

8-2016

Differences in Organizational Commitment Between Male and Female Coaches at the High School Level

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Differences in Organizational Commitment Between Male and Female Coaches at the High School Level

Abstract

The purpose of this research was to investigate the organizational commitment levels between male and female coaches at the high school level by using descriptive statistics. This study analyzed organizational commitment levels between male and female coaches at the Division I and III collegiate levels using Meyer, Allen, and Smith's (1993) Revised Commitment Survey, as well as seven personal characteristic questions, which were used to measure each participant's organizational commitment. There were 331 possible coaches (250 = male, 81 = female) who were eligible to participate in the study. Additional demographic questions were added to the survey regarding age, gender, kinship responsibilities, organizational tenure, occupational tenure, coaching level, and the sport coached. Results revealed that there are no differences between Orange County Interscholastic Athletic Association (OCIAA) male and female coaches' levels of affective commitment (AC), normative commitment (NC), continuance commitment (CC), continuance commitment low alternative (CC:LoAlt), and continuance commitment high sacrifice (CC:HiSac). However, there were differences between the different levels of AC, NC, and CC for the entire population of OCIAA coaches who participated in the study. Recommended research should explore the commitment level of same-gender coaching responsibilities and between different genders of coaches in the same sport. Coaches may have higher commitment levels when they are coaching teams of their own gender. For example, women who coach girls may have different commitment levels than women who coach boys. Future research is also recommended to see if a correlation exists between the organizational commitment of the athletic director and his or her coaching staff.

Degree Type

Dissertation

Degree Name

Doctor of Education (EdD)

Department

Executive Leadership

First Supervisor

Shelley Jallow

Subject Categories

Education

Differences in Organizational Commitment Between Male and Female Coaches
at the High School Level

By

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Submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree
Ed.D. in Executive Leadership

Supervised by

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August 2016

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Dedication

This process was made possible by the encouragement and guidance of so many people. To my wife, Victoria, who supports and loves me unconditionally; her support and encouragement gave me the strength to push forward to the end. To my sons, Drew and Brady, I hope this experience will serve as motivation for the both of you to work hard, value your education, and show grit and perseverance in any obstacle you encounter. I also want to thank my parents, grandparents, and the rest of my family who encouraged me to pursue this doctorate and showed unwavering faith in my abilities to accomplish this task.

Heartfelt thank you to my committee chairperson, Dr. Shelley Jallow, and committee member, Dr. Colleen McLaughlin, for their patience, support, and scholarship. You are both truly special individuals to me who I will never forget. Thank you to Dr. Josephine Moffett, who served as my academic advisor, for all the support and guidance that you provided to me and the rest of the cohort. A special thank you to my statistician, Dr. Renae Blumstein, for the statistical support and expertise. Thank you to my executive mentor, Mr. Robert Karchawer, for all of your support, encouragement, and faith in my abilities through this journey.

Biographical Sketch

Gregory V. Voloshin is a career educator and coach who currently serves as Athletic Director/Assistant Principal at the Goshen Central School District. In his capacities as Athletic Director at Goshen, he is a leader in the athletic program and in curriculum development. Mr. Voloshin attended Boston University from 1997 to 2001 and graduated with a Bachelor of Science degree in Secondary History Education in 2001. He attended the New York Institute of Technology from 2002 to 2004 and graduated with a Master of Science degree in Instructional Technology in 2004. In addition, he has an Administrative Certificate from Long Island University and a Master of Science degree in Physical Education from Canisius College. Mr. Voloshin came to St. John Fisher College in the summer of 2014 and began doctoral studies in the Ed.D. Program in Executive Leadership. He pursued his research on the differences in organizational commitment between male and female coaches at the high school level under the direction of Dr. Shelley Jallow and Dr. Colleen McLaughlin and received the Ed.D. in the summer of 2016.

Abstract

The purpose of this research was to investigate the organizational commitment levels between male and female coaches at the high school level by using descriptive statistics. This study analyzed organizational commitment levels between male and female coaches at the Division I and III collegiate levels using Meyer, Allen, and Smith's (1993) Revised Commitment Survey, as well as seven personal characteristic questions, which were used to measure each participant's organizational commitment.

There were 331 possible coaches (250 = male, 81 = female) who were eligible to participate in the study. Additional demographic questions were added to the survey regarding age, gender, kinship responsibilities, organizational tenure, occupational tenure, coaching level, and the sport coached.

Results revealed that there are no differences between Orange County Interscholastic Athletic Association (OCIAA) male and female coaches' levels of affective commitment (AC), normative commitment (NC), continuance commitment (CC), continuance commitment low alternative (CC:LoAlt), and continuance commitment high sacrifice (CC:HiSac). However, there were differences between the different levels of AC, NC, and CC for the entire population of OCIAA coaches who participated in the study. Recommended research should explore the commitment level of same-gender coaching responsibilities and between different genders of coaches in the same sport. Coaches may have higher commitment levels when they are coaching teams of their own gender. For example, women who coach girls may have different

commitment levels than women who coach boys. Future research is also recommended to see if a correlation exists between the organizational commitment of the athletic director and his or her coaching staff.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Introduction

Many studies in sports management have examined to what extent individuals are committed, to whom they are committed, and the consequences of their commitment (Turner, 2008). Researchers have also begun to investigate the effect of commitment level on a sports coach's intentions to stay with a program or leave the organization to explore other opportunities (Cunningham, Sagas, & Ashley, 2001; Turner & Chelladurai, 2005). Additionally, commitment has also been shown to be significantly correlated to turnover in the workplace (Meyer & Allen, 1997). However, one area of sports management that has been neglected in past research is the differences that might exist in organizational leadership between males and females (Turner, 2008). This research study investigates the potential differences between male and female sports coaches at the high school level, with the aim to increase the research base related to organizational commitment.

There are many various definitions of commitment. Meyer & Allen (1991) developed a framework that breaks down organizational commitment into three categories: affective commitment (AC), continuance commitment (CC), and normative commitment (NC). Affective commitment refers to an employees' emotional attachment, identification with, and involvement in an organization. Employees with a strong AC continue employment in organizations because they want to. Continuance commitment refers to an individual's assessment of the costs associated with leaving an organization.

These are employees who believe that the cost of leaving the organization is greater than remaining because they need to. Lastly, normative commitment refers to an employees' feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with high levels of NC stay with organizations because they feel they ought to (Meyer & Allen, 1991). For the purposes of this research, all three of the aforementioned types of organizational commitment are used to compare the differences between male and female high school coaches, which will be discussed more fully in Chapter 2.

When thinking about the role of females in athletics historically, it could be said that the passage of Title IX (1972) revolutionized sports participation in high school athletics for female student athletes (Stevenson, 2007). At its inception in 1971-72, there was a total of 3,960,932 participants in high school athletics, with 294,015 being female, representing 7.4% of the total population. By 2013-14, there was a total of 7,795,658 high school athletes, with 3,267,664, or 42%, being female (National Federation of State High School Associations [NFHS], 2015). Because of the rise in female athletes, this also led to a rise in more coaching opportunities for women.

At one point, almost all women's teams had female coaches. However, "as female sports grew in importance and popularity, coaching became more attractive to men" (Blumenthal, 2005, p. 116). Recent data reveals that White men occupy 86.2%, 88%, and 91.9% of head coaching positions for men and women teams at the Division I, II, and III collegiate levels, respectively (Lapchick, Augusta, Kinkopf, & McPhee, 2013). Furthermore, 56.1% of women sports head coaching positions at the Division I, II, and III collegiate levels are also occupied by White men (Lapchick et al., 2013). In contrast, 3% of men's teams at the Division I level were coached by White women (Lapchick et al.,

2013). Additionally, women comprised 34.2% of head coaching positions at the Division II, and 42.9% at the Division III collegiate level (Lapchick et al., 2013). More specifically, 38.6% of women in collegiate sports at the Division I level are coached by head coaches who are White women (Lapchick et al., 2013).

Two Supreme Court cases further strengthened Title IX. In 1992, *Franklin v. Gwinnett County Public Schools* resolved that “schools could be held liable for discrimination toward women by individual members in the institution and allowed for punitive damages to be awarded to plaintiffs in Title IX lawsuits” (Stevenson, 2007, p. 5). This case was followed by the 1994 Equity in Athletics Disclosure Act, which “required that any institution of higher education participating in any federal student financial aid program make information about the school’s athletic program public” (Stevenson, 2007, p. 5). The aforementioned statistics served to highlight the background information for this study and the need for further research in gender differences in coaching at the high school level.

Problem Statement

There is a decreasing number of female coaches in athletics, and studies have shown that organizational commitment is directly related to an employee’s attendance, behavior, and job performance (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Turner, 2008). It has been over 40 years since the passage of Title IX, and although there has been progress to achieve gender equality, there is still not equity in opportunity for female athletes and coaches at the high school and college levels (Sabo & Veliz, 2011; Turner, 2008). There has been a decrease in the number of female coaches in the

National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) in recent years (Acosta & Carpenter, 2006).

According to Turner (2008), the percentage of women coaching female teams in the NCAA at the Division I and III levels is at an all-time low (42.4%), down from over 90%, the year in which Title IX was enacted (Turner, 2008). Female head coaches of collegiate male athletic teams represent a 2% minority (Acosta & Carpenter, 2006). This research study was designed as a replication of Turner's (2008) study entitled: *Does Commitment Develop in the Same Manner for Male and Female Coaches? An Examination of Personal and Job Characteristic Antecedents*. This study analyzes survey data to examine what, if any, differences in organizational commitment there may be between male and female coaches at the high school level.

Theoretical Rationale

There is a great deal of theoretical research that has been applied to organizational commitment. Meyer and Allen (2004) stated that "commitment implies an intention to persist in a course of action" (p. 2). Research has found that the commitment level of an employee is related to a reduction in turnover (Meyer et al., 2002). Meyer and Allen (2004) stated that "it is commonly believed that committed employees will work harder and be more likely to 'go the extra mile' to achieve organizational objectives" (p. 2). As mentioned previously in this paper, further research conducted by Meyer and Allen (1991) and Allen and Meyer (1997) characterized commitment into three distinct categories: affective, normative, and continuance. The Three Component Model (TCM) (Appendix A), which was the original commitment survey developed by Allen and Meyer (1990), was used to analyze an individual's level of commitment for the

organization in which they worked. According to Allen and Meyer (1990), survey components related to commitment demonstrate how an employee feels about the organization they work for.

Additionally, Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) developed one of the most widely recognized definitions of organizational commitment. According to Porter et al. (1974), commitment is defined as “the strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization” (p. 604). Porter et al. (1974) identified three common factors that characterize organizational commitment, including an employee’s (a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization’s goals and values; (b) willingness to exert considerable effort on the behalf of the organization; and (c) strong desire to maintain membership in the organization. Based on the findings from their research, they developed the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) to measure commitment levels for nearly 20 years (Porter et al., 1974; Turner, 2008).

This research study used the Revised TCM to compare the commitment levels between male and female coaches at the high school level (Meyer et al., 1993). This version of the commitment survey “was prepared for those who intend to use the commitment scales for academic research purposes” (Meyer & Allen, 2004, p. 2). This survey includes three “well-validated scales, the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS), Normative Commitment Scale (NCS), and the Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS)” (Meyer & Allen, 2004, p. 2). These scales can be used to identify a commitment profile of individuals in an organization (Meyer & Allen, 2004).

Theory also suggests that the affective component of organizational commitment refers to an individual’s “emotional attachment to the organization such that the strongly

committed individual identifies with, is involved in, and enjoys membership in, the organization” (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 2). Employees with high levels of affective commitment stay committed to an organization because they want to (Meyer & Allen, 2004). Further research consistently revealed that employees high in affective commitment perform their job tasks better than those who are low in this area of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 2004).

Similarly, the normative component of commitment “refers to the employees’ feelings of obligation to remain with the organization” (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 1). Employees with high normative commitment scores stay with organizations because they believe they “ought to” (Meyer & Allen, 2004). Meyer and Allen (2004) stated that “employees who remain out of obligation (high normative commitment) also tend to outperform those who feel no such obligation (low normative commitment)” (p. 2).

Last, the continuance component “refers to commitment based on the costs employees associate with leaving the organization” (Allen & Meyer, 1990). These employees stay with an organization because they “have to” do so (Meyer & Allen, 2004). Several researchers have discovered that CC consists of two distinct sub categories: continuance commitment: high sacrifice (CC:HiSac) and continuance commitment: low alternative (CC:LoAlt) (Jaros, 1997; McGee & Ford, 1987; Meyer, Allen, & Gellatly, 1990). “Individuals high in CC:LoAlt believe they must remain with an organization because of a perceived lack of other viable employment opportunities, whereas those high in CC:HiSac remain because they believe that they would lose a lot personally by leaving the organization” (Turner, 2008, p. 17).

This research study used a quantitative approach that is a reproduction of the organization and research of Turner (2008), which analyzed commitment levels of male and female collegiate coaches. Turner's research used the Meyer et al. (1993) Revised TCM (Appendix B) to measure male and female coaches' affective, normative, and continuance commitment levels. Turner (2008) used the more recent version that had 18 items divided into three categories of six questions for each component (Meyer et al., 1993). Turner's research (2008), using the works of Allen and Meyer (1990), gave specific recommendations for future research in the field of organizational commitment among male and female coaches. However, this research study used the revised version to compare potential differences between organizational commitment levels between male and female high school coaches.

Statement of Purpose

Because there is a decreasing number of female coaches at the college level in athletics, and studies have shown that organizational commitment is directly related to an employee's attendance, behavior, and job performance (Meyer et al., 2002; Turner, 2008), the purpose of this study is to investigate potential differences in commitment levels between male and female coaches at the high school level. Turner (2008) suggested that future research should examine gender differences in commitment across different occupations and organizations. High school junior varsity (JV) and varsity coaches were chosen by this researcher, based on the research of Turner (2008), who conducted his commitment study with Division I and Division III college coaches.

Research Questions

This study focuses on organizational commitment and the differences in antecedents of commitment based on gender by asking the following four research questions:

1. What is the difference in affective commitment between male and female coaches within the Orange County Interscholastic Athletic Association (OCIAA)?
2. What is the difference in normative commitment between male and female coaches within the OCIAA?
3. What is the difference in continuance: high sacrifice commitment between male and female coaches within the OCIAA?
4. What is the difference in continuance: low number of alternatives commitment between male and female coaches within the OCIAA?

The four research questions were taken from Turner (2008) and focus directly upon differences in commitment development between male and female coaches. While Turner (2008) focused on collegiate male and female coaches, this study focuses on male and female coaches at the high school level. The four research questions are directly related to the data collection tool used by Turner (2008), which is also used in this research study at the high school level.

Potential Significance of the Study

More than 40 years after the passage of Title IX, women coaching female sports teams do not represent the majority of coaches in women's sports (Lapchick et al., 2013). Since the inception of Title IX there has been a declining number of women coaches that

is negatively affecting future female athletes from entering the profession (Weiss & Stevens, 1993). Additionally, the overwhelming majority of athletic directors are male, which contributes to covert discrimination and male domination in the field of coaching (Kilty, 2006).

This study gives recent data regarding the current percentages of male versus female coaches in the Orange County Interscholastic Athletic Association. The findings will be valuable in the area of future employment for female coaches and help to identify possible areas of job discrimination. Furthermore, positive correlations have been found between sport participation, academics, and future employment for female athletes at the high school level (Stevenson, 2010; Harrison & Narayan, 2003).

The majority of sports management studies have concentrated on determining the extent to which individuals are committed, to whom they are committed, and the consequences of this commitment. While these are important when investigating any work-related variable, a neglected area of study in the sport management literature has been determinants of commitment at the high school coaching level between male and female coaches. This study is important because it can provide high school athletic departments insight on (a) commitment levels of high school coaches, (b) what factors cause coaches to have commitment to the high school sports team they are coaching, and (c) the possibly identify factors that help to reduce turnover of coaches at the high school level.

Definitions of Terms

Affective Commitment (AC) – “the employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Employees with a strong

affective commitment continue employment in the organization because they want to do so” (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 11).

Continuance Commitment (CC) – an employee’s “awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Employees who have strong continuance commitment to an organization stay with the organization because they believe they *have to do so*” (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 56).

Continuance Commitment High Sacrifice (CC:HiSac) – the high sacrifice of personal investments in an organization if an individual were to leave that organization (Turner, 2008). These individuals “remain with the organization because they believe they would lose a lot personally by leaving the organization” (Turner, 2008, p. 17).

Continuance Commitment Low Alternative (CC:LoAlt) – an employee whose is staying committed to an organization because of the perceived low number of alternatives available to him or her (Turner, 2008).

