outcomes. Additionally, the role of mentorship could be included within intercollegiate athletic administration

turnover models. Lastly, because researchers have indicated that self-continuity relates to the ability to function in diverse environments (Ang, Van Dyne, & Koh, 2006), the concept of self-continuity could be explored. More specifically, Goldberg et al. (2008) reported differences in race and gender; researchers could incorporate measures of self-continuity to understand better whether and to what extent members of low-status groups have different effects.

Lastly, the perception of career mobility construct needs further review. As researchers have stated, intraorganizational mobility is an emerging construct within turnover research (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). Additionally, research relating to terminology has been ambiguous (see Table 6). As portrayed in Table 7, few scales have been designed to measure factors relating to mobility and turnover intentions. The scale used within this study requires further refinement in order to validate the findings of this study related to the lack of diversity-related differences. Thus, this research should be replicated using another measure of perceptions of mobility among senior-level administrators to determine whether gender and ethnic differences do exist.

Conclusions

Turnover intention research has important implications for employers because of costs associated with employee attrition and loss of productivity that can have negative organizational effects (e.g., Holtom et al., 2008). Turnover intention research has been extensive within the business literature (Allen et al., 2014) and marginally within athletic administration. Because researchers have focused mainly on turnover intentions of coaches within intercollegiate athletic administration, this study offers a different perspective, that of senior-level athletic administrators.

Because researchers have stated that a significant portion of the variance within turnover intention models continue to be unexplained (Felps et al., 2009; Steel & Lounsbury, 2009), this study incorporated a scale related to career mobility that researchers posit is an emerging construct (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). More specifically, a perception of career mobility scale was included to explore the possibility of this construct explaining gender and ethnic differences in organization outcomes among administrators. However, the scale that was used has limitations (see Chapter III for instrument score reliability), and further refinement of this scale is needed. Additionally, job satisfaction was incorporated within this study because researchers have consistently supported the use of this variable as a predictor of turnover intentions (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). The findings of this study support that contention because job satisfaction was the best predictor of turnover intentions among intercollegiate athletic administrator, explaining 29% of the variance.

Researchers should continue to conduct turnover intention research to explore additional constructs that might help address the portion of the unexplained variance (Holtom et al., 2008). This point is important particularly within athletic administration settings because scholars have suggested that leadership within sport culture is unique (Welty Peachey et al., 2015). Generalizability of the findings, however, is limited to the organizational type and context in which they are examined (Holtom et al., 2008). The findings of this study support the claim that organizational type and context matter considering the mixed findings related to gender and ethnic differences within the research overall (e.g., Cunningham & Sagas, 2004a; Turner & Chelladurai, 2005; Wells et al., 2014).

Finally, Allen et al. (2014) recommended that researchers continue to report racial/ethnic and gender differences in turnover intentions, supporting the need to include these demographic variables within turnover studies. Considering the lack of diversity within intercollegiate athletic administration (Lapchick, 2016), this point is of particular importance for athletic administration. Although this study did not reveal ethnic or gender differences, sport management scholars need to continue to expand the diversity-related research examining organizational outcomes within the athletic administration setting (Cunningham & Sagas, 2004b), especially among athletic administrators.

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APPENDIX A
Survey Instrument

I. Demographic Information

1. Sex:

- Male
- Female
- I would prefer not to answer.

2. Ethnic or racial group with which you most closely identify (check one):

- White
- Black or African-American
- Hispanic
- American Indian or Alaskan Native
- Asian
- Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander
- From multiple races
- I would prefer not to answer.
- Some other race (please specify)

3. Age (in years):

4. Type of University you work for (check one):

- Public
- Private

5. Your institution's Athletic Conference:

6. Degrees earned and academic areas of study (list all and please specify):

Bachelor's Degree

Master's Degree

Doctorate Degree (i.e.,
Ph.D. or Ed.D)

Juris (J.D.)

Other

7. Did you compete in high school athletics? Yes No

If yes, sport (s):

8. Did you compete in intercollegiate athletics? Yes No

If yes, sport(s) and Division:

9. Did you coach high school athletics (any position or sport)? Yes No

Years of experience:

10. Did you coach intercollegiate athletics (any position or sport) ? No Yes

Years of experience:

11. Current position:

- Senior Associate Athletic Director
- Associate Athletic Director
- Assistant Athletic Director
- Other (please specify)

12. Area of responsibility (check all that apply):

- Finance
- Operations
- Marketing
- Compliance
- Sports Information
- Tickets
- Student Services (Academics)
- Public Relations
- Development
- Other (please specify)

13. Number of years in current position:**14. Age when you first became a Senior Athletic Administrator:**

15. Total number of years as a Senior Athletic Administrator (combined positions):

- My current position is the only position at the Senior Athletic Administrator level.
- I've held two or more positions at the Senior Athletic Administrator level within one or more institutions. Please indicate the total combined number of years below.