Division I Schools – educational institutions that generally have the biggest student bodies, manage the largest athletics budgets and offer the most substantial number of scholarships. With nearly 350 colleges and universities in its membership, Division I schools field more than 6000 athletic teams, providing opportunities for more than 170,000 student-athletes to compete in NCAA sports each year (National Collegiate Athletic Association [NCAA], 2015a).

Division II Schools – educational institutions encompassing a collection of 300 NCAA colleges and universities that provide thousands of student-athletes the opportunity to compete at a high level of scholarship athletics while excelling in the classroom and fully engaging in the broader campus experience. The differences among

the divisions emerge primarily in how schools choose to fund their athletics programs and in the national attention they command (National Collegiate Athletic Association [NCAA], 2015b).

Division III Schools – educational institutions with more than 180,000 student-athletes at 450 institutions, representing the largest NCAA division both in number of participants and number of schools. Academics are the primary focus for Division III student-athletes, with no athletic scholarships are granted (National Collegiate Athletic Association [NCAA], 2015c).

Homologous Reproduction – “is the process whereby dominants reproduce themselves based on social and/or physical characteristics” (Stangl & Kane, 1991, p. 47).

The National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) – a non-profit consortium that regulates athletes of 1218 institutions, conferences, organizations, and individuals. It organizes the athletic programs of colleges and universities that helps more than 450,000 student-athletes who compete annually in sports (NCAA, 2015).

The National Federation of State High School Associations (NFHS) – the governing body that writes rules of competition for the majority of high school sports and activities in the United States (NFHS, 2015).

The New York Public High School Athletic Association (NYSPHSAA) – a non-profit, voluntary, educational service organization composed of public, parochial, and private schools dedicated to providing equitable and safe competition for the students of its member schools. Membership is open for secondary schools providing interscholastic athletic activities for boys and girls Grades 7-12 (New York Public High School Athletic Association, 2016).

Normative Commitment (NC) – an employee who has a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they ought to remain with the organization because it is the “right and moral” thing to do (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 60).

Organizational Commitment (OC) – an employee’s psychological state that attaches him or her to an organization, resulting in reduced turnover (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Social Exchange Theory – behavior that “is motivated by the desire to maximize positive experiences and minimize negative experiences through social interactions” (Weiss & Stevens, 1993, p. 246).

Chapter Summary

Coaches are one of the most significant resources to a high school athletic department because of their roles in recruiting, developing, and molding athletes into effective and successful sports teams (Turner & Chelladurai, 2005). Allen and Meyer (1990) believed that strongly committed employees are least likely to leave the organization in which they work. Since turnover among coaches is costly in many aspects of an athletic program, every effort should be made to retain the coaches who have proven to be successful (Turner, 2008; Turner & Chelladurai, 2005). This study is important in discovering if gender plays a role in the commitment levels of male and female coaches at the high school level.

Chapter 2 will provide an in-depth review of the literature and research relevant to this research study. The research design, methodology, and analysis is discussed in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 presents a detailed analysis of the results and findings, and Chapter

5 discusses the findings, implications, and recommendations for future research and practice.

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature

Introduction and Purpose

The passage of Title IX revolutionized mass sports participation in high school athletics and research has explored the implications that Title IX has had on participation in high school sports (Stevenson, 2007). However, the most recent political commentary concerning Title IX has been focused on the impact it has had on intercollegiate athletics, rather than at the high school level (Stevenson, 2007). Over 40 years have passed since the passage of Title IX legislation, and there is still a disproportionate number of male coaches to female coaches (Acosta & Carpenter, 2006). One explanation for the decreasing number of females entering the coaching profession is that they have few role models of their gender who coach (Acosta & Carpenter, 1985). This has resulted in fewer young female athletes who are likely to perceive coaching as a career choice and pursue it as a profession (Weiss & Stevens, 1993). According to Weiss and Stevens (1993), this has affected the number of female coaches pursuing coaching positions, especially head coaching positions (Weiss & Stevens, 1993).

Male domination of leadership positions in sport has created societal barriers that make it hard for women to break into the profession (Kilty, 2006). Research conducted by Chelladurai, Kuga, and O'Bryant (1999), Cunningham et al. (2003), and Sagas and Ashley (2001) indicates that the fewer number of women in head coaching positions is explained by their lack of intention, preference, low self-efficacy, low motivation to coach, and higher intent to leave the profession than men coaches. Other research has

highlighted that women coaches leave the field earlier than male coaches due to lack of opportunity, discrimination, and time demands (Knoppers, Meyer, Ewing, & Forrest, 1991; Stangl & Kane, 1991; Turner & Chelladurai, 2005; Weiss & Stevens, 1993). Turner and Chelladurai (2005) believed that placing life commitments over coaching commitments might create personal environments that require women coaches to be less committed than men coaches.

Defining Commitment

There is little consensus about one accepted definition of commitment. Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1983) observed that “researchers from various disciplines ascribed their own meanings to the topic, thereby increasing the difficulty involved in understanding the construct” (p. 20). Given the flexibility in the term, it comes as no surprise that there are different opinions about commitment and its positive or negative effect on an employee (Allen & Meyer, 1997). “Common to all the conceptualizations of commitment is the notion that commitment binds an individual to the organization” (Allen & Meyer, 1997, p. 13).

Allen and Meyer (1991) identified three central themes within the characteristic of commitment. These researchers believed that in these three themes, “commitment has been viewed as reflecting an affective orientation toward the organization, a recognition of costs associated with leaving the organization, and a moral obligation to remain with the organization” (Allen & Meyer, 1997, p. 11). These different categories were organized by Allen and Meyer (1991) into affective, normative, and continuance commitment. They argued that “it was more appropriate to consider affective, continuance, and normative commitment to be components, rather than types, of

commitment” (Allen & Meyer, 1991, p. 67). This is because an employee’s relationship with an organization might reflect varying degrees of all three types of commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1991).

Allen and Meyer (1997) investigated organizational commitment and found that an employee’s commitment level is significantly correlated to job turnover. Based on this notion, other researchers have undertaken studies that analyze the effects of commitment on coaches’ intentions to leave their organization or occupation (Cunningham et al., 2001; Turner & Chelladurai, 2005).

Turner and Chelladurai (2005) conducted a study that analyzed commitment and performance level of Division I and Division III head athletic coaches. They concluded that commitment level determined 23.7% of a coach’s intention to leave that position. However, their research indicated that there was no variance in the commitment level for head athletic coaches at the Division I and Division III collegiate levels (Turner & Chelladurai, 2005). In contrast to Turner and Chelladurai’s 2005 study, Turner (2008) conducted a study that analyzed the commitment level for male and female coaches at the Division I and Division III collegiate levels. Turner’s (2008) study revealed several findings. First, personal characteristics were not important predictors for both males and females’ levels of organizational commitment. Secondly, Turner (2008) discovered that female coaches had the highest level of variance in the CC:HiSac category. Turner (2008) interpreted this data to mean that job characteristics affect female coaches more than male coaches in terms of the personal sacrifices they would need to make by leaving their organization. Furthermore, “the longer female coaches are with an organization, the more their personal investment, makes it harder for them to leave” (Turner, 2008, p. 24).

The results also indicate that no matter how long a female coach is with an organization, she never truly feels like “part of the family,” which was found to be the opposite with male coaches (Turner, 2008). Turner (2008) suggested that this feeling is different for male and female coaches because there is a lack of female athletic administrators in collegiate athletic programs. According to Turner (2008), the only other job characteristic antecedent that contributed uniquely to the commitment of female coaches was public appreciation (Turner, 2008). Female coaches who felt they were appreciated felt an obligation to their employer (Turner, 2008). In contrast, Turner (2008) found that job security and sports prestige further enhanced organizational commitment for men.

Organizational commitment. There are many different definitions for organizational commitment that have developed over the years, with little agreement on an exact definition of the term (Allen & Meyer, 1997). Much of the theoretical framework discussed in organizational behavior literature focuses on an individual’s commitment to an organization (Allen & Meyer, 1997). Allen and Meyer (1990) defined organizational commitment as an employee’s psychological state that attaches them to an organization, resulting in reduced turnover. Porter et al. (1974) defined organizational commitment as the strength of a person’s involvement and identification with an organization. However, each unique individual has various conceptualizations of commitment, which include differences in the psychological state that is reflected in commitment, antecedent conditions, and anticipated behaviors that will result from commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

The three-component model of organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990) was developed based on the works of many different researchers. Each component was derived from the works of different researchers. The affective commitment component was based on the research of Mowday et al. (1983) who studied the antecedents of an individual's emotional attachment to an organization. The continuance commitment component was developed from Becker's (1960) side-bet theory that correlated an employee's commitment to an organization based on his or her personal need or to avoid losing money that would affect his or her living situation. Last, the normative component was influenced by the work of Wiener (1982), who deemed that an individual's commitment to an organization was influenced by that person's life experiences, before employment and socialization within the organization after they were hired. Life experiences include an individual's family and cultural socialization (Wiener, 1982). Furthermore, Iverson and Buttigieg (1999) recognized that personal characteristics cannot be changed because they comprise an individual's upbringing and life experiences.

Meyer and Allen (1991) describe the three types of organizational commitment as follows:

Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement with the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organization because they want to do so. Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Employees whose primary link to the organization is based on continuance commitment remain because they need to do

so. Finally, normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they ought to remain with the organization. (p. 67)

Affective commitment. Affective commitment refers to “the employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization” (Turner, 2008, p.16). Turner (2008) stated that “employees with high AC continue employment with an organization because they want to do so” (p. 16). AC has been most closely linked to positive work-related characteristics, which include good attendance and organizational behavior (Meyer et al., 2002). Allen and Meyer (1997) organized a wide range of variables that could affect an employee’s affective commitment into three antecedents: organizational characteristics, personal characteristics, and work experiences. These researchers believed that employees with strong affective commitment are more motivated to make meaningful contributions to an organization than employees that had higher levels of normative and continuance commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1997).

According to Allen and Meyer (1997), many studies have focused on the ways that organization-level policies are designed, more specifically applying justice to the workplace. Justice has been studied in collaboration with specific policy issues including drug testing (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991), pay (Schaubroeck, May, & Brown, 1994), and strategic decision making (Kim & Mauborgne, 1993). All of these studies demonstrated a positive correlation between an employee’s perception of the fairness policy and their affective commitment level (Allen & Meyer, 1997). Allen and Meyer (1997) also concluded that effective communication strategies have been linked to

positive affective commitment levels in employees. For example, Konovsky and Cropanzano (1991) discovered a higher level of affective commitment among employees who believed that the organization informed them adequately when implementing a new drug testing policy.

Allen & Meyer (1997) analyzed personal characteristics and affective commitment development and concluded that the relationship between an employee's affective commitment and demographic variables are not consistent. These researchers also discovered that marital status and educational level are not consistently related to an employee's affective commitment to an organization (Allen & Meyer, 1997). The research does indicate that a person's perception of his or her own competence in the workplace can play a role in developing affective commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1997). The research of Mathieu and Zajac (1990), which analyzed previous empirical studies that examined antecedents, correlation, and consequences of organizational commitment, reported the strongest link was between an employee's perception of competence and affective commitment.

Most of the research regarding affective commitment has been categorized and measured as an employee's work experience (Allen & Meyer, 1997). Mathieu and Zajac (1990) discovered in their research that affective commitment is connected to an employee's "role" in the organization. Affective commitment was found to be at low levels in employees who were not sure what was expected of them or who had a job that created a conflict in their roles (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Allen and Meyer (1997) also believed that affective commitment can be developed through relationships between employees and their supervisors. Employees develop higher levels of affective

commitment when they are being treated with fairness and how fairly the organizational decisions and policies are carried out by the leaders of their organization (Allen & Meyer 1990; Gellatly, 1995).

Continuance commitment. Continuance commitment refers to an individual's "awareness of the costs associated with leaving an organization. Employees primary link to the organization based on continuance commitment remain(s) because they need to do so" (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67). Several researchers discovered that continuance commitment can be divided into two separate mechanisms (Jaros, 1995; McGee & Ford, 1987; Somers, 1993). CC:LoAlt suggests that an individual continues employment with an organization due to his or her financial needs, and those financial needs could be directly related to a lack of alternative employment or lack of alternative job opportunities (Meyer et al., 2002; Turner, 2008). The CC:HiSac refers to an individual's high sacrifice of personal investments, which includes kinship responsibilities and household finances, if they left their place of employment (Turner, 2008). Meyer et al. (2002) discovered that employees who had high levels of continuance commitment were more likely to have role conflicts or withdrawal cognitions in the workplace.

Continuance commitment can develop within an employee as a result of different events or actions that increase the personal costs of leaving an organization (Allen & Meyer, 1997). Meyer and Allen's (1991) three component model breaks down continuance commitment into two antecedents: investments and alternatives. The term "investments" was derived from Becker's (1960) commitment theory. Becker (1960) claimed that commitment to a goal was an accumulation of "side bets" that an individual makes. According to Becker (1960), side bets connect an individual to a course of action

by virtue of the fact that something would be forfeited if the person discontinued the action. For example, an employee who relocates his or her family or learns a new organizational-specific skill, demonstrates an employee investment into a particular company (Allen & Meyer, 1997). If that employee left the organization, he or she would lose time, money, and/or effort that he or she already expended (Allen & Meyer, 1997).

The term “alternatives” refers to other employment options that the individual believes he or she can acquire (Allen & Meyer, 1997). “Employees who believe they have several viable alternatives will have weaker continuance commitment than those who think their alternatives are fewer” (Allen & Meyer, 1997, p. 57). According to Allen and Meyer (1997), an employee’s perceived work ability will be negatively correlated with their continuance commitment.

Continuance commitment has been related to an employee’s perceived ability to transfer his or her skills or education to other organizations (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Withey, 1988; Lee, Ashford, Walsh, & Mowday, 1992). Job opportunities and perceived job opportunities that are available have been the subject of several studies (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer et al., 1991). However, the research of Whitener and Walz (1993) revealed that an employee is less likely to leave an organization and forfeit retirement, status, and security for another opportunity. Their study demonstrated that a high level of continuance commitment is correlated with longevity on the job. Research has discovered that continuance commitment is influenced by an employee’s awareness of investments and alternatives and to what extent each individual employee believes they exist (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Whitener & Walz, 1993).

Normative commitment. Normative commitment is defined as “a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with high level of normative commitment feel they ought to remain with the organization” (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67). This sense of obligation to an organization may develop when advance rewards are given to workers, which may include free college tuition or paying for extra job training (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Marsh and Mannari (1977) conducted research that examined an individual’s “lifetime commitment” to an organization and discovered that people who remain with an organization for prolonged periods of time do so because they feel that it is morally correct. Furthermore, Wiener (1982) suggested that an individual may feel internal normative pressure to stay with an organization even if offered an opportunity to personally benefit because they believe it is morally correct. Jaros (1997) suggested that normative commitment may be the best way to assess if individuals have aligned themselves with the goals of the organization.

Normative commitment combines the organizational process of selection, socialization, and procedure with an individual’s characteristics of loyalty that lead to commitment to an organization (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Wiener (1982) argued that normative commitment is developed through a collection of different socialization pressures that an individual experiences while in his or her youth. “Through complex processes involving both conditioning (rewards and punishments) and modeling (observation and imitation of others), individuals learn what is valued and what is expected of them by the family, the culture, or the organization” (Allen & Meyer, 1997, p. 61).

Antecedents of organizational commitment. According to Turner (2008), there have been many different antecedents proposed by various researchers in the area of organizational commitment. Allen and Meyer (1997) and Meyer et al. (2002) discovered that work experiences, along with personal characteristics of the individual, had the most consistent correlation with affective commitment. According to Allen and Meyer (1997), “employees will develop affective commitment to an organization to the extent that it satisfies their needs, meets their expectations, and allows them to achieve their goals” (p. 50). Dissimilarly, continuance commitment is developed “as a function of various investments that an employee makes and the employment alternatives that he or she believes exists” (p. 50). Last, normative commitment develops from an employee’s loyalty and duty to an organization, which develops from that individual’s organizational experiences (Meyer et al., 2002).

Female Athletics

History. Messner (1988) explored the historical and ideological meaning of organized sports for the politics of gender relations. “Increasing female athleticism represents a genuine quest by women for equality, control of their own bodies, and self-definition, and as such represents a challenge to the ideological basis of male domination” (p. 197). The researcher’s historical study concluded that there is an ongoing political and cultural shift in the ideology of male superiority (Messner, 1988).

Throughout the history of the United States, women have fought for equality. During the 20th century, women saw an increase in their status in society by earning the right to vote in 1920 and working in factories to make military supplies for World War II from 1941-1945 (Ritchie, 1997). Strides were made in ending workplace discrimination

by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission in 1968. However, female students were still not given the same opportunities to participate in athletics at the K-12 and collegiate levels. Messner (1988) stated that by the early 1970s,

women's rapid postwar movement into the labor force and a revived feminist movement, what had been an easily ignorable undercurrent of female athleticism from the 1930s through the 1960s suddenly swelled into a torrent of female participation – and demands for equality. (p. 202).

From 1890 to 1920, rapid industrialization, global expansion, and American exceptionalism were prevalent in the world. Messner (1988) stated that during this time period, industrial capitalism, which provided women with more opportunities to work, both strengthened and undermined male domination of society. "Sports was a male-created homosocial cultural sphere that provided men with psychological separation from women in society and provided 'natural superiority' of men over women" (Messner, 1988, p. 200).

This era was also characterized by feminist movements, the most relevant being women's suffrage. Participation in sports for young women during this time period was seen as conflicting with the role of the women in society, which led to low numbers participating in athletics (Messner, 1988). Many were opposed to female participation in sports, including the First Lady of the United States at the time, Mrs. Herbert Hoover, who opposed women participating in the 1928 Olympics (Messner, 1988). In 1923, 93% of physical educators were opposed to having women participate in intercollegiate athletics (Messner, 1988).

During World War II, women entered the workforce in unprecedented numbers to support the war effort. As men returned home from World War II and reclaimed their jobs in factories, women were forced out of their jobs and encouraged to return to their role in the household. Two events set off a chain reaction for women in America. The first was the launching of the Soviet satellite, Sputnik, in 1957. This triggered an increase of math and science programs in schools across America, identifying the best and brightest students, including girls. Second, Rosa Parks's refusal to give up her seat on a bus in 1955 was one of the most symbolic movements in the Civil Rights Movement (Blumenthal, 2005).

The Civil Rights Act of 1964 had many "patches," including voting rights, equal access to restaurants, movies, and motels (Blumenthal, 2005, p. 14). One section of the Civil Rights Act set the stage for Title IX for females in athletics. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act (1964) "was intended to open all jobs to people of all races, and it created an Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) to enforce the law" (Blumenthal, 2005, p. 14). Many private businesses did not want the government telling them who they could hire for employment. After much debate, segregationist, Representative Howard W. Smith of Virginia, proposed adding the word "sex" to the section in order to forbid job discrimination toward women as well (Blumenthal, 2005). The section passed and the hiring section of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 also included women (Blumenthal, 2005).

Title IX. In 1965, Title IX was first conceived as a way to present more equality to female students. Many did not believe that this legislation would pass, but many did have concerns as to how it would change the landscape of athletics, and mainly how it

would affect intercollegiate football. The strongest opponents of Title IX sought to have the new legislation exempt sports that produced revenue for a college or university, which was rooted in concerns over raising funds to finance new programs for women (Stevenson, 2007).

The 1972 Education Amendments to the Civil Rights Act, Title IX, expanded high school and college opportunities to include female students. This included all educational programs, including athletics. By the early 1970s, “women’s rapid postwar movement into the labor force and a revived feminist movement, what had been an easily ignorable undercurrent of female athleticism from the 1930s through the 1960s suddenly swelled into a torrent of female participation – and demands for equality” (Messner, 1988, p. 202).

The passage of Title IX revolutionized mass sports participation in high school athletics and Stevenson (2007) explored the implications that Title IX has had on participation in high school sports. From its inception in 1972, of the total 3,960,932 participants in high school athletics, 294,015 were female, which represented 7.4% of the total number of participants. In 2013-14 of 7,795,658 high school athletes in total, 3,267,664, or 42%, were female (NFHS, 2015).

The passage of this legislation was not without controversy. Most of the recent political commentary concerning Title IX has been focused on the impact it has had on intercollegiate athletics, rather than at the high school level (Stevenson, 2007). In 1972, the NCAA launched an aggressive lobbying campaign against applying Title IX to all revenue-raising sport teams (Stevenson, 2007).

The final regulations for Title IX were released in 1975, requiring all school to be in compliance by 1978. This included giving female athletes the opportunity to try out for male teams in non-contact sports if there was no female team offered. Title IX also included providing female athletes with proper equipment, facilities, practice space, locker rooms, coaches, and transportation (Stevenson, 2007).

Two Supreme Court cases further strengthened Title IX. In 1992, *Franklin v. Gwinnett County Public Schools* resolved that “schools could be held liable for discrimination toward women by individual members in the institution and allowed for punitive damages to be awarded to plaintiffs in Title IX lawsuits” (Stevenson, 2007, p. 5). This case was followed by the 1994 *Equity in Athletics Disclosure Act*, which “required that any institution of higher education participating in any federal student financial aid program make information about the school’s athletic program public” (Stevenson, 2007, p. 5).

While dramatic changes in female high school athletic participation are undeniable, Stevenson (2007) highlighted three areas of concern that continue to generate debate regarding Title IX and high school athletics. The first concern is the increase in female participation in athletics across high school since the passage of Title IX. Stevenson’s (2007) research showed “that compliance with Title IX largely involved an increase in girls’ access to sport with little change in the opportunities available to boys, and girls’ participation in sports across the country rose to roughly half that of male participation” (p. 28). The researcher noted that states with greater urban areas and minority populations have greater proportions of high school female athletes. Stevenson

(2007) discovered that contrary to this observation, more affluent populations had smaller gaps between male and female high school sports participants.

Second, Stevenson (2007) noted that some policymakers are concerned that there is now more limited opportunity in high school athletics for boys. What the researcher discovered was that there were more total male and female participants; however, the landscape of what sports males participated in was slightly altered. Stevenson (2007) noted that over the 35 years since Title IX was passed into law, both the political debate and sports landscape in America has changed. Stevenson (2007) suggested that some schools may have focused on the fiscal challenges that arose from having to add many teams to their athletic department. Some schools may have cut more expensive male sport teams to make room for more female teams. The data indicates that little has changed regarding male participation of the top three sports, football, basketball, and track from 1971-2004 (Stevenson, 2007). There has been the largest surge in boys' soccer, which had 78,510 participants in 1971 and 354,587 in 2004. Basketball lost participants with 645,670 in 1971 and 545,497 in 2004. Track and field also lost male participants with 642,639 in 1971 compared to 516,703 in 2004 (Stevenson, 2007). The researcher discovered that gender-neutral sports, such as swimming, have thrived since Title IX has passed.

Finally, Stevenson (2007) discussed the relevance of high school athletics within the scope of an educational policy. The research indicates that female athletes have had much more opportunity to participate in high school athletics. After the passage of Title IX, more than 50% of females who were presented with playing a high school sport, took advantage of the opportunity (Stevenson, 2007).

Turning points in female athletics. In 1973, female tennis star, Billie Jean King, played in a tennis match against Bobby Riggs in what was dubbed “The Battle of the Sexes.” Bobby Riggs was a professional tennis player who was critical of female athletes and stated that “the women’s tennis game was boring and second-rate” (Blumenthal, 2005, p. 61). Riggs believed that any man could defeat any women in tennis, and to prove his point, he challenged Billie Jean King, who at first turned down the invitation. After Riggs soundly defeated another women’s tennis pro, King saw an opportunity to prove him wrong and agreed to play him in a best of five set match. Billie Jean King defeated Bobby Riggs in straight sets, and this was recognized as a victory for women athletes, who now viewed themselves through a different lens—“powerful, emboldened, and capable” (Blumenthal, 2005, p. 63).

The female athletes of the 1990s were the first to grow up with access to sports leagues, programs, and training that was not available to female athletes in previous years. During the 1996 Olympics in Atlanta, the United States female athletes were nicknamed “Title IX babies,” because many of the team sport players went to college on athletic scholarships, or at the very least, played on collegiate teams (Blumenthal, 2005). At the end of the Atlanta Summer Olympics in 1996, the United States women dominated the games, winning gold medals in swimming, track and field, gymnastics, soccer, synchronized swimming, basketball, and softball (Blumenthal, 2005).

The popularity of women’s athletics was showcased by the 1999 Women’s World Cup, which was hosted by cities across America. Stadiums across America were filled with thousands of soccer fans, packed with many soccer-playing young girls who watched the U.S. defeat notorious soccer powerhouses England, Denmark, and Italy on

their way to the finals (Blumenthal, 2005). The United States played China in the finals in front of over 90,000 patriotic fans, which was the largest crowd, ever, at a women's sporting event, and another 40 million were viewing on television (Blumenthal, 2005). The game was tied 0-0 and was won by the United States on penalty kicks. Brandi Chastain kicked the winning penalty kick and stripped off her shirt in an iconic image that graced the cover of Sports Illustrated. Sports Illustrated went on to name the team "Sports women of the year" because "they raised women's sports to new heights, again elevating the expectations of what women can do" (Blumenthal, 2005, p. 112). Their victory was deemed "the most significant day in the history of women's sports, bearing the fruit of the passage of Title IX in 1972 and surpassing by a long shot that burn-your-bra night in '73 when Billie Jean King beat Bobby Riggs" (Blumenthal, 2005, p. 113-114).

In the 21st century, women have continued to make gains in athletics. While there are equal college scholarships and successful professional teams, inequity still exists. At one point, almost all women's teams had female coaches; however, "as female sports grew in importance and popularity, coaching became more attractive to men" (Blumenthal, 2005, p. 116). In contrast, there is a low number of women coaching male teams.

Effects of female athletic participation on education. There has been much debate suggesting that high school students who participate in athletics tend to be more driven, aggressive, and achievement oriented (Stevenson, 2006). Stevenson (2006) stated that since Title IX, sports participation has had a large scale positive effect on female educational attainment. Stevenson (2006) made this conclusion by conducting a study

that analyzed if there was a positive correlation between education levels and sports participation in women between the ages of 25-34. The researcher also discovered that increased opportunities to play sports were positively correlated with an increase in employment (Stevenson, 2006).

Sports participation also may have an influence on the careers that women are choosing to go into. Using data for individuals 25-34 years old from the 5% Public Use Micro Sample (PUMS) of 1980-2000, Stevenson (2006) examined the occupational selection in “high education” versus “low education” employment. “High education” was defined by Stevenson as a worker with 12.5 years of education and a “low education” worker had less than 12.5 years of schooling. Stevenson’s (2006) investigation revealed that “higher rates of athletic participation led to a rise in employment of women in high-education male and mixed-gender occupations” (Stevenson, 2006, p. 17). Stevenson (2006) concluded that “athletic participation has important casual effects on women’s educational and labor market outcomes” (p. 20).

Female high school athletics. A study conducted by Harrison and Narayan (2003), which included 50,168 ninth-grade students in Minnesota completing a voluntary survey, discovered that participation in sports, alone, or in conjunction with other extracurricular activities, had a positive effect on student physical and mental health. A total of 24,226 female ninth-grade students took the survey with 1,757 participating in sports only and 11,773 participating in sports and other activities. The research revealed that of the 1,757 female ninth graders that participate in sports alone, 54.1% studied more than 3 hours a week, and 72.9% met moderate or vigorous exercise guidelines (Harrison & Narayan, 2003). Of the female ninth graders who participated in sports and other

activities, which totaled 11,773, 73% studied more than 3 hours a week, and 81.2% met moderate or vigorous exercise guidelines (Harrison & Narayan, 2003). The statistical analysis examined gender differences in behavior by level of participation and differences in psychological and environmental factors by level of participation (Harrison & Narayan, 2003). Harrison & Narayan (2003) concluded that participation in sports, alone, or with other activities, has a positive correlation with study habits and exercise.

According to the NFHS (2014), California (324,803), Texas (316,251), and New York (174,028) represented the top three states with female high school athlete participation in 2013-14. California ranked first with 1,239 female soccer teams and 43,819 total female soccer players for the 2013-14 school year. New York was second with 700 female soccer teams and third with 22,727 female participants, and Texas was third with 582 teams and 28,909 female participants (NFHS, 2015).

The Michigan Study of Adolescent Life Transitions (MSALT) was a longitudinal study that began with a cohort of sixth graders from 10 districts in the suburban areas of Detroit in 1983 (Eccles, Barber, Stone, & Hunt, 2003). The study investigated the participation of students in extracurricular activities and the positive and negative effects participation can have on students (Eccles et al., 2003). Eccles et al. (2003) collected data from 1,259 10th grade students by providing them with a checklist of 16 sports and 30 school and community activities. The research discovered that girls participated in more and a wider variety of total activities than boys, except for sports (Eccles et al., 2003).

Women coaching decline since Title IX. A suggested reason for the decline in females entering the coaching profession is that they have fewer female coach role

models who would be influential in helping them choose that career path (Acosta & Carpenter, 1985). This has resulted in fewer young female athletes who are likely to perceive coaching as a career choice and pursue this as a profession (Weiss & Stevens, 1993). According to Weiss and Stevens (1993), this has affected the number of female coaches pursuing coaching positions, especially head coaching positions (Weiss & Stevens, 1993). Male domination of leadership positions in sport has “created a social context in which the experience of female coaches is referenced from a predominantly male perspective” (Kilty, 2006, p. 232).

Acosta and Carpenter (2006) retrieved data that demonstrated the recent declining trends of women’s leadership in sport at the NCAA level:

1. Female coaches hold 56.7% of the paid assistant-coaching jobs for women’s athletic programs, which is an increase from 55.5% in 2002.
2. Female coaches hold 51.3% of unpaid assistant-coaching positions for women’s teams, which is an increase from 46.4% in 2002.
3. Female coaches who coach men’s athletic programs remains under 2%, which has been consistent for the past three decades.
4. No women are present at all in the administrative structure of 14.5% of athletic programs, a decrease from 18.8% in 2002.
5. The NCAA Division I level has the smallest percentage of women athletic directors at 8.7%, Division II totals 16.9%, and Division III totals 27.5%.

In the recent decades, the decreasing number of women coaching has received much attention in literature (Norman, 2010). Acosta and Carpenter (2000) reported that between 1998 and 2000, there were 534 new jobs posted for coaching intercollegiate

athletics, and men were hired to fill 427, or 80%, of those positions. Recent data revealed that White men occupy 86.2%, 88%, and 91.9%, respectively, of head coaching positions at the Division I, II, and III collegiate levels (Lapchick et al., 2013). Furthermore, 56.1% of women sports' head coaching positions at the Division I, II, and III collegiate levels are also occupied by White men (Lapchick et al., 2013). In contrast, 3% of men's teams at the Division I level were coached by White women (Lapchick et al., 2013).

Additionally, women comprised 34.2% of head coaching positions at the Division II and 42.9% at the Division III collegiate level (Lapchick et al., 2013). More specifically, 38.6% of women in collegiate sports at the Division I level are coached by head coaches who are White women (Lapchick et al., 2013). The low numbers of women in head coaching positions are explained by their lack of intention, preference, low self-efficacy, low motivation to coach, and higher intent to leave the profession than men coaches (Chelladurai et al., 1999; Cunningham et al., 2003; Sagas & Ashley, 2001).

The research of Lowry and Lovett (1997) investigated some of the reasons women leave the coaching profession. These researchers specifically examined social conditions that might lead to a women coach stepping away from the profession. After distributing surveys to female coaches, they discovered that woman left the coaching profession because of the social conditions they experienced in the profession, which included covert discrimination, time constraints, and alternative employment opportunities to coaching (Lowry & Lovett, 1997).

Through extensive interviews with female coaches in the United Kingdom, Norman (2010) was able to reveal the feelings of elite women coaches' experiences. Norman (2010) discovered that elite women coaches are frustrated by the significant lack

of women coaching men's sports, although men are well represented in coaching women's sports. Statistics indicate that no women in the UK hold senior coaching roles in any men's national team sports; however, 16 men hold those positions in women's national team sports programs (Norman, 2010). The women interviewed referred to the "old boys' networks" for high performance coaching roles (Norman, 2010). This is backed up by the research of Knoppers and Anthonissen (2001) who discovered Dutch coaches achieved their coaching positions by the social networks between males and not based on coaching qualifications. Norman (2010) also highlighted the lack of coaching and developmental opportunities for female coaches as an obstacle to advancing in the field of coaching.

An area that was examined to analyze differences between male and female coaching and teaching was conducted by Chelladurai et al. (1999). These researchers analyzed the difference in perceptions between the male and females in the areas of job status, job significance, job variety and control, job identity, ease of discipline, and ease of motivation (Chelladurai et al., 1999). The results indicated that men preferred to coach athletic teams more than women, whereas women preferred teaching over coaching. The gender differences did not yield differences in any other area of the study (Chelladurai et al., 1999).