16. Did you hold any other administrative positions within intercollegiate athletics or higher education administration prior to becoming a Senior Athletic Administrator?

- No
- Yes, within intercollegiate athletics only.
- Yes, within higher education administration only (outside of intercollegiate athletics).
- Yes, both within higher education administration and intercollegiate athletics.
- Please specify position(s):

17. Total number of combined years in intercollegiate athletic administration (all administrative positions excluding coaching):

18. Sex of Athletic Director at your current institution?

- Male
- Female
- I would prefer not to answer.

19. Sex of the President at your current institution?

- Male
- Female
- I would prefer not to answer.

20. Are you an alumnus of the current university for which you are employed?

- No
- Yes

II. Perceived Career Mobility

Please keep the following definitions in mind when completing this section of the questionnaire.

- **Job:** this includes an individual's work responsibilities, hierarchical levels, or titles within an organization, for example: marketing coordinator, marketing director, or assistant athletic administrator.
- **Occupation:** this includes a specific line of work that an individual engages in order to earn a living at a given point in time. This requires certain skills, knowledge, and duties that differentiate it from other occupations, and are transferable across settings, for example: marketing, finance, or operations.

21. This is how I feel regarding my work context...

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
There are many good jobs available for me within intercollegiate athletic administration.	<input type="radio"/>				
There are many good jobs available for me in my institution/organization.	<input type="radio"/>				
I have the opportunity to move easily between institution/organization.	<input type="radio"/>				
I have the opportunity to move easily between jobs with the institution/organization.	<input type="radio"/>				
I have the opportunity to move easily between occupations.	<input type="radio"/>				
The institution/organization I work for provides training opportunities.	<input type="radio"/>				
I believe that I have a good chance of being promoted in my current institution/organization.	<input type="radio"/>				
This institution/organization provides many opportunities for me to develop my career.	<input type="radio"/>				

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
It would be easy for me to find another job in another department within the institution/organization.	<input type="radio"/>				
Employees within the institution/organization are always informed of job vacancies available in this institution/organization.	<input type="radio"/>				
Most job vacancies are filled by employees within the institution/organization as opposed to being filled by people outside of the institution/organization.	<input type="radio"/>				
I would like to have the option to change my current occupation.	<input type="radio"/>				

22. The following factors are important in order to **keep me from leaving** an institution/organization....

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
a) Salary	<input type="radio"/>				
b) Benefits provided by the organization	<input type="radio"/>				
c) The leadership of the organization	<input type="radio"/>				
d) The organization provides diversity programs	<input type="radio"/>				
e) Trust within the organization	<input type="radio"/>				
f) Supervisor recognition of the work which I have done.	<input type="radio"/>				
g) An opportunity to utilize my knowledge and skills	<input type="radio"/>				
h) The organization invests in skill development training	<input type="radio"/>				
i) Social friendships within the organization	<input type="radio"/>				
j) Ability to balance my work and family life	<input type="radio"/>				
k) Supervisor feedback	<input type="radio"/>				
l) Career opportunities within the organization	<input type="radio"/>				
m) The organization has relevant resources	<input type="radio"/>				
n) Challenging work	<input type="radio"/>				
o) Employees within the organization are promoted	<input type="radio"/>				
p) Opportunities for career growth and development	<input type="radio"/>				
q) Opportunities to apply my knowledge	<input type="radio"/>				

Organizational Turnover Intentions

* 24. The following are some statements that can be made about your intentions to stay within an organization. Please respond by using the following scale: 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I intend to leave this organization soon.	<input type="radio"/>						
I plan to leave this organization in the next little while.	<input type="radio"/>						
I will quit this organization as soon as possible.	<input type="radio"/>						
I do not plan on leaving this organization soon.	<input type="radio"/>						
I might leave this organization before too long.	<input type="radio"/>						

25. Please use this section to provide any general comments you might have regarding this survey (e.g, length of time to complete).

APPENDIX B

Perceived Career Mobility Construct Approval

From: "East, Deborah" <Deborah.East@tandf.co.uk>
Subject: RE: DE/RPIA/P8580
Date: September 29, 2016 at 6:34:30 AM CDT
To: "Wilcox, Rachael" <rmw017@SHSU.EDU>

Hi Rachael, Thanks for your email, as per my previous email, we will allow the usage of the perceived career mobility scale, but to advise we would not allow the full article on ProQuest.