Cunningham et al. (2003) conducted a study to analyze the decreasing number of female coaches at the collegiate level. These researchers investigated this trend by examining the relationship between coaching self-efficacy, each coach's desire to become a head coach, and turnover intentions among 173 assistant coaches of women college sport teams (Cunningham et al., 2003). The results indicated that male assistant

coaches had a greater desire to ascend to a head coaching position and had a higher level of coaching self-efficacy, while female coaches had higher occupational turnover intentions (Cunningham et al. 2003). Cunningham et al. (2003) also discovered that while both men and women had high levels of intent to obtain a head coaching position, it was only related to men assistant coaches who were leaving their positions (Cunningham et al. 2003).

Organizational and occupational commitment of female intercollegiate coaches. The turnover of coaches in an athletic department is costly, and good coaches are hard to find, which is why every effort should be made to retain them (Turner & Chelladurai, 2005). Coaches are an important asset and vital to the success for any athletic department, and strategic decisions are made by athletic directors to recruit and retain coaches.

Because Turner & Chelladurai (2005) were concerned with the commitment level of coaches at the intercollegiate level and their commitment level to the occupation and organization, they extended the study of Chelladurai and Ogasawara (2003) who found that American coaches were more committed to their occupation than the organization who employed them, and the opposite was true for Japanese coaches, who were more committed to their organizations. Turner and Chelladurai (2005) researched 240 men and 88 women coaches at the Division I and III levels, using the Meyer and Allen (1991) organizational commitment, Meyer et al. (1993) occupational commitment perspectives, and relating them to coaches' commitment to their organization and occupation. In addition, they measured coaches' intentions to leave their organization and the profession.

Turner and Chelladurai (2005) conducted a study that analyzed the commitment and performance levels of Division I and III head athletic coaches. They concluded that one's commitment level determined 23.7% of a coach's intention to leave his or her position (Turner & Chelladurai, 2005). Furthermore, Turner and Chelladurai (2005) concluded that there was no variance in the commitment level for head athletic coaches at the Division I and III collegiate levels.

One of the subgroup categories in their study analyzed gender differences in occupational and organizational commitment (Turner & Chelladurai, 2005). The researchers discovered evidence that women coaches leave the field of coaching earlier than male coaches due to lack of opportunity, discrimination, and time demands (Knoppers et al., 1991; Stangl & Kane, 1991; Turner & Chelladurai, 2005; Weiss & Stevens, 1993). Turner and Chelladurai (2005) believed that life commitments with others might have created personal environments that required women to be less committed than men coaches.

If women continue to experience these constraints more than do men, and if they anticipate leaving coaching earlier than men, we expected that it would be reflected in women expressing a lower commitment to the organization and/or the coaching occupation (Turner & Chelladurai, 2005, p. 198).

Turner (2008) conducted a study that analyzed the commitment level for male and female coaches at the Division I and III collegiate levels. Turner found that knowing a male or female coach's demographic information does not give an indication of his or her commitment level to coaching. Turner (2008) did discover, however, that job characteristics were significantly correlated to the commitment levels of male and female

athletic coaches. Specific to female coaches, Turner (2008) found that personal sacrifices were more of a variable for their commitment than for their male counterparts. This researcher also uncovered that the longer a female coach was with an organization, the harder it was to leave (Turner, 2008). The only job characteristic antecedent that was unique to the commitment level of female coaches was public appreciation (Turner, 2008). While job security and sports prestige were unique to male coaches' commitment levels, this study revealed that female coaches never felt as "part of the family" in an athletic department (Turner, 2008).

Women coaches psychological needs. Allen and Shaw (2009) conducted informative interviews that examined eight high-performing women coaches' perceptions of the social context within their athletic organization with special attention focused on supporting their psychological needs. The researchers discovered that relationship building within the organization between coaches in other sports was important to female coaches (Allen & Shaw, 2009). Lack of mentors, more specifically female mentors, and the ability to network with other female coaches, was identified as a challenge for women looking to develop into an elite coach (Allen & Shaw, 2009).

Work-family responsibilities. Another area that may contribute to the decreasing number of female coaches is the relationship between work and family. Dixon and Bruening (2007) observed that numerous qualified female coaches exit the workforce because of the challenges of balancing work and family. Their study used focus groups from 41 NCAA Division I female coaches that had children to examine their personal circumstances that might have impacted their work as a coach (Dixon and Bruening, 2007).

The results of this qualitative study were organized into three different themes that organized their answers into individual, structural, and sociocultural levels.

Individually, it was discovered that coaching mothers valued their family time, but they also placed a high value of success on their coaching duties (Dixon & Bruening, 2007). These women valued both their family and work; however, it was discovered that they felt the sacrifices with their family more than their coaching obligations (Dixon & Bruening, 2007).

Dixon and Bruening (2007) then examined the work-family relationship for NCAA Division I female coaches from an organizational and structural vantage point. The researchers specifically examined work hours/travel and coaching expectations versus “facetime” at home (Dixon & Bruening, 2007). The number of hours that mothers spent working, whether it was at the home, traveling, or the office, were a great area of strain for them as they tried to balance their work and family (Dixon & Bruening, 2007). Even in athletic programs that granted flexibility of hours to their female coaches, most of the women in the study were overwhelmed with the amount of time they had to spend traveling and at the office, rather than with their families (Dixon & Bruening, 2007).

The sociocultural factors faced by female coaches at the NCAA Division I level include working in a male-dominated workplace, balancing home responsibilities specific to women, and the social expectations of mothers (Dixon & Bruening, 2007). While none of the women blamed their husbands or partners for not doing their part for their families, they explained that their role in the family as unique to mothers (Dixon & Bruening, 2007). The women in the study believe that to be a good mother to their children, they must be present at activities and make their children a priority over their

work as a coach (Dixon & Bruening, 2007). Some women reported feeling guilty that they were prioritizing their job as a coach over their own family. The division of labor within the home was cited by 21 women as a strain on the work-family conflict. While each household organized their responsibilities differently, all participants in the study were actively involved in caring for their homes and families (Dixon & Bruening, 2007).

Individually, the coaching mother had high demands and expectations on herself as a coach and as a mother (Dixon & Bruening, 2007). While each participant valued her family time, work was on their minds when spending time with their families, and it was reported that it increased their stress levels. The coaching profession at the NCAA Division I level requires job seekers to be flexible to change locations. Arranging child care was cited as a strain for mothers who coach because family members might not have been in close proximity (Dixon & Bruening, 2007).

Impact of homologous reproduction on female coaches. Knoppers (1987) suggested that a model of occupational structures, called *homogenous reproduction*, developed by Kanter (1977), may be applicable to the coaching setting. Homologous reproduction “is the process whereby dominants reproduce themselves based on social and/or physical characteristics” (Stangl & Kane, 1991, p. 47). Knoppers (1987) suggested that women in the coaching profession face different opportunities, resources, and working conditions than do their males counterparts because of homologous reproduction in athletic departments. According to Knoppers (1987), homologous reproduction may be a contributing factor to the decline in women entering the coaching profession.

Stangl and Kane (1991) further looked at homologous reproduction as a structural variable to explain the underrepresentation of women coaches. For their study, they examined the sex of the athletic director and head coach of 937 public high schools during three separate time periods: 1974-75, 1981-82, and 1988-89 (Stangl & Kane, 1991). The results of their study was twofold: (a) significantly more women were hired under female athletic directors for all three time periods, and (b) the number of female coaches decreased from 1974-75 in comparison to 1981-82 and 1988-89 (Stangl & Kane, 1991). Furthermore, while the total and average number of sports offered to female high school athletes increased through the Title IX timeframe, Stangl & Kane (1991) discovered a decrease in the number of female coaches. In 1974-75, women coached 92.67% of all female sports offered. In 1981-82, that percentage decreased to 42.27% and continued to fall to 33.21% in 1988-89 (Stangl & Kane, 1991).

Stangl and Kane (1991) also took into account the sex of the athletic director as a determining factor to providing opportunities to women to coach. Their data discovered that there were very few women in leadership positions in the field of athletics at the high school level. The percentage of women athletic directors was consistently under 9%, through the Title IX timeframes they examined: 7.95% in 1974-75, 5.77% in 1981-82, and 8.36% in 1988-89 (Stangl & Kane, 1991). The researchers found that in every time period of Title IX in which they collected data, female head coaches were hired more frequently under female athletic directors. Stangl and Kane (1991) concluded that:

The finding that sex of athletic director was related to sex of the head coach should not be underemphasized, particularly at the interscholastic level. It can be

argued that, at this level, the most influential person for determining who gets hired as head coach is the athletic director. (p. 55)

Whisenant (2008) further investigated the impact of the sex of a high school athletic director and the hiring practices of the same sex. Whisenant (2008) wanted to know if homologous reproduction is the reason for the declining number of female coaches at the high school level in the United States. This researcher analyzed the administrative structures for 480 high school athletic departments, which included the gender of each school's principal, athletic director, and coaches. Whisenant (2008) discovered that men held higher percentages of principal (76%) and athletic director jobs (85%). Furthermore, it was discovered that homologous reproduction was only evident at the coaching level in athletics (Whisenant, 2008).

Women coaching and social exchange theory. Weiss and Stevens (1993) researched the declining number of female coaches at the high school and college from a psychological vantage point by, more specifically, using the social exchange theory. They explained social exchange theory as behavior that “is motivated by the desire to maximize positive experiences and minimize negative experiences through social interactions” (Weiss & Stevens, 1993, p. 246). Self-reported questionnaires were used to gather data from employed ($N = 99$) and formerly employed ($N = 54$) female coaches that measured the assessed benefits, costs, and satisfaction levels with their overall coaching experiences (Weiss & Stevens, 1993). According to the social exchange theory, “individuals seek to maximize positive and minimize negative experiences, an assessment of the costs and benefits for activities occur, ultimately resulting in a

favorable or unfavorable outcome regarding continuance of or attrition from the current activity” (Weiss & Stevens, 1993, p. 246).

Weiss and Stevens’s (1993) study uncovered benefit constructs for employed and formerly employed female coaches, which included seeing athletes achieve a goal, enjoyment of working with athletes, fun, enjoyment of seeing an athlete learn a new skill, and the challenge of encouraging individuals to work as a team (Weiss & Stevens, 1993). Data collected uncovered the perceived “costs” associated with coaching for women, which included less time for family, workload related to teaching/coaching responsibilities, and sacrifice of personal time (Weiss & Stevens, 1993).

Chapter Summary

This literature review analyzed the history of females in athletics and the components of organizational commitment. It provided details regarding the development, implementation, and current status of Title IX equality for female athletes and coaches. The research of Acosta and Carpenter (2006) demonstrated that female coaches are still underrepresented at the college ranks in comparison to men. Furthermore, this chapter provided examples of studies in the field of organizational commitment in relation to coaching. In addition, this chapter demonstrated gaps in data that exist concerning the number of female coaches who are employed by high school athletic departments at the local and state level.

Although there are many different definitions for commitment, the work of Meyer and Allen (1990) created a three component commitment scale that can measure an individual’s affective, normative, and continuance commitment levels to an organization. Organizational commitment has been studied at the college and international coaching

level (Chelladurai & Ogasawara, 2003; Turner, 2008; Turner & Chelladurai, 2005). This chapter also investigated the difference in the psychological needs, family responsibilities, and impact of homologous reproduction of female coaches (Allen & Shaw, 2009; Dixon & Bruening, 2007; Stangl & Kane, 1991;). Chapter 3 describes how prior research and literature informed this present study, and it outlines the research design methodology.

Chapter 3: Research Design Methodology

Introduction

An area that has been neglected in sports management and leadership is the examination of differences in organizational commitment between male and female high school sports coaches (Turner, 2008). Although many studies in sports management have examined to what extent individuals are committed, to whom they are committed, and the consequences of their commitment, more research about gender differences in commitment at the high school level need to be done (Turner, 2008). Researchers have investigated the effect of commitment level on a coach's intentions to stay with a program or leave the organization to explore other opportunities (Cunningham et al., 2001; Turner & Chelladurai, 2005). However, while Turner (2008) focused on commitment development for males and females at the collegiate level, this research study is designed to measure differences in organizational commitment between male and female coaches at the high school level.

The purpose of this study is to examine the gender differences for various antecedents proposed in the organizational literature and their relationship to the commitment of male and female high school coaches. Specifically, this study focused on the relative importance of job and personal characteristics of male and female high school coaches' level of job commitment. Using the work of Turner (2008) as a model for the research, this researcher used high school male and female coaches rather than collegiate

Division I and Division III coaches. For this study, personal characteristics included: age, kinship responsibilities, occupational tenure, and organizational tenure.

Chapter 3 includes a review of the research method used, design appropriateness, and a discussion of the population sample selected. The purpose of this study is to investigate the relative importance of personal characteristics of male and female high school athletic coaches' levels of commitment.

Research Context

This study was conducted within the school districts of the Orange County Interscholastic Athletic Association (OCIAA), located in Orange County, NY. Orange County is located approximately 60 miles north of New York City. The OCIAA is located within Section IX of New York State, which is one of the 11 geographical sections in the New York State Public High School Athletic Association (NYSPHSAA). For the purposes of this study, this researcher examined the commitment levels of male and female varsity and JV coaches in the OCIAA. The Revised Three-Component Model Commitment Scale, developed by Meyer et al. (1993), and personal characteristic questions were given to male and female high school coaches in the OCIAA (Appendix B). Although the OCIAA schools are in predominantly suburban middle-class Caucasian communities, there are a few schools that serve a more urban and culturally diverse student population.

The focus of this study was on the commitment level of the male and female coaches who were employed as coaches at the JV and/or varsity level during the 2015-16 school year at an OCIAA school. This study included JV and varsity head and assistant coaches for both male and female sports teams. The Meyer et al. (1993) Revised Three-

Component Commitment Scale (Appendix B) was used to measure each coach's level of organizational commitment. Using internal reliability, "median reliabilities for the AC, NC, and CC scales are .85, .79, and .73, respectively" (Turner, 2008, p. 19). "Because the initial reliability estimate for CC:HiSac was only .62, the item with the lowest item-to-total correlation ("If I had not already put so much of myself into my university, I might be working elsewhere") was removed, which resulted in a reliability of .76" (Turner, 2008, p. 19). Other reliability estimates for the organizational commitment components were .68 for AC, .70 for NC, and .73 for CC:LoAlt, which are comparable to the Meyer et al. (2002) meta-analysis (Turner, 2008). Using an analysis of variance (ANOVA), this researcher analyzed differences between male and female high school coaches' level of job commitment. This statistical test allowed the researcher to determine whether significant differences were observed in AC, NC, CC:HiSac, and CC:LoAlt between male and female coaches.

Research Participants

The research participants for this study were male and female coaches who were employed and coaching boys soccer, girls soccer, boys basketball, girls basketball, boys track, and/or girls track at the JV or varsity levels during the 2015-16 school year at an Orange County Interscholastic Athletic Association (OCIAA) school. These three sports represent the most common and publicly familiar sports offered to male and female high school athletes within the OCIAA. Since there was a variety in the size of schools in the OCIAA, the number of coaches on staff varies based on the enrollment of each school. Coaches within the OCIAA qualified for this study if they were a JV or varsity head or assistant coach of boys soccer, girls soccer, boys basketball, girls basketball, boys track,

and/or girls track. Using this criteria, there were 331 coaches eligible to be participants in the study (Appendix C). The study was based on the responses of a minimum of 30% of the eligible participants. Furthermore, the coaches were selected because they all had similar responsibilities, which included recruiting, supervision, communication with parents and athletics, as well as practice and game planning, regardless of the sport. There were a total of 331 coaches in the OCIAA that were eligible for this study with 250 males and 81 females.

To introduce the study to OCIAA athletic directors, the researcher was placed on the agenda of the OCIAA Athletic Director Workshop to speak to all OCIAA athletic directors about this study, explain the research, and describe their role in the distribution of materials to their coaches. Samples of the Revised Three-Component Commitment Survey (Meyer et al., 1993) and personal information questions were available and presented to all athletic directors at the OCIAA Athletic Directors Workshop. During the winter of the 2015-16 school year, the researcher sent an email and letter of introduction to possible participants (Appendix D) to the 27 OCIAA athletic directors with written directions and an introduction letter that explained the study. Finally, the researcher sent a follow-up email and a link to the coaching survey (Appendix E) with a consent form, description of the study, and a letter of instruction to the athletic directors for distribution purposes.