Thank you
Debbie

From: Wilcox, Rachael [mailto:rmw017@SHSU.EDU] **Sent:** 29 September 2016 12:18
To: East, Deborah **Cc:** Holder, Ann **Subject:** Re: DE/RPIA/P8580

Hi Debbie,
Just to clarify, I would be using the perceived career mobility scale only from this article. I have the full scale provided by Dr. Coetzee and the factor analysis results. I will not be reprinting the article in its entirety.

The perceived career mobility scale, reliability and validity measures, and the results using a sample within my study will be published on Proquest for the final dissertation.

Please let me know if you have any questions.

Rachael Wilcox, M.A.
Adjunct Faculty
Department of Kinesiology, HKC 220
Sam Houston State University rmw017@shsu.edu

On Sep 29, 2016, at 6:07 AM, East, Deborah <Deborah.East@tandf.co.uk> wrote:

Dear Rachael, Thank you for your email, as this is just a figure this is ok to continue, but just to advise, we would not allow the full article on ProQuest.

Thank you and kindest regards

Debbie East.

From: Wilcox, Rachael [<mailto:rmw017@SHSU.EDU>] **Sent:** 16 September 2016 19:42
To: East, Deborah^[SEP] **Subject:** Re: DE/RPIA/P8580

Dear Debbie East,

Thank you so much for your response to my request. I wanted to clarify that the dissertation repository for Sam Houston State University involves publication in Proquest's online database and also provides print versions of dissertations. In other words, Sam Houston State University will submit the dissertation to Proquest, a third party repository.

Can you please confirm whether the permission to use the perceived career mobility scale within my dissertation can be granted under these publication conditions?

Thank you for your time and attention to this request.

Rachael

Rachael Wilcox, M.A.
Adjunct Faculty
Department of Kinesiology, HKC 220
Sam Houston State University rmw017@shsu.edu

On Sep 16, 2016, at 5:15 AM, East, Deborah <Deborah.East@tandf.co.uk> wrote:
Our Ref: DE/RPIA/P8580

12 September 2016

Dear Rachel Wilcox,

Material requested: 1 x (Measuring Instrument only) - Tanzia F. João & Melinde Coetzee (2012) Job Retention Factors, Perceived Career Mobility and Organisational Commitment in the South African Financial Sector, Journal of Psychology in Africa, 22:1, 69-76.

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Yours sincerely

Debbie East.
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From: Wilcox, Rachael [<mailto:rmw017@SHSU.EDU>] **Sent:** 08 September 2016 16:27
To: Academic UK Non Rightslink **Cc:** Holder, Ann; Onwuegbuzie, Tony **Subject:** Re: Perceived Career Mobility Scale

Attn: Journal Permissions Team:

I have completed the request form below with my responses in red. As this request is for a doctoral dissertation, some of the fields do not apply. I have copied the Director of Library Services, Ann Holder, at my institution as well as my doctoral dissertation chair, Tony Onwuegbuzie.

Please let me know if additional information is required for this request. I have also provided the nature of the request in the additional comments field.

Thank you for your consideration and help with this request.

Rachael Wilcox

Rachael Wilcox, M.A.

Adjunct Faculty

Department of Kinesiology, HKC 220

Sam Houston State University ^[1]
rmw017@shsu.edu

On Aug 31, 2016, at 8:46 AM, Academic UK Non Rightslink
<permissionrequest@tandf.co.uk> wrote:

Dear Rachael Wilcox ,

Thank you for your email, before I can process your request, can I please ask you to confirm to the following questions.

Permissions Request: Perceived Career Mobility Scale

Contact name: Rachael Wilcox

Street address: Bobby Marks Drive, Health & Kinesiology Department

Town: Huntsville, TX

Postcode/ZIP code: 77341

Country: USA

Contact telephone number: [REDACTED] cell phone, 936-294-4034 office phone

Contact email address: rmw017@shsu.edu

Article title: Job retention factors, perceived career mobility and organizational commitment in the South African financial sector

Article DOI: No DOI Available

Author name: João, T. F., & Coetzee, M.

Journal title: Journal of Psychology in Africa

Volume number: 22

Issue number: 1

Year of publication: 2012

Page number(s): 69-76

Are you the sole author/editor of the new complete publication?: Yes; this request is for a dissertation that is currently in progress.

Are you requesting the full article?: The perceived career mobility scale only under Measuring Instruments

If no, please supply extract and include number of word: Measuring Instrument only

If no, please supply details of figure/table: no tables or figures will be used

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Is print:

Electronic:

E-reserve:

Period of use:

Short loan library?:

Thesis : Doctoral Dissertation

University : Sam Houston State University

To be reprinted in a new publication?:

In print format:

In eBook format?: N/A

ISBN: N/A

Languages: English

Distribution quantity:

Retail price: N/A

Additional comments: This request is specially to use the perceived career mobility scale published within the study. I have contacted Dr. Coetzee who has provided the instrument and factor analysis results. I am seeking publisher approval as the developing first author could not be located, as suggested by the Director of Library Services at my institution, Ann Holder, who I have copied on this email as well as my dissertation chair Tony Onwuegbuzie.

Please let me know if additional information is required for this request.

Thank you, Rachael Wilcox
 Thank you and kindest regards
 The Journal Permissions Team.

Original Message Subject :Fwd: Perceived Career Mobility Scale Date :30/08/16 22:32
 From :Wilcox, Rachael<rmw017@SHSU.EDU> To :"enquiries@taylorandfrancis.com"
 <enquiries@taylorandfrancis.com> Cc : "Onwuegbuzie, Tony" <AJO002@SHSU.EDU>

Attn: Editorial Administrator,

I am a doctoral candidate at Sam Houston State University in Huntsville Texas. I am writing to you to request approval to use an instrument used within an article that was published by your publishing firm. The title of the article is ?Job Retention Factors, Perceived Career Mobility and Organizational Commitment in South African Financial Sector.? The article authors are Joao Tanzia and Melinde Coetzee, it was published in the Journal of Psychology in Africa, 22: 1, 69-76.

I have contacted one of the authors, Melinde Coetzee, who indicated that the scale was originally developed by student who cannot be located; the email is attached. The two scholars later published the article of interest using the same scale (perceived career mobility scale). Melinde Coetzee has provided me with a copy of the instrument and the factor analysis that was conducted for their study.

I have contacted the Director of Library Services, Ann Holder, at my institution for guidance of obtaining approval. She suggested I contact the publisher to request permission to use the instrument within my dissertation.

I have copied my dissertation chair, Tony Onwuegbuzie, as a formality of this request. Please let me know if any further information needs to be provided.

Thank you,

Rachael Wilcox, M.A.

Adjunct Faculty

Department of Kinesiology, HKC 220

Sam Houston State University rmw017@shsu.edu

APPENDIX C

Job Satisfaction Construct Approval

From: Packianathan Chelladurai chella@troy.edu 
Subject: RE: Job Satisfaction Construct
Date: August 3, 2016 at 3:53 PM
To: Wilcox, Rachael rmw017@SHSU.EDU

PC

Hi, Rachael:

Thank you for your interest in our work.

I have attached the scale we used.

You have the permission to use it as you deem fit.

Wish you the best with your research.

Take care.

Chella



Packianathan Chelladurai, Ph.D., LL.D.
 Distinguished Professor
 School of Hospitality, Sport, and Tourism Management
 Troy University

1 University of Western Ontario, Canada
 1 Ohio State University, U.S.A.

288 Grangeover Avenue
 London, Ontario
 Canada N6G 4K5

From: Wilcox, Rachael [<mailto:rmw017@SHSU.EDU>]
Sent: Wednesday, August 03, 2016 10:05 AM
To: chelladurai.1@osu.edu
Cc: Onwuegbuzie, Tony <AJO002@SHSU.EDU>
Subject: Job Satisfaction Construct

Dr. Chelladurai,

I am a doctoral student in the Educational Leadership Ed.D Program at Sam Houston State

APPENDIX D

Intentions to Quit Construct Approval

From: Craig Crossley <Craig.Crossley@ucf.edu>
 Subject: RE: Intentions To Quit Construct
 Date: November 1, 2016 at 1:02:19 PM CDT
 To: "Wilcox, Rachael" <rmw017@SHSU.EDU>
 Cc: "Onwuegbuzie, Tony" <AJO002@SHSU.EDU>

Hi Rachel (& Tony),

Thank you for the note, and yes - feel free to use the scale.

Good luck with your dissertation!

Best,
 Craig

From: Wilcox, Rachael [rmw017@SHSU.EDU]
Sent: Tuesday, November 01, 2016 11:05 AM
To: Craig Crossley
Cc: Onwuegbuzie, Tony
Subject: Intentions To Quit Construct

Dr. Crossley,

I am a doctoral student in the Educational Leadership Ed.D. Program at Sam Houston State University. I am currently working on a dissertation regarding the turnover intentions of intercollegiate athletic administrators. I am incorporating a construct related to turnover intentions.