All of the participants in the study were identified by each OCIAA school's athletic director, as a coach of boys soccer, girls soccer, boys basketball, girls basketball, boys track, and/or girls track at the JV or varsity level. The additional demographic questions added to the survey included: age, kinship responsibilities, organizational

tenure, and occupational tenure. The researcher worked closely with all OCIAA athletic directors to ensure that all of the coaches that were eligible for the study had access and were encouraged to participate. All participating OCIAA coaches had access to the online survey from February 1 to March 15, 2016, giving the athletic directors between 4 to 6 weeks to distribute and collect all of the data from the survey.

This study required IRB approval from St. John Fisher College (Appendix F), approval from the OCIAA (Appendix G), and informed consent from the participants, which included a form letter that was attached to the study and described and established that the study was voluntary in nature. All contact information was available through the OCIAA League Office and website at www.sectionIXathletics.org. At the time of the study, the researcher was serving at the Goshen Central School District as the Director of Physical Education, Health, and Athletics, as well as the Goshen High School Assistant Principal. Due to the accessibility of other OCIAA athletic directors and their ability to access their own coaching staff members, it was decided to conduct this study in Orange County, NY, within the OCIAA.

Instruments Used in Data Collection

This study used the Revised Three-Component Commitment Scale developed by Meyer et al. (1993). This version of the scale “was prepared for those who intend to use the commitment scales for academic research purposes” (Meyer & Allen, 2004, p. 2). This research study included the Revised Three-Component Commitment Scale that included three “well-validated scales, the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS), Normative Commitment Scale (NCS), and the Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS)” (Meyer & Allen, 2004, p. 2). These scales can be used to identify a commitment profile

of individuals in an organization (Meyer & Allen, 2004). For the best results, it is recommended that the commitment scales are completed anonymously (Meyer & Allen, 2004). The reason for this is so people feel safe enough to respond without fear of being identified (Meyer & Allen, 2004). This study was modeled as a replication study of Turner's 2008 study, which examined the differences in male and female intercollegiate athletic coaches' levels of commitment. Attached to the Revised Three-Component Commitment Scale were four personal characteristics questions, which included: age, kinship responsibilities, organizational tenure, and occupational tenure, in order to collect demographic information. Both the Revised Three-Component Commitment Scale and personal characteristic questions will be labeled "Coaching Survey" to this study's participants. This researcher used the same tool as Turner (2008), but focused on examining the commitment levels of male and female coaches at the high school level of athletics.

A quantitative approach using Survey Monkey was used by the researcher, which automatically cataloged responses into a file that was analyzed with the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). SPSS is a statistical package produced by IBM that performs a wide range of statistical procedures in order to analyze data (Cronk, 2014). Survey responses were recorded as well as pertinent demographic information about the participants and their work as athletic coaches. The survey respondents' identity remained anonymous. No participant names were used in this study, and all data gathered is secured in a database of which only the researcher has access. The identity of each participant was protected by using a number coding system. Emails were sent by the researcher to the athletic directors of all of the schools that were part of the OCIAA.

The email informed them of this study and requested their voluntary participation. Each participating coach completed the Meyer et al. (1993) Revised Three-Component Commitment Scale and personal characteristics questions. For validity and reliability, the scale used in this study was tested with coaches who were not participating in this study.

The Revised Three-Component Commitment Scale was previously used by Turner (2008) to analyze the commitment level of male and female coaches in relation to personal and job characteristic antecedents at the collegiate level (Turner, 2008). The authors of the scale contend that it measures three different types of commitment (affective, normative, and continuance), and this study examined the differences in these different types of commitment by gender. Six statements comprised the measure of each scale (ACS, NCS, and CCS) (Meyer & Allen, 2004), which was rated by the participants on a 7-point Likert-type scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Negative items were reverse scored (1 = strongly agree to 7 = strongly disagree). Cronbach's alpha, which is a method used to examine how closely a set group of items are as a group, was used to determine the internal consistency reliability of the three resulting scales (Cronk, 2014). "Cronbach's alpha comprises a number of items that make up a scale designed to measure a single construct (e.g., intelligence), and it determines the degree to which all the items are measuring the same construct" (Cronk, 2014, p. 118).

Data Collection and Analysis Procedures

Descriptive statistics were used to describe the sample as a whole, as well as comparisons between genders. The statistics used for continuous variables were means and standard deviations, while the summary statistics for continuous variables included

percentages. Inferential statistics used to test the hypotheses included an ANOVA that examined group differences between the genders on commitment levels in high school athletic coaches.

This researcher first collected data from the Revised Three-Component Commitment Scale (Meyer et al., 1993), which was self-reporting, and was forwarded to the male and female high school coaches in the OCIAA by their athletic directors. After the data was collected from the male and female coaches, it was sorted by gender and into four different categories AC, NC, CC:LoAlt, and CC:HiSac. From the data collected, this researcher calculated the mean, standard deviation, and *t*-score for AC, NC, CC:LoAlt, and CC:HiSac for male and female coaches at the high school level. Standard deviation gave the researcher the average distance that each sample item was from the mean. Calculating the *t*-score identified the margin of error. This researcher calculated a 95% confidence interval of the populations mean. Data analysis investigated if there was a difference between male and female high school coaches in AC, NC, CC:LoAlt, and CC:HiSac.

The Meyer et al. (1993) Revised Organizational Scale is a self-reporting survey that each coach took the survey online. According to Meyer and Allen (2004),

For purposes of survey administration, we recommend that the items from the three scales be mixed. For scoring purposes, employee's responses to all of the items within a scale are averaged to yield an overall score for each of the three components of commitment Although it is possible to sum the item scores rather than averaging, this can create some problems if employees fail to respond

to some items. The existence of missing data will have a much greater impact on total scores than on average scores. (Meyer & Allen, 2004, p. 3)

Some scale items were identified by an “R” after the statement and “are included to encourage respondents to think about each statement carefully rather than mindlessly adapting a pattern of agreeing or disagreeing with the statements” (Meyer & Allen, 2004, p. 3). Also, it is typically recommended that,

Items from the three commitment scales be integrated for purposes of presentation in a paper or web-based survey. For scoring purposes, however, it is important that (a) scores on reverse-keyed statements be coded (i.e., 1 = 7, 2 = 6, ... 7 = 1) before scoring, and (b) averages are computed based only on items relevant to the specific scale If scored correctly, you should obtain three scores, one each for the ACS, NCS, and CCS, for each respondent. These scores should (be) range(d) in value from 1 to 7 with higher scores indicating stronger commitment. (Meyer & Allen, 2004, p. 4).

The data collected was sorted by gender, and the analysis investigated if there was a difference between male and female high school coaches in AC, NC, CC:LoAlt, and CC:HiSac. This researcher observed, analyzed, and reported the findings of this study that investigated if there was a difference in commitment levels between male and female coaches at the high school level.

This study involved the use of an ANOVA to compare commitment levels between male and female coaches (Meyer & Allen, 2004). ANOVA “is a procedure that determines the proportion of variability attributed to each of several components” (Cronk, 2014, p. 69). Cronk, (2014) stated that:

The one-way ANOVA compares the means of two or more groups of participants that vary on a single independent variable (thus, the one-way designation). When we have three groups, we could use a *t* test to determine differences between groups, but we would have to conduct three *t* tests (Group 1 compared to Group 2, Group 1 compared to Group 3, and Group 2 compared to Group 3). When we conduct multiple *t* tests, we inflate the Type I error rate and increase our chance of drawing an inappropriate conclusion. ANOVA compensates for these multiple comparisons and gives us a single answer that tells us if any of the groups is different from any of the other groups. (p. 69)

The one-way ANOVA required a single dependent and independent variable (Cronk, 2014). The groups were independent of each other. Given that the participants in this study were analyzed within their levels of AC, NC, CC:LoAlt, and CC:HiSac, the researcher had to separately conduct a repeat-measures ANOVA for each gender and commitment subcategory (Cronk, 2014). Descriptive characteristics were included for each ANOVA source table. The ANOVA source table was where the various components of the variance were listed, along with their relative sizes (Cronk, 2014). Additionally, the results of this study were compared with the past study of Turner (2008), with comparisons made when possible.

Summary

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate if there was a commitment difference between male and female coaches at the high school level. This is important because there is a falling number of female coaches in athletics. Studies have shown that organizational commitment is directly related to an employee's attendance, behavior, and

job performance (Meyer et al., 2002; Turner, 2008). Turner (2008) suggested that future research should examine gender differences in commitment across different occupations and organizations. High school JV and varsity coaches were chosen by this researcher based on the research of Turner (2008), who conducted this commitment study with Division I and Division III college coaches.

As an athletic administrator in the OCIAA, this researcher had access to other athletic directors and their coaches at the JV and varsity level. This study is important because school districts and high schools make recruitment and selection decisions about coaches. It is important for each school district and athletic department to recruit and hire coaches who are committed to their school to provide positive, educational, and competitive athletic teams for their student athletes.

Chapter 4: Results

The relationship between the gender of high school athletic coaches in the sports of JV and varsity, boys' and girls' soccer, basketball, and spring track and field was investigated in this study. Descriptive statistics were used to describe the total sample as well as each gender with respect to demographics and the commitment scales studied. Descriptive statistics used for continuous variables included means and standard deviations, while summary statistics for categorical variables included percentages. Inferential statistics were used to test the hypotheses concerning differences in commitment between genders, and this included an ANOVA, the statistical techniques used to examine group differences between the genders on commitment levels in high school athletic coaches.

The research survey instrument link, created using SurveyMonkey, was emailed to 27 OCIAA Athletic Directors, who forwarded it to the 331 OCIAA coaches who were eligible for the study between the dates of February 25 and March 25, 2016. The survey included the Revised Three-Component Commitment Scale and demographic questions including age, kinship responsibilities, number of years with the current organization, and years in coaching (Meyer et al., 1993). There were 116 total responses, which totaled 35% of the original 331 OCIAA coaches. Women coaches ($N = 36$) yielded 31% of the total reported sample. Male coaches ($N = 79$) consisted of 68.1% of the sample, and one survey (.9%) was missing. The female coaches were more likely to respond than males,

resulting in a 44% response rate, compared with a 32% response rate found for the male coaches.

Research Questions

There were four research questions examined in this study. Research Question 1 examined the difference in affective commitment between male and female athletic coaches within the Orange County Interscholastic Athletic Association. Research Question 2 examined the differences in normative commitment between male and females within the OCIAA. Research Question 3 investigated the differences in continuance: high sacrifice commitment (CC:HiSac) between male and females within the OCIAA. The final question, Research Question 4 examined the differences in continuance: low number of alternatives commitment (CC:LoAlt) between male and females within the OCIAA.

This research study focused on the differences in organizational commitment level, measured by using the Revised Three-Component Commitment Scale of Meyer et al. (1993), between male and female coaches at the high school level. More specifically, coaches that qualified for this study had to be the head or assistant coach at the JV or varsity level for the sports of boys and girls soccer, boys and girls basketball, and boys and girls track and field. This study focused on organizational commitment and the differences in antecedents of commitment based on gender by asking the following four research questions:

1. What is the difference in affective commitment between male and females within the Orange County Interscholastic Athletic Association (OCIAA)?

2. What is the difference in normative commitment between male and females within the OCIAA?
3. What is the difference in continuance: high sacrifice commitment between male and females within the OCIAA?
4. What is the difference in continuance: low number of alternatives commitment between male and females within the OCIAA?

This study revealed that there was no statistical significance between a coaches' gender and their AC, NC, CC:HiSac, and CC:LoAlt.

Data Analysis and Findings

Data analysis included descriptive statistics. Table 4.1 gives the demographics of the participants.

Table 4.1

Demographics of Sample

Gender	Number	Percent
Female	36	31.0
Male	79	68.1
Total	115	99.1
Missing	1	0.9

The data collected indicates that 115 total participants (34.7%) completed the survey out of the eligible 331 participants. The majority of the 331 eligible OCIAA coaching participants were male, at 250 (75.5%), and 81 (24.5%) were female coaches. Of the 81 eligible female coaches, 31 responded to the survey, a response rate of 44% in comparison to the 79 out of 250 male coaches that responded to the study, giving a

response rate of 32%. One participant did not select a gender, which represents .9% of the population. Table 4.2 gives the age ranges of the male and female coaches.

Table 4.2

Age Range

	Female ($N = 36$)	Male ($N = 79$)	Total (116)
Range	23-61	25-65	23-65
Median	35	45	43

Note: Differences in age are not significant ($F = 2.7, p = .106$).

The female coaches ($N = 36$) who participated in this study ranged in age from 23 to 61 years old, with the median age being 35 years old. The male coaches ($N = 79$) who participated in this study had an age range between 25 to 65 years old, with the median age being 45 years old. The total of the coaches ($N = 116$) had an age range of 23 to 65 years old, with a median age of 43 years old. The median age of the male coaches was 10 years older, at 45, compared to 35 for the female coaches but the difference is not statistically significant. Through a one-way ANOVA analysis, it was found that the age range was not statistically significant because p (probability of difference) was not less than .05. The final analysis discovered that age range, though women coaches were younger than male coaches, was not statistically significant ($F = 2.7, p = .106$).

The female coaches ($N = 36$) who participated in this study had kinship responsibilities that ranged from zero to eight people for whom they were financially responsible. The male coaches ($N = 79$) reported kinship responsibilities ranging between zero and five, with a median of two. The total combined participant coaches

($N = 116$) reported kinship responsibilities that ranged from zero to eight, with a median of one. The results discovered that age range was not significant ($F = 2.5, p = .113$).

According to Table 4.3, the male coaches' median age was twice as high as the female coaches, resulting in twice as many dependents for kinship responsibilities. These results were not statistically significant using a one-way ANOVA ($F = 2.5, p = .113$). In order for there to be a significance, $p < .05$.

Table 4.3

Kinship Responsibilities – Number of People Coach is Financially Responsible For

	Female ($N = 36$)	Male ($N = 79$)	Total (116)
Range	0-8	0-5	0-8
Median	1	2	1

Note. Differences in kinship responsibilities are not significant ($F = 2.5, p = .113$).

Shown in Table 4.4, the female coaches ($N = 36$) who participated in this study had a number of years with their current organization that ranged from 1 to 35 years,

Table 4.4

Number of Years with Current Organization

	Female ($N = 36$)	Male ($N = 79$)	Total (116)
Range	1-35	1-37	1-37
Median	8	12	11

Note: Differences in years with current organization are not significant ($F = 2.2, p = .143$)

with a median of 8 years. The male coaches ($N = 79$) reported the number of years with their current organization ranging between 1 and 37 years, with a median of 12 years. The range may have been too big to find any significance because it combines new and veteran teachers. A one-way ANOVA analysis discovered that the number of years with the current organization was not significant ($F = 2.2, p = .143$).

Table 4.5 shows that the number of years coaching between the male and female coaches was statistically significant ($F = 4.0, p < .05$). The female coaches ($N = 36$) had a range in number of years of coaching from 1 to 37 years, with a median of 11 years. The range for the male coaches was 1 to 41 years, with a median of 16 years. The total combined number of participants ($N = 116$) displayed a range in years in coaching of 1 to 41 years and a median of 14 years. Table 4.5 shows that there was a significant difference in years of coaching between males and females. The ANOVA found that there was a statistically significant difference between the number of years coaching between male and female coaches. The male coaches were found to have significantly more coaching experience than the female coaches ($F = 4.0, p < .05$).

Table 4.5

Years Coaching

	Female ($N = 36$)	Male ($N = 79$)	Total (116)
Range	1-37	1-41	1-41
Median	11	16	14

Note. Differences in years coaching are statistically significant ($F = 4.0, p < .05$).

The male and female participants were eligible for this study coached a variety of different sports. For eligibility in this study, a coach had to coach JV or varsity boys soccer, girls soccer, boys basketball, girls basketball, boys track, and girls track. The survey distributed to the coaches included a self-reporting box to check what sport each individual coaches and offered an option labeled “other” in order for the coaches to enter other sports that they coached for their organization.

Boys varsity track coaches had the highest response rate with 26 total responses, followed by girls varsity track ($N = 22$), girls varsity basketball ($N = 15$), boys varsity soccer ($N = 14$), and girls varsity soccer ($N = 14$). The lowest response ($N = 1$) included varsity skiing, girls swimming, girls cross country, co-ed varsity crew, boys swimming, boys modified baseball, boys junior varsity baseball, and strength coach. Table 4.6 shows the breakdown of responsibilities for the male and female coaches.