I have read your article titled "Development of a Global Measure of Job Embeddedness and Integration Into a Traditional Model of Voluntary Turnover (2007)." I am writing to request your formal permission to use the five-item scale related to intentions to quit published within this article.

I have copied my dissertation chair, Tony Onwuegbuzie, as a formality of the dissertation process.

Thank you for your consideration,

Rachael Wilcox, M.A.
 Adjunct Faculty
 Department of Kinesiology, HKC 220
 Sam Houston State University

APPENDIX E

IRB Approval



Dear Senior Athletic Administrators,

My name is Rachael Wilcox and I am a doctoral student in the Educational Leadership Ed.D. Program at Sam Houston State University. I am conducting a research dissertation titled "Perceived Career Mobility, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Turnover Intentions Among Senior Athletic Administrators at NCAA Division I FBS Institutions as a function of Gender and Ethnicity". I am conducting this research under the direction of Professor Tony Onwuegbuzie at Sam Houston State University.

The purpose of the study is two-fold; the first purpose is to collect demographic, educational, and business experience characteristics to help provide profile information for senior-level athletic administrators because profile research among this population currently is lacking. The second purpose is to obtain information related to organization outcomes, specifically perceived career mobility, job satisfaction, and organizational turnover intentions as a function of gender and ethnicity.

Should you participate, participation will consist of completing an online survey that will take approximately 10 to 15 minutes of your time. Within the next week, you will receive an email with further instructions, an informed consent letter, and link to the online survey using Survey Monkey (i.e., online survey tool). The use of IP addresses will be disabled in this application to ensure anonymity of participants. Participation in this study is voluntary and your identity and the identity of your university will be protected.

You have been selected for participation in this study because of your position at your institution. Your input in this Institutional Review Board-approved research will contribute to the understanding of organizational outcomes among senior-level athletic administrators. Moreover, the research findings have the potential to help existing administrators create professional development and retention programs within NCAA Division I FBS institutions.

I will be happy to answer any questions you might have. Please contact me directly at rmw017@shsu.edu. I appreciate your consideration and I am very enthusiastic about your potential participation. I believe that this research will be valuable to administrators within intercollegiate athletics. As such, I respectfully request your participation in this research.

Sincerely,
Rachael Wilcox

Doctoral Candidate, Educational Leadership College of Education
Sam Houston State University
Huntsville, TX 77340-2119

APPENDIX F

Informed Consent

***Informed Consent***

My name is Rachael Wilcox and I am doctoral student of the Educational Leadership Ed.D. Program at Sam Houston State University. I would like to take this opportunity to invite you to participate in a research study about perceived career mobility, job satisfaction, and organizational turnover intentions among senior administrators at NCAA Division I FBS institutions. I am conducting this research under the direction of Professor Tony Onwuegbuzie. I hope that data from this research will help those who work in academic programs and within intercollegiate athletics understand better the effects of organizational outcomes (i.e., perceive career mobility, job satisfaction, and organizational turnover intentions) have as function of gender and ethnicity. You have been asked to participate in the research because you are a senior administrator at the NCAA Division I FBS subdivision level.

The research is relatively straightforward, and we do not expect the research to pose any risk to any of the volunteer participants. If you consent to participate in this research, you will be asked to complete an online survey. Any data obtained from you will only be used for the purpose of examining organizational outcomes among intercollegiate athletic administrators. Under no circumstances will you or any other participants who participated in this research be identified. In addition, your data will remain confidential. Your survey responses will be kept confidential to the extent of the technology being used. Survey Monkey (i.e., the online survey tool) collects IP addresses for respondents; however, the ability to connect your survey responses to your IP address has been disabled for this survey. That means that I will not be able to identify your responses. You should, however, keep in mind that answers to specific questions might make you more identifiable. The security and privacy policy for Survey Monkey can be viewed at <https://www.surveymonkey.com/mp/policy/privacy-policy/>.

This research will require about 10 to 15 minutes of your time. Participants will not be paid or otherwise compensated for their participation in this project. Participation is voluntary; refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled, and you may discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you have any questions, please feel free to ask me using the contact information below. If you are interested, the results of this study will be available at the conclusion of the project.

If you have any questions about this research, please feel free to contact me, Rachael Wilcox or Tony Onwuegbuzie. If you have questions or concerns about your rights as research participants, please contact Sharla Miles, Office of Research and Sponsored Programs, using her contact information below:

Rachael Wilcox SHSU Educational Leadership Department Sam Houston State University Huntsville, TX 77341 Phone: (936) 294-2647 E-mail: rmw017@shsu.edu	Tony Onwuegbuzie SHSU Educational Leadership Department Sam Houston State University Huntsville, TX 77341 Phone: (936) 294-4509 E-mail: AJO002@shsu.edu	Sharla Miles Research and Sponsored Programs Sam Houston State University Huntsville, TX 77341 Phone: (936) 294-4875 Email: irb@shsu.edu
----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

I understand the above and consent to participate.

I do not wish to participate in the current study.

APPENDIX G

Approval to Modify Tables from Dr. Benge

Of course you may use the tables you need. So glad that you are finishing up!

Cindy

Dr. Cindy Benge

Aldine ISD
Curriculum and Instruction
14909 Aldine Westfield
Houston, TX 77073
281-985-6401

On Tue, Mar 7, 2017 at 1:54 PM, Wilcox, Rachael <rmw017@shsu.edu> wrote:
Hello Dr. Benge,

I am writing to you to request your permission to use and adapt tables from one of your published articles, namely Benge, Onwuegbuzie and Robbins (2012). I would like to use and modify your tables pertaining to threats to internal and external validity, the tables will be incorporated into my dissertation. Modification of the tables will be cited appropriately.

Please let me know if you have any questions and thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely,
Rachael Wilcox

Rachael Wilcox, M.A.
Adjunct Faculty
Department of Kinesiology, HKC 220
Sam Houston State University
rmw017@shsu.edu

“Whatever you are, be a good one.” ~ Abraham Lincoln

APPENDIX H

Approval to Modify Tables from Dr. Fulks

No problem, Rachael. There are more recent data available if you prefer.

Good luck with the disser -- What's the title?

Dan

Daniel Fulks, Ph.D, CPA
Adjunct Professor Eastern Kentucky University
NCAA Research Consultant
Faculty Emeritus University of Kentucky



-----Original Message-----

From: Wilcox, Rachael <rmw017@SHSU.EDU>
To: danfulks <>
Cc: Onwuegbuzie, Tony <AJO002@SHSU.EDU>
Sent: Thu, Apr 6, 2017 9:13 am
Subject: Dissertation Request to Use Table

Dr. Fulks,

My name is Rachael Wilcox and I am a doctoral candidate for the Educational Leadership Ed.D. program at Sam Houston State University. I am working on my dissertation and would like to request your permission to reproduce a table based on the NCAA Revenues and Expense Report that you provide.

I have attached a copy of the table with a citation (below), with your permission I would like to use this table within my dissertation. I have copied my dissertation Chair, Tony Onwuegbuzie as a formality. Please let me know if you have any questions.

Fulks, D. (2014a). *2004 - 2013 NCAA Division I Intercollegiate Athletics Programs Report*. Retrieved from <http://www.ncaapublications.com/productdownloads/D1REVEXP2013.pdf>

Thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely,
Rachael Wilcox

VITA

RACHAEL WILCOX-PEREIRA, Ed.D.*Email: rmw017@shsu.edu***PROFESSIONAL PROFILE**

- 8 years' teaching experience within higher education
- 10 years' experience working in corporate environment
- Strong interpersonal, communication, and leadership skills
- Proven leadership and adaptability to changing environments
- Diverse professional background; corporate and higher education experiences
- Expertise in product management with extensive project experience

EDUCATION

- **Ed. D., Higher Education Leadership**, Sam Houston State University, Expected May 2018

DISSERTATION: *Perceived Career Mobility, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Turnover Intentions Among Senior Administrators at NCAA Division I FBS Institutions as a Function of Gender and Ethnicity*

- **M. A., Kinesiology, Sport Management**, Sam Houston State University, 2010
- **B. S., Health Services, Minor Athletic Coaching**, New York State University at Plattsburgh, 1994

ACADEMIC HONORS AND AWARDS

- Dean's Award for Graduate Research, Southwest Educational Research Association, 2015

For the following paper:

Jordan, J., **Wilcox, R.**, Paitson, D., & Parker, M. (2015, February). *The role of doctoral studies on the relationships between select doctoral students and their partners: A collective case study*. Paper presented at the meeting of the Southwest Educational Research Association, San Antonio, TX.