The means and standard deviations for male and female coaches for each of the three commitment scales are in Table 4.7. The scales were found to be at least moderately to somewhat moderately reliable. Cronbach’s alpha reliability is the average correlation with every item and every other item, which measures consistency of answers between the three commitment scales. Cronbach’s alpha reliability was found to be moderately reliable for NCS at .80 and the ACS at .78. The CCS was found to be somewhat reliable at .67.

Table 4.6

Coaching Responsibilities of Sample Subjects by Gender and Total

	Number Female (<i>N</i> = 36)	Number Male (<i>N</i> = 79)	Total (<i>N</i> = 116)
Boys Varsity Track	5	21	26
Girls Varsity Track	8	14	22
Girls Varsity Basketball	5	9	15
Boys Varsity Soccer	2	12	14
Girls Varsity Soccer	8	6	14
Boys Varsity Basketball	2	11	13
Boys Cross Country	0	12	12
Boys Junior Varsity Basketball	1	11	12
Girls Junior Varsity Basketball	5	6	11
Girls Junior Varsity Soccer	7	2	9
Boys Junior Varsity Soccer	1	4	5
Girls Varsity Lacrosse	3	2	5
Boys Varsity Golf	1	3	4
Boys Varsity Football	0	3	3
Girls Tennis	3	0	3
Girls Varsity Softball	1	1	3
Volleyball	2	1	3
Boys Varsity Lacrosse	0	2	2
Girls Modified Basketball	2	0	2
Girls Modified Track	2	0	2
Boys and Girls Strength Coach	0	1	1
Boys Junior Varsity Baseball	0	1	1
Boys Junior Varsity Football	0	1	1
Boys Modified Baseball	0	1	1
Boys Swimming	0	1	1
Coed Varsity Crew	1	0	1
Girls Cross Country	1	0	1
Girls Swimming	0	1	1
Varsity Skiing	1	0	1

Table 4.7

Descriptive Statistics of Commitment Scales by Gender

Gender		Affective Commitment Scale	Normative Commitment Scale	Continuance Commitment Scale
Female	Mean	32.3	31.8	25.3
	N	36.0	36.0	3.6
	Std. Deviation	5.6	6.8	7.3
Male	Mean	33.0	31.9	24.4
	N	79.0	79.0	79.0
	Std. Deviation	6.1	6.5	6.8
Total	Mean	32.8	31.9	24.6
	N	11.6	11.06	115.0
	Std. Deviation	6.0	6.6	7.0

Shown in Table 4.8, an ANOVA was conducted to determine whether there were differences between the male and female coaches between the three commitment scales, and no significant differences were found. Statistical significance needs to be below .05, which was not reported for the ACS at .560, NCS at .883, and CCS at .528

Table 4.8

Commitment Scales ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Affective Commitment Scale	Between Groups	12.217	1	12.217	0.342	0.560
	Within Groups	4037.142	113	35.727		
	Total	4049.359	114			
Normative Commitment Scale	Within Groups	0.954	1	0.954	0.022	0.883
	Between Groups	4947.634	113	43.784		
	Total	4948.588	114			
Continuance Commitment Scale	Within Groups	19.645	1	19.645	0.401	0.528
	Between Groups	5534.630	113	48.979		
	Total	5554.275	114			

The Continuance Commitment Scale of the Revised Three-Component Commitment Scale was further broken down to analyze gender differences in the coaches for CC:LoAlt and CC:HiSac (Meyer et al., 1993). CC:LoAlt, suggests that an individual continues employment with an organization due to his or her financial needs, and this could be directly related to a lack of alternative employment or lack of alternative job opportunities (Meyer et al., 2002; Turner, 2008). The second component, CC:HiSac, refers to an individual's high sacrifice of personal investments, which includes kinship responsibilities and household finances, if they were to leave their place of employment (Turner, 2008).

The means and standard deviations for male and female coaches for CC:LoAlt and CC:HiSac are shown in Table 4.9. The scales were found to be from not terribly reliable (.70) to low reliability (.57). Cronbach's alpha reliability is the average correlation with every item and every other item, which measures consistency of answers between these two commitment scales. Cronbach's alpha reliability was found to be not terribly reliable for the CC:HiSac scale at .70. The CC:LoAlt scale was found to have low reliability at .57.

Table 4.9

Gender Differences in High and Low Continuance Commitment

Gender		High	Low
Female	Mean	13.2	12.0
	N	36	36
	Std. Deviation	4.7	4.3
Male	Mean	13.4	11.0
	N	79	79
	Std. Deviation	4.4	4.1
Total	Mean	13.3	11.3
	N	115	115
	Std. Deviation	4.5	4.1

As shown in Table 4.10, the ANOVA calculations found that there were no significant differences for CC:HiSac at .840 and CC:LoAlt at .198.

Table 4.10

High Sacrifice and Low Alternative ANOVA – Continuance Commitment

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
CC High	Between Groups	.827	1	.827	.041	.840
	Within Groups	2273.260	113	20.117		
	Total	2274.987	114			
CC Low	Between Groups	28.532	1	28.532	1.675	.198
	Within Groups	1924.848	113	17.034	1.67	.198
	Total	1953.381	114			

Tables 4.11 and 4.12 show a comparison of the entire coaching population, both male and female, who participated in this research study.

Table 4.11

Affective vs. Continuance Commitment

		Paired Samples Statistics			
		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Error Mean
Pair 1	Affective Commitment Scale	32.9	116	6.0	.6
	Continuance Commitment Scale	24.6	116	6.9	.6

Affective commitment was found to be significantly higher than continuance commitment for the total population of OCIAA coaches who participated in this study ($t = 9.4, p < .01$).

Table 4.12

Normative vs. Continuance Commitment

		Paired Samples Statistics			
		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Error Mean
Pair 1	Normative Commitment Scale	31.8	116	6.6	.6
	Continuance Commitment Scale	24.6	116	6.9	.6

Normative commitment was found to be significantly higher than continuance commitment for the total population of OCIAA coaches who participated in this study ($t = 8.5, p < .01$).

Summary of Results

This study did not confirm a significant difference between affective, normative, continuance low alternative, and continuance high sacrifice commitment between male and female coaches at the high school level. However, among the entire sample, regardless of gender, coaches were found to have significant higher affective and normative commitment than continuance commitment ($p < .01$).

Significant demographic differences were found between male and female coaches in this present study. Women were found to respond to the survey in higher numbers, were younger, worked in their current organization for shorter periods of time, and had significantly less years of coaching experience. Male coaches were most likely to coach girls and boys varsity track, boys varsity soccer, and cross country. Female coaches were most likely to coach girls varsity track, girls varsity soccer, and girls JVs soccer.

The means and standard deviations for the three commitment scales by gender are shown in Table 4.7. The scales were found to be at least moderately to somewhat moderately reliable. Cronbach's alpha reliability was found to be moderately reliable for the NC scale at .80 and the AC scale at .78. The CC scale was found to be somewhat reliable at .67. Cronbach's alpha reliability is the average correlation with every item and every other item, which measured the consistency of answers between the three commitment scales.

One-way ANOVA was used to determine whether there were differences between male and female coaches between the three commitment scales, and no significant differences were found. Statistical significance needs to be below .05, which was not reported for the AC scale at .560, the NC scale at .883, and the CC scale at .528.

The CC scale was further disaggregated to analyze gender differences in coaches for CC:LoAlt and CC:HiSac. CC:LoAlt suggests that an individual continues employment with an organization due to his or her financial needs, and continuing employment could be directly related to a lack of alternative employment or lack of alternative job opportunities (Meyer et al., 2002; Turner, 2008). The second component, CC:HiSac refers to an individual's high sacrifice of personal investments, which includes kinship responsibilities and household finances, if they left their place of employ (Turner, 2008).

The means and standard deviations for male and female coaches for CC:LoAlt and CC:HiSac are in Table 4.9. The scales were found to be from not terribly reliable (.70) to low reliability (.57). Cronbach's alpha reliability was found to be not reliable for the CC:HiSac scale at .70. The CC:LoAlt scale was found to have low reliability at .57.

The ANOVA calculations found that there were no significant differences for CC:HiSac at .840 and CC:LoAlt at .198.

When comparing the three commitment scales, the entire OCIAA coaching population, regardless of gender, it was discovered that both affective and normative commitment levels were significantly higher than continuance commitment levels. *T*-tests were used and found that AC was found to be significantly higher than CC for the total population of OCIAA coaches who participated in this study ($t = 9.4 p < .01$). NC was found to be significantly higher than CC for the total population of OCIAA coaches who participated in this study ($t = 8.5 p < .01$).

Chapter 5: Discussion

Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the research problem, the objectives of this study that was organized by the research questions, and the significance of the findings for organizational commitment level differences between male and female coaches at the high school level. Additionally, this chapter addresses implications of findings, limitations of the study, and recommendations for future research.

There is a disproportionately low number of female coaches in high school and college level in athletics. This researcher wanted to examine the reasons why there are fewer female coaches, even though Title IX legislation was designed to expand the opportunities for all females in athletics. The decision to analyze the differences in organizational commitment levels between male and female coaches could examine if commitment levels would explain the disproportionately low number of female coaches at the high school level. Many studies have shown that organizational commitment is directly related to an employee's attendance, behavior, and job performance (Meyer et al., 2002; Turner, 2008). Turner (2008) suggested that future research should examine gender differences in commitment across different occupations and organizations. High school JV and varsity coaches were chosen as the study participants, based on the research of Turner (2008), who conducted his commitment study with Division I and Division III college coaches.

The present study focused on the differences in organizational commitment level, measured by using the Revised Three-Component Commitment Scale of Meyer et al. (1993), between male and female coaches at the high school level. More specifically, coaches that qualified for this study had to be a head or assistant coach at the JV or varsity level for the sports of boys and girls soccer, boys and girls basketball, and boys and girls track and field. By asking the following four research questions, this study focused on organizational commitment and the differences in the antecedents of commitment based on gender:

1. What is the difference in affective commitment between male and female coaches within the Orange County Interscholastic Athletic Association (OCIAA)?
2. What is the difference in normative commitment between male and female coaches within the OCIAA?
3. What is the difference in continuance: high sacrifice commitment between male and female coaches within the OCIAA?
4. What is the difference in continuance: low number of alternatives commitment between male and female coaches within the OCIAA?

Since the inception of Title IX, there has been a declining number of women coaches, which is negatively affecting future female athletes from entering the profession (Weiss & Stevens, 1993). Still, women who are employed in head coach and athletic director positions at the collegiate level occupy less than 25% of the coaching population, and they are the minority among coaches of women's teams (Acosta & Carpenter, 2012). Lapchick et al. (2013) discovered that White men occupy 86.2%, 88%, and 91.9%,

respectively, of head coaching positions at the Division I, II, and III collegiate levels. Positive correlations have been found between sport participation, academics, and future employment for female athletes at the high school level (Harrison & Narayan, 2003; Stevenson, 2006). Additionally, the overwhelming majority of athletic directors are male, which contributes to covert discrimination and male domination in the field of coaching (Kilty, 2006).

The majority of sports management studies concentrate on determining the extent to which individuals are committed, to whom they are committed, and the consequences of this commitment. While these issues are important when investigating any work-related variable, a neglected area of study in the sport management literature has been the determinants of commitment at the high school coaching level between male and female coaches. This study is important because it can provide high school athletic departments with insight on (a) commitment levels of high school coaches, (b) what determinants cause coaches to commit to the high school sports team they are coaching, and (c) possibly identify factors to help reduce turnover of coaches at the high school level.

Implications of Findings

There is a decreasing number of female coaches in athletics, and studies have shown that organizational commitment is directly related to an employee's attendance, behavior, and job performance (Meyer et al., 2002; Turner, 2008). The 1972 Education Amendments to the Civil Rights Act, Title IX, expanded high school and college opportunities to include female students, which included all educational programs, including athletics. Title IX revolutionized mass sports participation in high school athletics and there have been significant consequences that Title IX has had on

participation in high school sports (Stevenson, 2007). It has been over 40 years since the passage of Title IX, and although there has been progress to achieve gender equality, there is still not equity in opportunity for female athletes and coaches at the high school and college levels (Sabo & Veliz, 2011; Turner, 2008).

This study found that there are no differences between OCIAA male and female coaches' levels of affective commitment, normative commitment, continuance commitment, continuance commitment: low alternative, and continuance commitment: high sacrifice. However, when comparing the first the three commitment scales, the entire OCIAA coaching population, regardless of gender, it was discovered that both affective and normative commitment levels were significantly higher than continuance commitment levels. Differences were discovered between male and female coaches in the demographics and response rate, and women coaches were found to be younger, had less experience coaching (not significantly), had been with their current organization for shorter periods of time, and had significantly less years coaching.

Both male and female coaches at the high school level were similarly committed to their respective organizations. Results revealed that male coaches were older, had more financial responsibility for others, more years with the current organization, and have more years coaching. There was a wide range in terms of coaching experience between the male and female coaches. The only finding that was significant was the number of years coaching between male and female coaches. This study also found that male coaches were most likely to coach girls and boys varsity track, boys varsity soccer, and cross country. Female coaches were most likely to coach girls varsity track, girls varsity soccer, and girls JV soccer.

Title IX legislation was designed to increase opportunities for female athletes and coaches. More opportunity has resulted for female athletes, but there are still inequities between male and female coaching opportunities. However, the research of Lapchick et al. (2013) discovered that White men occupy 86.2%, 88%, and 91.9% of head coaching positions, respectively, at the Division I, II, and III collegiate levels. Additionally, 56.1% of women sports head coaching positions at the Division I, II, and III collegiate levels are also occupied by White men (Lapchick et al., 2013). This research revealed that organizational commitment is not different between male and female coaches at the high school level, which was similar to the results discovered by Turner (2008), who investigated differences in organizational commitment between male and female coaches at the college level, and which found that there was not any significance difference between both male and female coaches.

Limitations

This organizational commitment study had a sample size of 331 total coaches, more specifically, the breakdown of 250 male and 81 female coaches. The data yielded 116 total responses that totaled 35%. Women coaches ($N = 36$) yielded 31% of the total reported sample. The male coaches ($N = 79$) consisted of 68.1% of the sample, and one survey (.9%) was missing. The female coaches had a response rate of 44% in comparison to male coaches who had a response rate of 32%. This study provides information about the differences in organizational commitment levels between male and female coaches at the high school level.

The major limitation to this study is that it represents one athletic community in New York State. The number of coaches that responded to the commitment level survey

may have created limits on the statistical significance, which may have been created with more completed survey responses. Increasing the sample size of this study could create more significant findings related to organizational commitment and the gender of high school coaches. The small sample size and response rate created limits on measuring the differences in organizational commitment levels in coaches on a statewide and national scale. A larger sample size would have given the researcher the ability to further investigate any differences in organizational commitment that may have existed in different parts of the state and country.

Recommendations

The commitment level of an individual has been shown to be significantly correlated to turnover in the workplace (Allen & Meyer, 1997). This research investigated the potential differences between male and female sports coaches at the high school level, with the aim of increasing the research base related to organizational commitment. When thinking about the role of females in athletics historically, it can be said that the passage of Title IX revolutionized sports participation in high school athletics for female student-athletes (Stevenson, 2007). The rise of female athletes also led to a rise in more coaching opportunities for women, and at one point, almost all women's teams had female coaches. However, "as female sports grew in importance and popularity, coaching became more attractive to men" (Blumenthal, 2005, p.116).

Developing protocols within high school athletic departments to interview female candidates for coaching positions will greatly increase the ability to create a gender-diverse coaching staff. This study's findings and analysis suggest that there is no significant differences between the organizational commitment levels of male and female

high school coaches. However, there should be specific and intentional focus on future research and improved practices that can be implemented to increase gender diversity and equality in coaches at the high school level. Researchers should continue to examine commitment levels of coaches working with teams specifically of the same and different genders than the coaches.

Recommendations for future research. The findings of this study offer more opportunities for future research. Researchers should explore the commitment level of same-gender coaching responsibilities. Coaches may have higher commitment levels when they are coaching teams of their own gender, for example, female coaches coaching girls soccer. Those women who are only coaching girls may have different commitment levels than women who coach boys. Furthermore, future research should explore if there is a significance between organizational commitment levels and coaches that lead teams of the same gender. Further research could also focus on the difference in organizational commitment levels between different genders of coaches in the same sport. Moreover, research is needed to investigate if there is a correlation between the organizational commitment of the athletic director and his or her coaching staff. Investigations into hiring practices related to the gender of the athletic director and coaches in their respective high school athletic departments needs to be analyzed.

The researcher only selected the three most common sports that were available to the majority of the 27 OCIAA schools, which included JV and varsity girls and boys soccer, girls and boys basketball, and spring track and field. The intent of this study was to explore the self-reported commitment levels of male and female high school coaches. Expanding the population and variety of coaches from other sports would allow other

researchers to analyze commitment differences between coaches from a wider variety of sports. There are also other sports that have a high population of female coaches, such as girls cross country and girls swimming and diving, that would have been beneficial to partake in this study on organizational commitment.

Last, the majority of the OCIAA schools that participated in this study had modified sports programs for seventh- and eighth-grade students. Modified boys and girls soccer, basketball, and track and field, would give the researcher a larger population to analyze and compare differences within an entire athletic department, as well as analyze the commitment levels of coaches that work with middle school level students.

Recommendations for improved practice. While Title IX has greatly improved the availability and opportunities for female athletes to participate in interscholastic and intercollegiate sports, it has failed at providing more opportunities for female coaches. Female coaches have declined in numbers due to the lack of female coaching role models, male domination of athletic leadership positions, social conditions within the profession of coaching, and other employment opportunities other than coaching (Acosta & Carpenter, 1985; Kilty, 2006; Lowry & Lovett, 1997). The decreasing numbers of females filling collegiate head-coaching positions is explained by their lack of intention, preference, low self-efficacy, low motivation to coach, and higher intent to leave the profession than men coaches (Chelladurai et al., 1999; Cunningham et al., 2003; Sagas & Ashley, 2001).

Currently, high school athletic departments are not required to report the genders of their coaching staff to the New York State Department of Education or New York State Public High School Athletic Association (NYSPHSAA). It is recommended that all

high school athletic departments submit a total number of coaches and their gender to their high school state governing body. The lack of available data makes it difficult to accurately examine the gender inequity that exists for high school athletic coaches at the state and national level.

It is recommended that high school athletic departments create a diverse coaching staff with equal representation of male and female coaches. The intended purpose for this recommendation is to provide more female leadership and mentoring to adolescent female students who participate in interscholastic athletic teams. Additionally, female coaches can serve as positive role models for adolescent female athletes who want to pursue a career in the field of athletics. Educational institutions must recognize, understand, and value the importance of having a gender-diverse coaching staff to create equality for all.

Further, recruiting and attracting the best female coaching talent to take part in any school and athletic department will take careful planning through collaboration of a school district's administration. A suggested practice is for athletic directors is to connect with local colleges and universities to receive contacts for possible female athletes that are entering the field of education. Furthermore, personally attending job fairs will expand the visibility of any athletic department, and it will appear more attractive to future female coaches to apply for employment. Hiring practices of teachers should also include examining what interscholastic sports female candidates have experience in participating and coaching.

Conclusion

Many studies in sports management have examined to what extent individuals are committed, to whom they are committed, and the consequences of their commitment (Turner, 2008). Researchers have also begun to investigate the effect of commitment level on a sports coach's intentions to stay with a program or leave the organization to explore other opportunities (Cunningham et al., 2001; Turner & Chelladurai, 2005). Additionally, commitment has also shown to be significantly correlated to turnover in the workplace (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The area of sports management has been neglected in past research, as well as the differences that may exist in organizational leadership between males and females (Turner, 2008). This research study investigated if potential differences existed between male and female sports coaches at the high school level, with the aim of increasing the research base related to organizational commitment.

There are many various definitions of commitment. Meyer & Allen (1991) developed a framework that breaks down organizational commitment into three categories: affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment. Affective commitment refers to an employees' emotional attachment, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment in an organization because they want to. Continuance commitment refers to an individual's assessment of the costs associated with leaving an organization. These are employees who believe that the cost of leaving the organization is greater than remaining because they need to. Lastly, normative commitment refers to an employees' feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with high levels of normative

commitment stay with the organization because they feel they ought to (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

There is a great deal of theoretical research that has been applied to organizational commitment. Meyer and Allen (2004) stated that “commitment implies an intention to persist in a course of action” (p. 2). Research has found that the commitment level of an employee is related to a reduction in turnover (Meyer et al., 2002). Meyer and Allen (2004) stated that “it is commonly believed that committed employees will work harder and be more likely to ‘go the extra mile’ to achieve organizational objectives” (p. 2). As mentioned previously in this paper, further research conducted by Meyer and Allen (1991) and Allen and Meyer (1997) characterized commitment into three distinct categories: affective, normative, and continuance. The Revised Three-Component Commitment Scale which was the original commitment survey developed by Meyer et al. (1993), was used to analyze an individual’s level of commitment for the organization in which they work. According to Allen and Meyer (1990), survey components related to commitment demonstrate how an employee feels about the organization they work for.

When thinking about the role of females in athletics historically, it may be said that the passage of Title IX revolutionized sports participation in high school athletics for female student-athletes (Stevenson, 2007). At its inception in 1972, there was a total of 3,960,932 total participants in high school athletics, with 294,015 being female, representing 7.4% of the total athlete population. By 2013-14, there was a total of 7,795,658 high school athletes, with 3,267,664, or 42%, being female (NFHS, 2015). Because of the rise in female athletes, this also led to a rise in more coaching opportunities for women.

After the passage of Title IX, almost all women's teams had female coaches. However, "as female sports grew in importance and popularity, coaching became more attractive to men" (Blumenthal, 2005, p. 116). Recent data revealed that White men occupy 86.2%, 88%, and 91.9% of head coaching positions, respectively, at the Division I, II, and III collegiate levels (Lapchick et al., 2013). Furthermore, 56.1% of women sports' head coaching positions at the Division I, II, and III collegiate levels are also occupied by white men (Lapchick et. al., 2013). In contrast, 3% of men's teams at the Division I level were coached by White women (Lapchick et al., 2013). Additionally, women comprised 34.2% of head coaching positions at the Division II and 42.9% at the Division III collegiate levels (Lapchick et al., 2013). More specifically, 38.6% of women in collegiate sports in the Division I level are coached by head coaches who are White women (Lapchick et al., 2013).

According to Turner (2008), the percentage of women coaching female teams in the NCAA at the Division I and III levels is at an all-time low (42.4%), down from over 90% the year that Title IX was enacted (Turner, 2008). Female head coaches of collegiate male athletic teams represent a 2% minority (Acosta & Carpenter, 2006). This study was designed as a replication of Turner's (2008) study entitled: *Does Commitment Develop in the Same Manner for Male and Female Coaches? An Examination of Personal and Job Characteristic Antecedents*. This study analyzed survey data to examine what, if any, differences in organizational commitment there could be between male and female coaches at the high school level.

The primary purpose of this study was to see if there was a difference in organizational commitment between male and female coaches at the high school level. It

is important because there is a decreasing number of female coaches in athletics, and studies have shown that organizational commitment is directly related to an employee's attendance, behavior, and job performance (Meyer et al., 2002; Turner, 2008). Turner (2008) suggested that future research should examine gender differences in commitment across different occupations and organizations. High school JV and varsity coaches were chosen by this researcher based on the research of Turner (2008), who conducted this commitment study with Division I and Division III college coaches.

As an athletic administrator in the OCIAA, this researcher had access to other athletic directors and their coaches at the JV and varsity level. This study is crucial to school districts and high school administrators who are responsible for making recruitment and hire selection decisions about coaches. Furthermore, it is important for each school district and athletic department to recruit and hire coaches who are committed to their school in order to provide positive, educational, and competitive athletic teams for their student-athletes.

This study found that there are no differences between OCIAA male and female coaches' levels of affective commitment, normative commitment, continuance commitment, continuance commitment: low alternative, and continuance commitment: high sacrifice. However, there are differences between the different levels of AC, NC, and CC for the entire population of OCIAA coaches who participated in this study. Furthermore, there are differences between male and female coaches in the demographics, response rate, and women were found to be younger, have less experience coaching (not significantly), were employed by their current organization for shorter periods of time, and had significantly less years coaching.

Both male and female coaches at the high school level possess similar levels of organizational commitment to their respective organizations. The outcomes of this study revealed that male coaches were older, had more financial responsibility for others, more years with their current organization, and had more years coaching. The only finding that was significant was number of years coaching between male and female coaches. This study also found that male coaches were most likely to coach girls and boys varsity track, boys varsity soccer, and cross country. Female coaches were most likely to coach girls varsity track, girls varsity soccer, and girls JV soccer.

The current underrepresentation of women in coaching led this researcher to investigate if organizational commitment could be a factor in the employment of female coaches at the high school level. With the help of data collecting systems at the state and national level, athletic directors can identify specific program needs and provide more opportunities for female coaches. The research indicated that there were no differences in organizational commitment between male and female coaches at the high school level. This study revealed that organizational commitment should not be considered a reason that a male coach is more qualified than a female coach at the high school or collegiate level.

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Appendix A

Revised Three-Component Commitment Scale (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993)

Instructions

Listed below is a series of statements that represent feelings that individuals might have about the company or organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about the particular organization for which you are now working, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling a number from 1 to 7 using the scale below.

- 1 = strongly disagree
- 2 = disagree
- 3 = slightly disagree
- 4 = undecided
- 5 = slightly agree
- 6 = agree
- 7 = strongly agree

Affective Commitment Scale

- 1) I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
- 2) I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
- 3) I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization. (R)
- 4) I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (R)
- 5) I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (R)
- 6) This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

Continuance Commitment Scale

- 1) Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
- 2) It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
- 3) Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.
- 4) I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
- 5) If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.
- 6) One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.

Normative Commitment Scale

- 1) I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer. (R)
- 2) Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.
- 3) I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.
- 4) This organization deserves my loyalty.

- 5) I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.
- 6) I owe a great deal to my organization.

Note. (R) indicates a reverse-keyed item. Scores on these items should be reflected (i.e., 1 = 7, 2 = 6, 3 = 5, 4 = 4, 5 = 3, 6 = 2, 7 = 1) before computing scale score.

Appendix B

List of Orange County Interscholastic Athletic Association (OCIAA) Schools:

John S. Burke
Chapel Field
Chester Academy
Cornwall
Eldred
Fallsburg
Florida (S.S. Seward)
Goshen
Kingston
Liberty
Livingston Manor
Middletown
Minisink
Monroe-Woodbury
Monticello
Mount Academy
Newburgh Free Academy
James I. O'Neill
Pine Bush
Port Jervis
Roscoe
Sullivan West
Tri Valley
Tuxedo
Valley Central
Warwick Valley
Washingtonville

Appendix C

TCM Employee Commitment Survey

Academic Users Guide 2004

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TCM Employee Commitment Survey Academic Users Guide

Based on the Three-Component Model (TCM) of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991; 1997), the *TCM Employee Commitment Survey* measures three forms of employee commitment to an organization: desire-based (affective commitment), obligation-based (normative commitment) and cost-based (continuance commitment). The survey includes three well-validated scales, the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS), the Normative Commitment Scale (NCS) and the Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS). Each is scored separately and can be used to identify the “commitment profile” of employees within an organization.

This academic version of the TCM Employee Commitment Survey was prepared for those who intend to use the commitment scales for academic research purposes. Original and revised versions of the scales are provided in Appendix A. This guide provides background information on the development of the commitment scales and addresses general issues pertaining to their use. Appendix B provides a list of references that you can consult for more information.

Why is commitment important?

Commitment implies an intention to persist in a course of action. Therefore, organizations often try to foster commitment in their employees to achieve stability and reduce costly turnover. It is commonly believed that committed employees will also work harder and be more likely to “go the extra mile” to achieve organizational objectives. Research has consistently demonstrated that commitment does indeed contribute to a reduction in turnover (see Tett & Meyer, 1993; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). But, there is a caveat to the assumption regarding its impact on performance.

Research conducted to test the three-component model of commitment has demonstrated that commitment can be characterized by different mindsets – desire, obligation, and cost (see Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997). Employees with a strong affective commitment (high ACS scores) stay because they *want to*, those with strong normative commitment (high NCS scores) stay because they feel they *ought to*, and those with strong continuance commitment (high CCS scores) stay because they *have to* do so.

Research consistently shows that employees who want to stay (high ACS) tend to perform at a higher level than those who do not (low ACS). Employees who remain out of obligation (high NCS) also tend to out-perform those who feel no such obligation (low NCS), but the effect on performance is not as strong as that observed for desire.

Finally, employees who have to stay primarily to avoid losing something of value (e.g., benefits, seniority) often have little incentive to do anything more than is required to retain their positions. So, not all commitments are alike (for summaries of the empirical evidence, see Allen & Meyer, 1996, 2000; Meyer et al., 2002).

How do I use the Commitment Survey?

There are two versions of the TCM Employee Commitment Survey – original and revised (see below). Both include statements (items) pertaining to employees' perception of their relationship with the organization and their reasons for staying. After reading each item, employees indicate the strength of their agreement by selecting a number from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). In the original version of the survey, there are eight items for each the three commitment scales: ACS, NCS, and CCS. In the revised survey there are six statements for each scale. (Note: A new version of the CCS has recently been developed based on accumulating evidence that the original scale reflects two underlying dimensions, personal sacrifice and lack of alternatives (see Allen & Meyer, 1996) and that the personal sacrifice dimension corresponds more closely to the continuance commitment construct as it was originally conceived (see Allen & Meyer, 1996; McGee & Ford, 1987; Meyer et al., 2002). For more information on the new version of the CCS, its development and psychometric properties, see Powell and Meyer, 2004.

For both the original and revised versions of the survey, the items in Appendix A are grouped according to scale: ACS, NCS, and CCS. For purposes of survey administration, we recommend that the items from the three scales be mixed. For scoring purposes, employees' responses to all of the items *within* a scale are averaged to yield an overall score for each of the three components of commitment (see below for more detail). Although it is also possible to sum the item scores rather than averaging, this can create some problems if employees fail to respond to some items. The existence of *missing data* will have a much greater impact on total scores than on average scores. Of course, if employees fail to respond to a large number of the items (e.g., more than two or three per scale), their scores will be suspect and probably should not be interpreted. (Note: The existence of missing data can be problematic for the analysis and interpretation of any employee survey. There are several different ways to address this problem. For a more detailed discussion of this issue and the options available, see McDonald, Thurston and Nelson (2000) and Roth, Switzer and Switzer (1999)).

Note that some of the items in the commitment scales have been worded such that strong agreement actually reflects a lower level of commitment. These are referred to as "reverse-keyed" items (identified by "R" after the statement) and are included to encourage respondents to think about each statement carefully rather than mindlessly adapting a pattern of agreeing or disagreeing with the

statements. For the same reason, we typically recommend that items from the three commitment scales be integrated for purposes of presentation in a paper or web-based survey. For scoring purposes, however, it is important that (a) scores on reverse-keyed statements be re-coded (i.e., 1 = 7, 2 = 6, ... 7 = 1) before scoring, and (b) averages are computed based only on items relevant to the specific scale. Scores computed by combining items from the different commitment scales will *not* be meaningful. If scored correctly, you should obtain three scores, one each for the ACS, NCS, and CCS, for each respondent. These scores should range in value from 1 to 7 with higher scores indicating stronger commitment.

Which version of the survey should I use?

The original version of the ACS, NCS and CCS each include eight items. The revised scales include six items. The two versions of the ACS and CCS are very similar – the choice between the two might best be made on the basis of desired length. The greatest difference between the original and revised versions will be seen in the NCS. Briefly, the NCS measures employees' feeling of obligation to remain with the organization. Theoretically, this obligation can arise from two primary sources: socialization experiences and receipt of "benefits" from the organization that require reciprocation on the part of the employee. Items in the original version of the NCS tend to include information about the basis for the obligation, whereas those in the revised version focus more specifically on the feeling of obligation without specifying the basis. The choice between these two versions might best be made on the basis of whether information about the basis for feeling of obligation is relevant. A note of caution is in order here, however. Making inferences about the basis for normative commitment from the original version of the scale might require interpretation of responses to one or a subset of the items. The NCS was not developed for this purpose and scores on single items can be unreliable.

How should I analyze my data?

As noted above, once you have administered and scored the TCM Employee Commitment Survey, you should have three scores for each respondent. For best results, the commitment survey should be completed anonymously. The content of the scales can be quite sensitive and, under some circumstances, employees might be reluctant to respond honestly if they believe that they can be identified. Therefore, if administered anonymously, interpretation is based on an assessment of the average score and the level of dispersion around this average. This can be done at an organizational level, or at a department or unit level (assuming sufficient numbers).

How these commitment scores are used for research purposes obviously depends on the nature of the research questions being asked. The most common data analytic approach has been to use correlation or regression to

examine relations between the commitment scores and scores on other variables presumed to be their antecedents, correlates or consequences. Other strategies involve the use of ANOVA to compare commitment levels across groups. Appendix B provides a list of references where you can find examples of studies pertaining to the development and consequences of commitment as well as narrative and meta-analytic reviews of existing research. In the remainder of this section we focus on approaches you might take to examine the behavioral consequences of employee commitment.