ACADEMIC TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Adjunct Faculty, Sam Houston State University, Huntsville, TX, 2009 to Present
Department of Kinesiology

- KINE 1114 Innovative Games
- KINE 2115 Lifetime Health and Wellness
- KINE 2115 Lifetime Health and Wellness Online Course
- KINE 1331 Foundations of Kinesiology
- KINE 1331 Foundations of Kinesiology Online Course
- KINE 1331 Foundations of Kinesiology Team-Based Learning
- KINE 3378 Administration of Kinesiology and Sport

Lecturer, Sam Houston State University, Huntsville, TX, 2010 to 2011
Department of First Year Experience

- UNIV 1301 Introduction to Collegiate Studies

Lecturer, Clinton County Community College, Plattsburgh, NY, 1995
Department of Physical Education

- Health and Wellness

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

July 2005 – July 2007

Senior Product Manager for Mortgages and Lending, Canadian Bank of Imperial
Commerce (CIBC)
Toronto, Ontario

- Established strategic business direction and ensured plan aligned with the overall corporate strategy. Oversaw the design, development and implementation of the annual plan for mortgages and personal loans. Implemented risk management and collection strategies to mitigate loan losses. Managed risk-based pricing strategies to optimize revenue growth and product profitability. Participated in the development of loan loss strategy programs leveraging account management TRIAD. Built and maintained strong relationships with other lines of business within the organization to support the Bank's strategic objectives and customer needs.

November 2002 – June 2005

Business Consultant for Special Projects, TD Canada Trust
Toronto, Ontario

- Lead lending product representative for a high profile, strategic lending project implemented to launch an account management system designed to manage risk at the customer level. Partnered with third party consultants to design, develop and identify business requirements for implementation. Generated analysis to support business decisions. Managed relationships with internal and external partners. Demonstrated ability to obtain support from other business units. Ensured customer experience was main focus of project deliverables.

October 2000 – October 2002

Product Manager for Acquisition Personal Lending, TD Canada Trust

- Lead product representative in annual business planning process including business review, product strategy, and business and marketing plan. Product owner for all Acquisition related national marketing campaigns and direct marketing initiatives including product positioning and pricing. Analyzed monthly market share reports to monitor basis point change and trends within market place and provided commentary for executive management team. Managed competitive analysis and provided key product recommendations related to product features, pricing and channel distribution. Reviewed monthly business results to monitor sales and growth to achieve sales objective relative to plan. Ensured growth of outstanding volumes through the development of innovation product lines and implementation of marketing strategies

July 1999 – September 2000

Assistant Product Manager for Automotive Lending, TD Canada Trust

- Responsible for overseeing and implementing product pricing strategies for indirect automotive lending. Oversaw and managed customer price exceptions. Provided competitive analysis for product portfolio. Established and maintained external relationships with automotive lending sales force.

March 1998 – August 1999

Product Coordinator for New Channel Development, TD Canada Trust

- Assisted in the overall development of new channel development strategies and programs. Assisted in the development of a new strategy and process for a student-lending program.

KINESIOLOGY EXPERIENCE

August 1996 – July 1997

Assistant Women's Soccer Coach, Methodist College

ODP (U16) Assistant Women's Soccer Coach

Fayetteville, NC

- Responsible for assisting head coach in conducting practices schedules, games, recruiting, off-season training, and miscellaneous responsibilities.

August 1996 – July 1997

Special Events Coordinator, Fayetteville Youth Soccer Organization

Fayetteville, NC

- Responsible for researching and implementing annual fundraising plan for the organization; implemented the annual direct mailing fundraising campaign and annual golf tournament event. Responsible for coordinating volunteers for youth soccer recreation program and facilitating weekly soccer clinic for youth soccer participants. Contributed to the planning of tournaments and working events.

Fall 1995

Head Women's Soccer Coach, Clinton County Community College

Plattsburgh, NY

- Responsible for all head coaching duties; planning practices, organizing games schedules, team travel, recruiting, etc.

Fall 1994

Assistant Women's Soccer Coach, Nardin Academy

Buffalo, NY

- Assisted head coach in all duties related to coaching the team; ran practices, organized travel, communicated with parents, etc.

1994 – July 1996

Various positions in Health and Fitness Industry: Personal Trainer, Sales Associate, Health Club Manager, and Sponsorship Account Executive for Professional Hockey Team

- Held various positions within kinesiology field. Responsible for training clients, preparing sales plans, managing health club, generating sales contracts for sponsorship, etc.