Although the vast majority of studies using the TCM employee commitment measures have examined the independent or additive effects of the three components on outcomes of interest (e.g., turnover intention, turnover, attendance, job performance, organizational citizenship behavior), in the original formulation of the theory, Meyer and Allen (1991) proposed the three components of commitment might interact to influence behavior (see Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001, for a set of propositions concerning the nature of the interaction effects). If so, the nature of the relation between any single component of commitment and an outcome of interest might vary depending on the strength of the other components. Only a handful of studies to date have tested for interaction effects (e.g., Chen & Francesco, 2003; Jaros, 1997; Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin & Jackson, 1989; Randall, Fedor, & Longenecker, 1990; Somers, 1995). Most have found evidence for interactions. This suggests that interpretation of zero-order correlations might be somewhat misleading. Therefore, we recommend that researchers interested in examining relations between the commitment component and various “outcome” measures consider testing for interactions using moderated multiple regression analyses (for more information on this analytic strategy, see Aiken and West, 1991).

Another approach to examining the joint effects of the commitment components on behavior is to conduct commitment profile comparisons (see Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001, for propositions concerning behavior differences across profile groups, and Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002, for an empirical example). Plotting the three commitment scores will yield a commitment profile for the organization, department, or unit. In theory (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001) the optimal profile should be one in which ACS scores are high (e.g., above the scale midpoint), and the CCS is considerably lower (e.g., below the scale midpoint). Profiles in which the CCS scores are elevated suggest that many employees may feel “trapped” in the organization. Although this can contribute to a relatively low rate of turnover, our research suggests that such employees will do little beyond that which is required of them. To date, only a few studies have been conducted to make profile comparisons (e.g., Gellatly, Meyer & Luchak, 2004; Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). Preliminary evidence is generally consistent with prediction, but more research is needed before firm conclusions can be drawn.

Can I alter the scales to suit my purposes?

It is possible to alter the scales without having a major impact on reliability and validity. The strength of the impact, however, will depend on the nature and extent of the revision. The most common revisions, and their potential effects, are described briefly below. Of course, we can only speculate on what the impact will be in any given situation. The evidence for reliability and validity accumulated through years of research (see Allen & Meyer, 1996, 2000) is based largely on the use of the scales in unaltered form. Therefore, we cannot guarantee that the findings will apply when the scales are modified.

Number of Items. One common modification is to reduce the number of items on each of the three scales, typically as a way of reducing overall survey length. Our experience has been that the scales can be reduced in length to as few as three or four items each without a major impact on reliability. If scale length is an issue, it might be wise to conduct a pilot investigation to assess reliability before conducting the full-scale study. Of course, reliability is only one factor that can affect validity, so even if it can be demonstrated that the reliabilities of shortened scales are acceptable, there is no guarantee that the validity will not be affected. For more information on strategies for scale reduction, see Stanton, Sinar, Balzer, & Smith (2002).

Response Scale. Another common modification is to alter the response scale. Typically, a 7-point disagree-agree scale has been used but, in our experience, a 5-point scale also works quite well. Reducing the number of response options below five is not advised. Obviously, it is important that researchers not directly compare scale scores that are based on different item response scales.

Customizing the Items for the Participating Organization. The items in the TCM Employee Commitment Survey refer to “the organization.” In cases where there may be some confusion about what the organization is, as for example when respondents work for a large subsidiary of an even larger organization, it may be advisable to substitute the relevant organization’s name in the item. In cases where respondents’ organizational affiliations may not be known in advance (e.g., when you collect data through a professional association), it is advisable to modify the instructions to inform respondents as to how you would like them to interpret the term “organization” for purposes of the survey.

Combining Measures. Users who want to measure attitudes other than commitment to the organization might consider mixing statements from the commitment scales with statements from other measures (e.g., job satisfaction). This is certainly possible as long as a common response scale is used. Doing so, however, could create problems. On the one hand, mixing the commitment scales with measures with a very different focus (e.g., attitudes toward

supervisors, co-workers, compensation systems) can cause confusion for respondents – imagine carrying on a conversation where all of this was being discussed at once. On the other hand, mixing content can lead to artificial inflation of the relationship between scores on the measures. In situations where the other measures are included to help identify factors or conditions in the workplace that might contribute to employees' commitment, or lack of commitment, the inflation of relationships could lead to erroneous conclusions. In light of these potential problems, it is usually advisable to include the commitment measures in a separate section of a more comprehensive attitude survey. A decision to do otherwise should be made with caution. For more information on item context effects, see Schwarz (1999).

Reversing the negatively keyed items. The use of negatively keyed items in attitude surveys is intended to control for acquiescence response bias (i.e., the tendency to respond affirmatively to items regardless of their content). While acquiescence response bias can be a problem, there is some evidence that using reverse-keyed items can create confusion for some respondents. An investigation using the TCM commitment scales indeed found evidence for a small “keying factor” resulting from the use of reverse keyed items (see Magazine, Williams, & Williams, 1996). Therefore, some users prefer to reword the reverse-keyed items to minimize potential confusion. There has yet to be a systematic investigation of the impact of doing so, but we believe that it will be minimal. Therefore, we suggest that the reverse-keyed items be reworded if there is any reason to be concerned that reverse-keyed items might be a problem for the respondent sample.

Adapting the scales to measure commitment to other foci. Researchers sometimes want to measure commitment to foci other than the organization itself (e.g., occupation, supervisor, work team, customers) and inquire as to whether it is appropriate to simply replace “organization” in the commitment items with a descriptor of the relevant target. We agree with the importance of acknowledging the multi-dimensionality of all workplace commitments but do not advocate this simple target substitution approach. The terms of a commitment can be very different depending on the target. For example, staying might be a relevant behavioral outcome of commitment to an organization or occupation, but is less relevant when the target is a supervisor or customer, and not at all relevant with the target of the commitment is a goal or change initiative. Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) recently explained how our three-component model of commitment can be adapted for the study of other workplace commitments. They also describe a strategy for developing measures of the three components of these commitments. For examples of research that has applied the three component model to other foci, see Becker and Kernan (2003), Bentein, Stinglhamber, and

Vandenberghe (2002), Clugston, Howell, and Dorfman (2000), Herscovitch and Meyer (2002), Meyer et al. (1993), Stinglhamber, Bentein, and Vandenberghe (2002), and Vandenberghe, Stinglhamber, Bentein, and Delhaise (2001).

Translation. Some users might want to administer the commitment scales in languages other than English, either within a largely English-speaking culture, or in a non-English-speaking country or culture. We do not yet have a standard set of translated scales. However, others have translated the scales for research purposes, with varying degrees of success. There are many factors to consider in translating and using measures in countries or cultures other than those where they were originally developed and validated. Below, we provide sources where you can go to get more information about the potential impact of translation and the cross-cultural validity of the three-component model of commitment. For more detailed information about translation and transporting measures to other cultures, see Hulin (1987) and Hui and Triandis (1985).

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- Vandenberghe, C., Stinglhamber, S., Bentein, K., & Delhaise, T. (2001). An examination of the cross-cultural validity of a multidimensional model of commitment in Europe. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 32*, 322-347.

Appendix A for TCM Employee Commitment Survey

Commitment Scales

Instructions

Listed below is a series of statements that represent feelings that individuals might have about the company or organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about the particular organization for which you are now working, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling a number from 1 to 7 using the scale below.

- 1 = strongly disagree
- 2 = disagree
- 3 = slightly disagree
- 4 = undecided
- 5 = slightly agree
- 6 = agree
- 7 = strongly agree

Original Version (Allen & Meyer, 1990)

Affective Commitment Scale

- 1) I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
- 2) I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.
- 3) I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
- 4) I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one. (R)
- 5) I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization. (R)
- 6) I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization. (R)
- 7) This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
- 8) I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. (R)

Continuance Commitment Scale

- 1) I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up. (R)
- 2) It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
- 3) Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.
- 4) It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization now. (R)
- 5) Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
- 6) I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
- 7) One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
- 8) One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice -another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.

Normative Commitment Scale

- 1) I think that people these days move from company to company too often.
- 2) I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization. (R)
- 3) Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me. (R)
- 4) One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.
- 5) If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my organization.
- 6) I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one's organization.
- 7) Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers.
- 8) I do not think that wanting to be a 'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible anymore. (R)

Revised Version (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993)

Affective Commitment Scale

- 1) I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
- 2) I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
- 3) I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization. (R)
- 4) I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (R)
- 5) I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (R)
- 6) This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

Continuance Commitment Scale

- 1) Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.

- 2) It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
- 3) Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.
- 4) I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
- 5) If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.

6. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.

Normative Commitment Scale

- 1) I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer. (R)
- 2) Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.
- 3) I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.
- 4) This organization deserves my loyalty.
- 5) I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.
- 6) I owe a great deal to my organization.

Note. (R) indicates a reverse-keyed item. Scores on these items should be reflected (i.e., 1 = 7, 2 = 6, 3 = 5, 4 = 4, 5 = 3, 6 = 2, 7 = 1) before computing scale scores.

Appendix B for TCM Employee Commitment Survey

Sources for Additional Information

The most complete and comprehensive source of information about the commitment measures and the three-component model of commitment is as follows.

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1997). *Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research, and application*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Additional information on more specific issues can be found in the following sources.

- **For information on how the commitment model can serve as the basis for the development and implementation of employee retention strategies, see:**

Meyer, J. P., & Topolnytsky, L. (2000). *Best practices: Employee retention*. Toronto, Canada: Carswell.

- **For more information about the development of the measures, and evidence for their psychometric properties, see:**

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63, 1-18.

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1996). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: An examination of construct validity. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 49, 252-276.

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (2000). Construct validation in organizational behavior research: The case of organizational commitment. In R. D. Goffin and E. Helms (Eds.), *Problems and solutions in human assessment: Honoring Douglas N. Jackson at seventy*. Kluwer Academic.

Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J., & Smith, C. A. (1993). Commitment to organizations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78, 538-551.

Powell, D., & Meyer, J. P. (2004). Becker's side-bet theory revisited: A test of the theory within the context of Meyer and Allen's three-component model of organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 65, 157-177.

- **For summaries of research pertaining to the development and consequences of employee commitment, see:**

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1996). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: An examination of construct validity. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 49, 252-276.

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (2000). Construct validation in organizational behavior research: The case of organizational commitment. In R. D. Goffin and E. Helms (Eds.), *Problems and solutions in human assessment: Honoring Douglas N. Jackson at seventy*. Kluwer Academic.

Meyer, J. P., Stanley, D. J., Herscovitch, L., & Topolnytsky, L. (2002). Affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization: A meta-analysis of antecedents, correlates and consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 62, 20-52

- **For more information on the interpretation of commitment profiles, see:**

Gellatly, I. R., Meyer, J. P., & Luchak, A. A. (2004). Organizational commitment and behavior: Testing for interdependencies among three forms of commitment. Unpublished manuscript, School of Business, University of Alberta.

Herscovitch, L., & Meyer, J. P. (2002). Commitment to organizational change: Extension of a three-component model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 474-487.

Meyer, J. P., & Herscovitch, L. (2001). Commitment in the workplace: Toward a general model. *Human Resource Management Review*, 11, 299-326.

Wasti, S. A. (2004, April). *Commitment profiles: The combined influence of organizational commitment forms on job outcomes*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Chicago, IL.

- **For information about the cross-cultural generalizability of the model and the impact of translation on the psychometric properties of the scales, see:**

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (2000). Construct validation in organizational behavior research: The case of organizational commitment. In R. D. Goffin and E. Helms (Eds.), *Problems and solutions in human assessment: Honoring Douglas N. Jackson at seventy*. Kluwer Academic.

Lee, K., Allen, N. J., Meyer, J. P., & Rhee, K-Y. (2001). Cross-cultural generalizability of the Three-Component Model of organizational commitment: An application to South Korea. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 50, 596-614.

Meyer, J. P., Stanley, D. J., Herscovitch, L., & Topolnytsky, L. (2002). Affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization: A meta-analysis of antecedents, correlates and consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 62, 20-52

- **For information on the relevance of employee commitment in the changing world of work, see:**

Meyer, J. P. (1999). Building employee commitment in an era of change: Rx for HRM. *The HRM Research Quarterly*, 3(3), 1-4.

Herscovitch, L., & Meyer, J. P. (2002). Commitment to organizational change: Extension of a three-component model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 474-487.

Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J., & Topolnytsky, L. (1998). Commitment in a changing world of work. *Canadian Psychology*, 39, 83-93.

Appendix D

Letter of Introduction to the Participants

February 25, 2016

Dear Valued Coach of the OCIAA,

My name is Greg Voloshin. I am a doctoral student at St. John Fisher College and I am developing research for my dissertation. The St. John Fisher Institutional Review Board has reviewed my proposal and has granted approval for me to begin my research.

My research will focus on the organizational commitment levels of male and female coaches at the high school level. Please complete the Meyer, Allen, and Smith's (1993) Revised Organizational Commitment Scale and personal characteristic questions, which should take approximately 10 minutes. By taking this survey, you are consenting to participation in the study.

This is a voluntary survey and you, as the participant, may choose not to answer any particular question if needed. If you are in need of emotional support due to this study, please contact Dr. Nicholas Belasco of the Bon Secours Medical Group at 845.291.0996 located at 1 Hatfield Lane Suite 1B Goshen, NY 10924.

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at (845)258-0050 or email at _____ . If you have any questions concerning your rights as a research participant that have not been answered by the investigator or you wish to report any concerns about the study, please contact SJFC IRB Administrator Ms. Jill Rathbun at _____ or _____ .

Sincerely,

Gregory V. Voloshin

Appendix E

Coaching Survey

Instructions:

Listed below is a series of statements that represent feelings that individuals might have about the company or organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about the particular organization for which you are now working, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling a number from 1 to 7 using the scale below.

1 = strongly disagree
2 = disagree
3 = slightly disagree
4 = undecided
5 = slightly agree
6 = agree
7 = strongly agree

1. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. This organization deserves my loyalty.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17. I owe a great deal to my organization.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

18. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993)

Personal Characteristics: Please enter or select the appropriate answer to the following questions:

1. Age:
2. Kinship responsibilities:
(Number of dependents, a person who relies on another, especially a family member, for financial support.)
3. Organizational Tenure:
(Number of years with current organization)
4. Occupational Tenure:
(Number of years in the coaching profession)
5. Gender: Male or Female
6. Coaching Level: Junior Varsity or Varsity
7. Sport you coach: Boys Varsity Soccer
 Boys JV Soccer
 Girls Varsity Soccer
 Girls JV Soccer
 Boys Varsity Basketball
 Boys JV Basketball
 Girls Varsity Basketball
 Girls JV Basketball
 Boys Varsity Track
 Girls Varsity Track
 Boys and Girls Varsity Track

Appendix F

Approval Letter from IRB



February 11, 2016

File No: 3525-012116-15

Gregory Voloshin
St. John Fisher College

Dear Mr. Voloshin:

Thank you for submitting your research proposal to the Institutional Review Board.

I am pleased to inform you that the Board has approved your Expedited Review project, "Differences in Organizational Commitment Between Male and Female Coaches at the High School Level".

Following federal guidelines, research related records should be maintained in a secure area for three years following the completion of the project at which time they may be destroyed.

Should you have any questions about this process or your responsibilities, please contact me at [_____](#).

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Eileen Lynd-Balta".

Eileen Lynd-Balta, Ph.D.
Chair, Institutional Review Board

ELB:jdr

Appendix G

Approval Letter from OCIAA

ADMINISTRATION

William J. Hecht

District Superintendent/CEO

Deborah McBride Heppes

Assistant Superintendent for Finance

Theresa A. Reynolds

Assistant Superintendent for Instruction

Karen L. McGuckin

Clerk of the Board



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Dorothy A. Slattery, President

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Martha Bopgard

William M. Boss

Virginia L. Expositio

REGIONAL OFFICE OF INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETICS

Christopher P. Mayo, OCIAA Interscholastic Athletic Coordinator

Greg,

I am writing to let you know that the OCIAA approves and supports your research study titled: "Differences in Organizational Commitment Between Male and Female Coaches at the High School Level".

As we discussed, this study could be beneficial for all the Athletic Directors in our league. If my office can be of any assistance to you, please do not hesitate to contact me. Good luck on your study.

A handwritten signature in blue ink that reads 'Christopher P. Mayo'. The signature is fluid and cursive, with the first name 'Christopher' being the most prominent part.

Christopher P. Mayo
OCIAA Interscholastic Athletic Coordinator