PUBLICATIONS

- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., **Wilcox, R.**, Gonzales, V., Hoisington, S., Lambert, J., Jordan, J., Aleisa, M., Bengé, C. L., Wachsmann, M.S., & Valle, R. (in press). Collaboration patterns among mixed researchers: A multidisciplinary examination. *International Journal of Multiple Research Approaches*, 10(1).
- Jordan, J., **Wilcox, R.**, Paitson, D., Parker, M., Li, X., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (in press). The role of doctoral studies on the relationships between select doctoral students and their partners: A collective case study. *The Qualitative Report*.
- Jordan, J., Wachsmann, M. Hoisington, S., Gonzalez, V., Aleisa, M., Valle, R., **Wilcox, R.**, Bengé, C., & Onwuegbuzie, A. (2017). *Collaboration patterns as a function of article genre among mixed researchers: a mixed methods bibliometric study. Journal of Educational Issues*, 3(1), 83-108.

PRESENTATIONS

PEER-REVIEWED PRESENTATIONS

- Jordan, J., Wachsmann, M. Hoisington, S., Gonzalez, V., Aleisa, M., **Wilcox, R.**, Bengé, C., & Onwuegbuzie, A. (2016). *Collaboration patterns as a function of article genre among mixed researchers: a mixed methods bibliometric study*. Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association Annual Meeting, Washington, D.C.
- Wachsmann, M., Hoisington, S., Gonzales, V., **Wilcox, R.**, Aleisa, M., & Onwuegbuzie A., (2016). *Collaboration patterns as a function of research experience among mixed researchers: A mixed methods bibliometric study*. Paper Presented at the annual SERA Conference. New Orleans, LA.
- Wilcox, R.**, Jordan, J., Wachsmann, M., Hoisington, S., Gonzales, V., & Onwuegbuzie A., (2015). *Authorship, collaboration, and gender: A multidisciplinary examination of trends among mixed researchers*. Paper Presented at the Mixed Methods Regional Conference, San Antonio, TX
- Onwuegbuzie, A., **Wilcox, R.**, Gonzales, V., Hoisington, S., Lambert, J., Jordan, J., Aleisa, M., Bengé, C., Wachsmann, M., & Valle, R. (2015). *Collaboration patterns among mixed methods researchers: A multidisciplinary examination*. Paper Presented at the Mixed Methods International Research Association. Mona, Jamaica.
- Jordan, J., **Wilcox, R.**, Parker, M., & Paitson, D. X. (2015). *The role of doctoral studies on the relationships between select doctoral students and their partners: A collective case study*. Paper Presented at the annual SERA Conference. San Antonio, TX

Wilcox, R., Valle, R., Gonzales, V., Paitson, D., & Venzant, M. (2014). *Relationship between graduation rates and percentage of tenured and tenure-track faculty among 4-year Texas public universities.* Paper Presented at the annual SERA Conference. New Orleans, LA.

ACADEMIC PRESENTATIONS

Wilcox, R. (2014). *Introduction to Statistical Methods.* Presented to COUN7373 Statistical Methodologies Course. Sam Houston State University, Huntsville, TX.

Wilcox, R. (2014). *Introduction to Qualitative Research Methodologies.* Presented to EDLD7372 Qualitative Research Methodologies Course. Sam Houston State University, Huntsville, TX.

PROFESSIONAL PRESENTATIONS

Wilcox, R. (2006). *Account Management Initiative Project Updates.* Presented to Executive Management Team. CIBC, Toronto, Ontario.

Wilcox, R. (2006). *Account Management Initiative Project.* Presented to the Department of Mortgages and Lending. CIBC, Toronto, Ontario.

Wilcox, R. (2006). *Loan Loss Provision for Student Loan Portfolio.* Presented Quarterly Reports to Executive Management Team. CIBC, Toronto, Ontario.

Wilcox, R. (2002). *Unsecured Lending Portfolio Market Share Reports.* Prepared Quarterly Written Commentary Reports for Executive Management Team. TD Canada Trust, Toronto, Ontario.

Wilcox, R. (2000; 2001; 2002). *Retail Unsecured Lending Branch Manager Road Shows.* Presented Retail Unsecured Lending Product Strategies and Positioning to Retail Branch Managers. Canada Trust, Toronto, Ontario.

ACADEMIC SERVICES/INTERNSHIPS

Academic Years 2016-2017

- Southwest Educational Research Association, SHSU Graduate Student Representative

Academic Years 2012-2013 and 2013-2014

- Part-Time Faculty Liaison for Department Health & Kinesiology, Sam Houston State University
- Mentor Liaison for Department Health & Kinesiology, Sam Houston State University

ACADEMIC INTERNSHIPS

- Higher Education Leadership Ed. D. Program
Student Intern Athletic Services, Athletic Department August – December 2014
 - Sport Management Master's Program
Student Intern External Operations, Athletic Department January –
-